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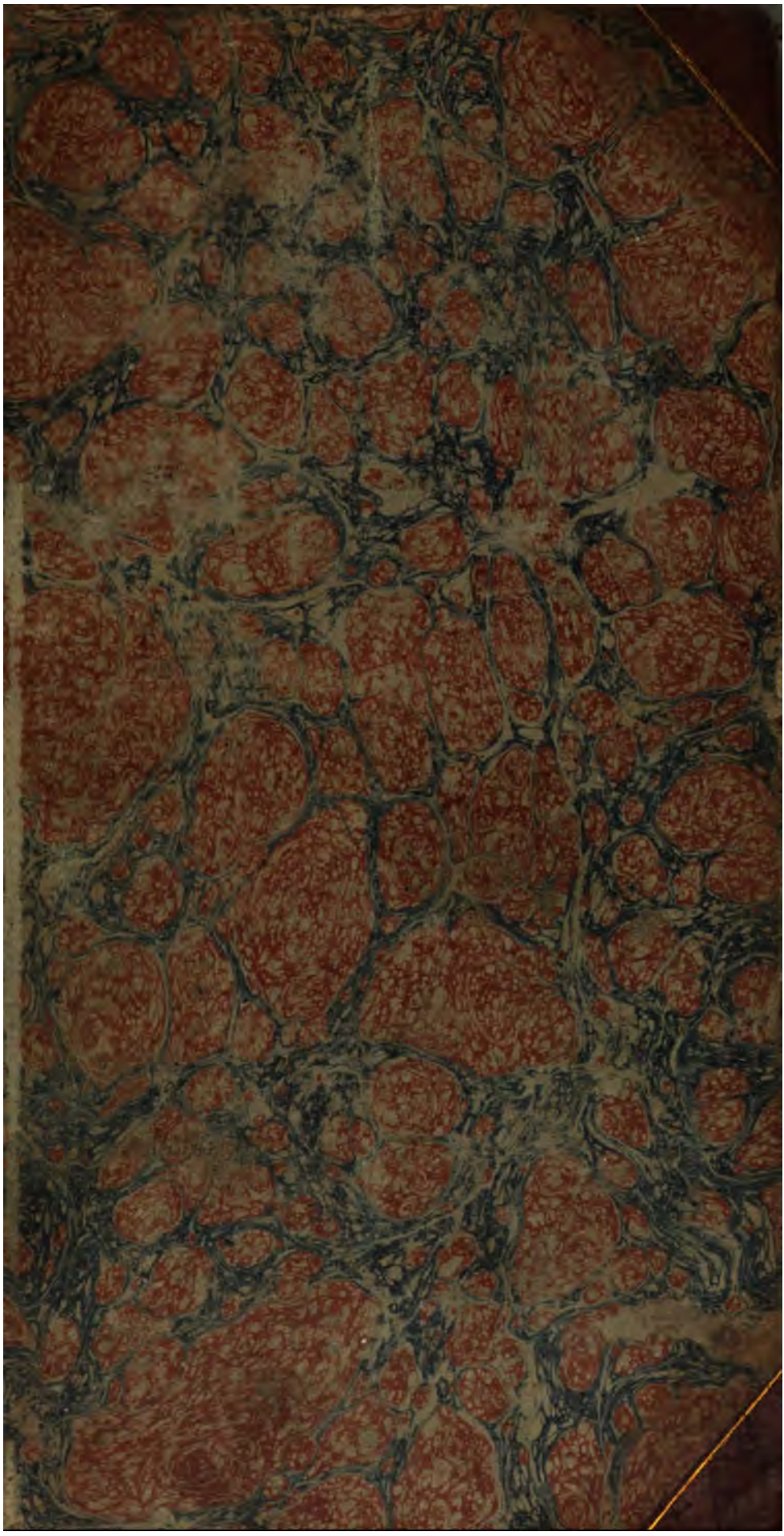

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IN TWENTY THREE VOLUMES.

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ENCYCLOPÆDIA PERTHENSIS.

BLEACHING.

INTRODUCTION.

(1.) BLEACHING may be defined, the art of whitening linen cloth, thread, &c. It is a process of considerable importance to manufactures, and one in which some material improvements have been lately introduced.

(2.) We shall first describe the methods, which, with some few variations, have been practised in this country by the bleachers, and which most of them still adhere to: and, after taking notice of the late chemical improvements of the old method, give an account of the *new process*, for which we are chiefly indebted to the French chemists in general, and M. BERTHOLLET in particular.

PART I.

OF THE OLD OR COMMON METHOD OF BLEACHING.

SECT. I. *Of* BLEACHING *in* GENERAL.

(3.) The process of bleaching is for the most part conducted in the following manner, by those bleachers who have not yet availed themselves of the late discoveries.

(4.) As soon as the cloth, which is intended to be bleached, has been sorted into parcels of an equal fineness, each parcel is stitched, linked, or the ends looped. I. STEEPING is the first operation which the cloth undergoes, and is thus performed: the linens are folded up distinctly, and put in a large wooden vessel; into which is thrown, blood-warm, a sufficient quantity of water, or equal parts of water and ley, which has been used in boiling cloth only, or water with rye-meal or bran mixed with it, till the whole is thoroughly wet, and the liquor rises over all. A cover of some kind is laid over the cloth, and secured with a pin between the boards and the joisting, to prevent the cloth from rising, during the fermentation which follows.

(5.) About six hours after the cloth has been steeped in warm water, and about 12 in cold, bubbles of air arise; a pellicle is formed on the surface of the liquor, and the cloth swells when it is not pressed down. This effect continues from 36 to 48 hours, according to the warmth of the weather; about which time the pellicle or scum begins to fall to the bottom. But before this precipitation happens, the cloth must be taken out, and the proper time for taking it out is when no more air-bubbles arise. The cloth must now be well rinsed, disposed regularly by the selvage, and washed in the put-mill to carry off the loose dust. After this it is to be spread on the field to dry; and when thoroughly dried, it is then ready for bucking.

(6.) II. The 2d operation, BUCKING, or the application of salts, is thus performed: The first, or mother ley, is made in a copper, which we shall suppose, when full, holds 120 gallons of water. The copper is filled three fourths full of water, which is brought to boil: just when it begins, the following proportion of ashes is put into it, viz. 300lb. of blue, and as much white pearl ashes; 200lb. of Marcost ashes (or, if these cannot be got, about 300lb. of Cainub); 300lb. of Muscovy, or blanch ashes: the three last ought to be well pounded.

(7.) This liquor is allowed to boil for a quarter of an hour, stirring the ashes from the bottom very often; after which the fire is taken away. The liquor must stand till it has settled, which takes at least six hours, and then it is fit for the operation.

(8.) Out of the first, or mother ley, the second, or that used in bucking, is made in this manner. Into another copper, holding 160 gallons, are put 150 gallons of water, 2lb. of soft soap, and 8 gallons of mother ley; or, for cheapness, in place of the soap, when they have ley which has been used to white linen, called *white linen ley*, they take 56 gallons of it, leaving out an equal quantity of water. This is called BUCKING LEY.

(9.) The linens, after being taken up from the field to dry, are set in the *vat* or *cave* in rows, endwise, that they may be equally wetted by the ley; which, made blood-warm, is now thrown on them, and the cloth is afterwards trodden down by a man with wooden shoes. Each row undergoes the same operation, until the vessel is full, or all the cloth in it. At first the ley is put on milk-warm, and, after standing a little time on the cloth,

it is again let off by a cock into the bucking-copper, heated to a greater degree, and then put on the cloth again. This sourse is repeated for 6 or 7 hours, and the degree of heat gradually increased, till, at the last turn or two, it is thrown on boiling hot. The cloth remains after this 3 or 4 hours in the ley; after which the ley is let off, thrown away, or used in the first buckings, and the cloth undergoes another kind of procels.

(10.) III. The cloth is carried out, generally early in the morning, spread on the grass, pinned, corded down, exposed to the sun and air, and watered for the first six hours, so often, that it never is allowed to dry. Afterwards it is allowed to lie till dry spots appear before it is watered. After 7 at night it gets no more water, unless it be a very dry drying night. Next day, in the morning and forenoon, it is watered twice or thrice if the day be very dry; but if the weather be not drying, it gets no water; after which it is taken up dry if the green be clean; if not, it is rinsed, mill-washed, and laid out to dry again, to become fit for bucking.

(11.) This alternate course of bucking and watering is performed for the most part from 10 to 16 times, or more, before the linen is fit for souring; gradually increasing the strength of the ley from the first to the middle bucking, and from that gradually decreasing it till the souring begins. The leys in the middle buckings are generally about a third stronger than the first and last.

(12.) IV. The 4th operation is SOURING, or the application of acids to cloth. It is not easy to say when this operation should commence, as it depends mostly on the experience of the bleacher. When the cloth has an equal colour, and is mostly freed from the outer bark of the lint, it is thought fit for souring; which is performed in the following manner.

(13.) Into a large vat is poured such a quantity of butter-milk, or sour milk, as will sufficiently wet the first row of cloth; which is tied up in loose folds, and prelled down by two or three men barefooted. If the milk be thick, about an eighth of water is added to it; if thin, no water. Sours made with bran, or rye-meal and water, are often used instead of milk, and used milk-warm. Over the first row of cloth a quantity of milk and water is thrown, to be imbibed by the second; and so it is continued till the linen to be soured is sufficiently wet, and the liquor rises over the whole. The cloth is then kept down by covers filled with holes, and secured with a post fixed to the joist, that it may not rise.

(14.) Some hours after the cloth has been in the sour, air-bubbles arise, a white scum is formed on the surface, and an intestine motion goes on in the liquor. In warm weather it appears sooner, is stronger, and ends sooner, than in cold weather. Just before this fermentation, which lasts 5 or 6 days, is finished, (at which time the scum falls down,) the cloth should be taken out, rinsed, mill-washed, and delivered to the women to be washed in soap suds.

(15.) V. The 5th operation is WASHING with soap and water. It is performed by two women, each placed opposite at a tub, made of very thick staves, so that the edges, which slope inwards, are about 4 inches in thickness. A small vessel full of warm water is placed in each tub. The cloth folded so that the selvage may be first rubbed with soap and warm water lengthwise, till it is sufficiently impregnated with it. In this manner the parcel is rubbed with soap, and afterwards carried to be bucked.

(16.) The ley now used has no soap in it, except what it gets from the cloth; and is equal in strength to the strongest formerly used, or rather stronger, because the cloth is now put in [illegible] From the former operation these leys are gradually made stronger, till the cloth seems of an uniform white. After this the ley is more specifically weakened than it was increased; so that the ley which the cloth gets is weaker than any it got before. But the management of sours is different, for they are used strongest at first, and decrease so in strength, that the last four, considering the cloth is then always taken up wet, may be reckoned to contain three fourths of water.

(17.) The cloth, after bucking, goes to the tering, as formerly, observing only to overlay selvages, and to tie it down with cords, that may not tear; then it returns to the four, washing, bucking, and watering again. The operations succeed one another alternately cloth is whitened; at which time it is starched, and dried. This is the method in the whitening FINE cloths.

(18.) The following is the method used whitening of COARSE cloths. Having sort cloths according to their quality, they are in the same manner as the fine, rinsed, wa the mill, and dried before boiling. In this boiling supplies the place of bucking, as less time, and consequently is cheapest.

(19.) It is thus performed: 200 lb. of ashes, 100lb. of white Muscovy, and 30lb. ashes, boiled in 500 gallons of water for a of an hour, make the mother or first ley cloth boiler is then to be filled two thirds water and mother ley, about 9 parts of mer to one of the latter; so that the ley boiling the coarse cloth is about one third than that used in bucking the fine. Such tity of cloth is put into the foregoing qu ley, when cold, as can be well covered by ley is brought gradually to the boil, and ing for two hours; the cloth being fixed the time, that it may not rise above the The cloth is then taken out, spread on t and watered, like the fine cloth.

(20.) As this boiling does not exhauft of the ley, the same liquor is continued t all that day, adding, at each boiling, fo the mother ley as will bring it to the same as at first. The ley by boiling loses in somewhat between a 3d and 4th; and i posed, that in strength it loses about a cause, in practice, it is found that add half its former strength in fresh ley, has effect on cloth. Therefore some fresh taining a 4th part of the water, and the h strength of the first ley, makes the 2d bo in strength to the first. To the 3d boiler somewhat more than the former propor go on still increasing gradually to the 4th

which is as much as can be done in a day. The boiler is then cleaned, and next day they begin with fresh ley.

(21.) These additions of fresh ley ought always to be made by the master bleacher, as it requires judgment to bring succeeding leys to the same strength as the first. When the cloth comes to get the second boiling, the ley should be stronger by about a 30th part, and the deficiencies made up in the same proportion. For 6 or 7 boilings, or fewer, if the cloth be thin, the ley is increased in this way, and then gradually diminished till the cloth is fit for souring.

(22.) The whitest cloth ought always to be boiled first, that it may not be hurt by what goes before. In this process, if the cloth cannot be got dry for boiling, business does not stop as in the fine; for after the coarse has been drained, on racks made for that purpose, it is boiled, making the ley strong in proportion to the water in the cloth.

(23.) The common method of souring linen is, to mix some warm water and bran in the vat; then put a layer of cloth; then more bran, water, and cloth; and so on, till the cave is full. The whole is trampled with men's feet, and fixed as in the former process. A thousand yards of cloth, yard-wide, require betwixt 4 and 6 pecks of bran. The cloth generally lies about 3 nights and two days in the sour. Others prepare their sour 24 hours before, by mixing the bran with warm water in a separate vessel; and before pouring it on the cloth, they dilute it with a sufficient quantity of water.

(24.) After the cloth is taken from the sour, it ought to be well washed and rinsed again. It is given to men to be well soaped on a table, and afterwards rubbed betwixt the rubbing-boards. When it comes from them, it should be well milled, and warm water poured on it all the time, if convenience will allow of it. Two or three of these rubbings are sufficient, and the cloth seldom requires more. After the souring begins, the ley is diminished in strength by degrees; and 3 boilings after that are commonly sufficient to finish the work.

(25.) VI. The last operation is to starch, blue, dry, and bittle it, in a machine made for that purpose, which supplies the place of a calender, and is preferred by many. This method of bleaching coarse cloths resembles that practised in Ireland for both fine and coarse. The only material difference is, that there the bleachers use no other ashes but kelp or cashub. A ley is drawn from the former by cold water, which dissolves the salts, and not the sulphureous particles of the kelp-ashes. This ley is used till the cloth is half whitened, and then they lay aside the kelp ley for one made of cashub-ashes.

(26.) Agreeably to the preceding account, bleaching is naturally divided into, 1. Steeping and milling: 2. Bucking and boiling: 3. Alternate watering and drying: 4. Souring: 5. Rubbing with soap and warm water: and, 6. Starching and blueing. We shall treat of these different parts in their order, more particularly.

SECT. II. *Of* STEEPING *and* MILLING.

(27.) LINEN, in the different changes which it undergoes, before it arrives at the state of what is called *Green linen*, contracts a great degree of foulness. This is chiefly communicated to it by the matters used in the dressing, which should be effectually cleared off.

(28.) The first thing, therefore, that is to be done in bleaching, is to take off all the filth that is foreign to the flax, and might, in unskilful hands, be fixed in the cloth. This is the object of steeping; and to accomplish this end, the cloth is laid in a blood-warm water. A smaller degree of heat than that would not dissolve the dressing so soon; and a greater might coagulate and fix, in the body of the linen, those particles which should be carried off. In a few hours the dressing made use of in weaving is dissolved, and mixed with the water; and as it had acquired some degree of acidity before application, it becomes a species of ferment.

(29.) Each ferment promotes its own particular species of intestine motion; the putrid ferment sets in motion the putrefactive fermentation; the vinous ferment gives rise to the vinous fermentation; and the acid ferment to the acetous fermentation. That there is a real fermentation going on in steeping is evident from the air-bubbles which arise, from the scum which gathers on the surface, and from the intestine motion of the whole liquor. That it must be the acetous fermentation, appears from this, that the vegetable particles, already soured, must first undergo this process. The consequence of this operation on the whole is, that the cloth comes out freed in a great measure from its superficial dirt, and more pliant and soft than it was before.

(30.) When this intestine motion is pretty much abated, and before the scum subsides, bleachers take out their cloth. The scum, when no more air-bubbles rise to support it, separates and falls down; and would again communicate to the cloth great part of the filth. But a longer stay would be attended with a much greater disadvantage. The putrid follows close upon the acetous fermentation; when the latter ends, the former begins, and were this to take place in any considerable degree, it would render the cloth black and tender; so that this should be carefully prevented.

(31.) On these principles, the first question to be considered, is, What is the most proper liquor for steeping cloth? The bleachers use plain water; white linen ley and water, equal parts; and rye-meal or bran mixed with water; but they always make use of ley when they have it.

(32.) After steeping, the cloth is carried to the putstock mill, to be freed of all its loose foulnesses. There can be nothing contrived to answer the purpose so effectually as this mill. Its motion is easy, regular, and safe. While it presses gently, it turns the cloth; which is continually washed with a stream of water. Care must be taken, however, that no water be detained in the folds of the linen, otherwise that part may be injured.

SECT. III. *Of* BUCKING *and* BOILING.

(33.) The subject of this section is the most important part of the whole process, and deserves a very nice examination. Its design is to loosen, and carry off, by the help of alkaline lixivia, that particular substance in cloth, which is the cause

of

of its brown colour. All aſhes uſed in ley, pearl aſhes excepted, ought to be well pounded, before they are put into the copper; for the marcoſt and cathub are very hard, and with ſome difficulty yield their ſalt. As theſe two laſt contain a very conſiderable proportion of a matter, which will in ſome degree tinge white cloth; and as this is diſſolved much more by boiling than by the inferior degrees of heat, while the ſalts may be as well extracted by the latter; the water ſhould never be brought to boil, and ſhould be continued for ſome time longer under that degree of heat. The pearl aſhes ſhould never be put in till near the end, as they are very ſoluble in water. If theſe ſalts were always of an equal ſtrength, the ſame quantities would always make a ley equally ſtrong; but they are not. Salts of the ſame name differ very much from each other.

(34.) The Muſcovy aſhes become weaker every day, as every bleacher muſt have obſerved, till at laſt they turn quite effete. A decoction from them when new, muſt differ very much from one when they have been long kept. Hence a neceſſity of ſome exact criterion to diſcover when leys are of an equal ſtrength. The taſte cannot ſerve, as that is ſo variable, cannot be deſcribed to another, and is blunted by repeated trials. The proof-ball will ſerve the purpoſe of the bleachfield ſufficiently; and, by diſcovering the ſpecific gravity, will ſhow the quantity of alkaline ſalts diſſolved. But it cannot ſhow the dangerous qualities of theſe ſalts; for the leſs cauſtic and leſs heavy this liquor is, the more dangerous and corroſive it may be for the cloth. The third ley, which they draw from theſe materials by an infuſion of cold water, in which the taſte of lime is diſcoverable, appears plainly to be more dangerous than the firſt. The ſecond ley, which they extract from the ſame aſhes, and which is reckoned about a third in ſtrength, when compared with the firſt, muſt be of the ſame nature; nor ſhould it be uſed without an addition of pearl-aſhes, which will correct it.

(35.) One general rule is, That the ſolution of any body in its menſtruum is equally diffuſed through the whole liquor. The bleachers, depending on this, uſe equal quantities of the top and bottom of their ley, when once clear and ſettled; taking it for granted, that there is an equal quantity of ſalts in equal quantities of the ley. But it is a fact, that the ley will be in ſome places much ſtronger than the cloth can with ſafety bear; and hence there is a neceſſity for uſing a degree of caution to avoid miſchief. That general law of ſolution muſt have taken its riſe from particular experiments, and not from reaſoning.

(36.) Whether a ſufficient number of experiments have been tried to aſcertain this point, and to eſtabliſh an undoubted general rule, may very reaſonably indeed be called in queſtion. Dr Home ſays, "When I had diſcovered that lime makes part of the diſſolved ſubſtance, and reflected how long its groſſer parts will continue ſuſpended in water, there appeared ſtronger reaſons for ſuſpecting that this rule, though it may be pretty general, does not take place here; at leaſt it is worth the purſuit of experiment. I weighed at the bleachfield a piece of glaſs in ſome cold ley, after it had been boiled, ſtood for two days, and about the fourth part of it had been uſed. T glaſs weighed 5 drams 1⅛ grains in the ley, and drams 7¼ grains in river-water. The ſame gl weighed in the ſame ley, when almoſt all uſed grains leſs than it had done before. This ſhow that the laſt of the ley contained a third more the diſſolved body; and, conſequently, wa third ſtronger than the firſt of the ley.

(37.) "As this might, perhaps, be owing t continuation of the ſolution of the ſalts, I repea the experiment in a different way. I took fi the ſurface ſome of the ley, after the ſalts w diſſolved, and the liquor was become clear. the ſame time I immerſed a bottle, fixed t long ſtick, ſo near the bottom, as not to raiſe aſhes there, and, by pulling out the cork t ſtring, filled the bottle full of the ley near the tom. The glaſs weighed in river-water 3 dr 28½ grains; in the ley taken from the ſurfa drams 34½ grains; and in the ley taken from bottom 3 drams 38⅛ grains. This experi ſhows, that the ley at the bottom was, in this ⅛ths ſtronger than the ley at the ſurface.

(38.) "At other times when I tried the experiment, I found no difference in the ſp gravity; and therefore, I leave it as a queſtio doubtful, though deſerving to be aſcertain thoſe who have an opportunity of doing it the ley ſtands continually on the aſhes, ther be no doubt but what is uſed laſt muſt be ſ er than the firſt. I would therefore recom to general practice, the method uſed by M Chriſtie, who draws off the ley, after it has into a ſecond receptacle, and leaves the aſ hind. By this means it never can turn ſt and he has it in his power to mix the top a tom, which cannot be done ſo long as it ſta the aſhes."

(39.) Let us inquire how the ley acts. Inquiry depends almoſt the whole theory of ing, as its action on cloth is, at leaſt in thi try, abſolutely neceſſary. It is found by ment, that one effect leys have on cloth i miniſhing of its weight; and that their w power is generally in proportion to their ing power. Hence ariſes a probability, t leys act by removing ſomewhat from th and that the loſs of this ſubſtance is the whiteneſs. This appears ſtill plainer, bucking, which laſts from Saturday night day morning, is attended to.

(40.) Chemiſts differ greatly with rega operations of theſe ſalts; whether they tering the external texture of the cloth, parating the mucilaginous parts from th by extracting the oil which is laid up i of the plant. The laſt is the general o rather conjecture, for none of them de better name; but we may venture to a it is ſo, without any better title to pre than the others have. Alkaline ſalts di therefore that theſe ſalts diſſolve the cloth, is all the foundation which this to reſt on; too ſlight when unſuppor periment, to be relied on.

(41.) Dr Home endeavours to ſettle th by the following experiments and obſe "Wax (ſays he) is whitened by being

e fourth part of it had been used. The ighed 3 drams 12½ grains in the ley, and 3 ½ grains in river-water. The same glass in the same ley, when almost all used, s ſo than it had done before. This shows, laſt of the ley contained a third more of olved body; and, consequently, was a onger than the firſt of the ley.

" As this might, perhaps, be owing to a ition of the ſolution of the ſalts, I repeated eriment in a different way. I took from ice ſome of the ley, after the ſalts were , and the liquor was become clear. At time I immerſed a bottle, fixed to a k, ſo near the bottom, as not to raiſe the ere, and, by pulling out the cork by a lled the bottle full of the ley near the bot- The glaſs weighed in river-water 3 drams ns; in the ley taken from the ſurface 3 ¼ grains; and in the ley taken from the 3 drams 31½ grains. This experiment hat the ley at the bottom was, in this caſe, nger than the ley at the ſurface.

" At other times when I tried the ſame nt, I found no difference in the ſpecific and therefore, I leave it as a queſtion yet , though deſerving to be aſcertained by o have an opportunity of doing it. As ands continually on the aſhes, there can ubt but what is uſed laſt muſt be ſtrong- he firſt. I would therefore recommend, l practice, the method uſed by Mr John who draws off the ley, after it has ſettled ond receptacle, and leaves the aſhes be- y this means it never can turn ſtronger; s it in his power to mix the top and bot- ch cannot be done ſo long as it ſtands on ."

et us inquire how the ley acts. On this epends almoſt the whole theory of bleach- action on cloth is, at leaſt in this coun- lutely neceſſary. It is found by experi- at one effect leys have on cloth is the di- of its weight; and that their whitening generally in proportion to their weaker- r. Hence ariſes a probability, that theſe y removing ſomewhat from the cloth, he loſs of this ſubſtance is the cauſe of . This appears ſtill plainer, when the which laſts from Saturday night to Mon- ing, is attended to.

hemiſts differ greatly with regard to the s of theſe ſalts; whether they act by al- external texture of the cloth, or by re- he mucilaginous parts from the reſt, or ing the oil which is laid up in the cells . The laſt is the general opinion, or nt. The laſt is the general opinion, or ueſtion, for none of them deſerves any me; but we may venture to affirm, that ithout any better title to pre-eminence others have. Alkaline ſalts diſſolve oils, that theſe ſalts diſſolve the oil of the ll the foundation which this theory has too ſlight when unſupported by ex- to be relied on.

endeavours to ſettle this queſtion and obſervations—

the influence of the ſun, air, and moiſture. A diſcovery of the change made on it by bleaching, may throw a light upon the queſtion. Six drams of wax were ſliced down, expoſed on a S. window, Sept. 11, and watered. That day being clear and warm, bleached the wax more than all the ſub- ſequent. It ſeemed to me to whiten quicker, when it had no water thrown on it than when it had. Sept. 15, it was very white, and 1 dram 3 grains lighter. 38 drams of this bleached wax, and as much of unbleached, taken from the ſame piece, were made into two candles of the ſame length and thickneſs, having cotton wicks of the ſame kind. The bleached candle burnt 1 hour 33 minutes; the unbleached 3 minutes longer. The former run down 4 times, the latter never. The former had an obſcure light and dull flame; the latter had a clear pleaſant one, of a blue colour at the bottom. The former, when burning, ſeem- ed to have its wick thicker, and its flame nearer the wax, than the latter. The former was brittle, the latter not.

(45.) "It plainly appears from theſe facts, that the unbleached wax was more inflammable than the bleached; and that the latter had loſt ſo much of its inflammable ſubſtance as it had loſt in weight; and conſequently the ſubſtance loſt in bleaching of wax is the oily part. As I had not an oppor- tunity of repeating the former experiment, I do not look on it as entirely concluſive; for it is poſ- ſible that ſome of the duſt, flying about in the air, might have mixed with the bleached wax, and ſo have rendered it leſs inflammable. Nor do I think the analogical reaſoning from wax to linen with- out objections. Let us try then if we cannot pro- cure the ſubſtance extracted from the cloth, ſhow it to the eye, and examine its different properties. The proper place to find it, is in a ley already uſed, and fully impregnated with theſe colouring particles.

(46.) "I put in the bleachfield ſome ley, which had been uſed all that day for boiling coarſe linen, which was tolerably white, and had been twice boiled before. There could be no dreſſing remaining in theſe webs. No ſoap had ever touch- ed that parcel; nor do they mix ſoap with the ley uſed for coarſe cloth. Some of this impreg- nated ley was evaporated, and left a dark-colour- ed matter behind. This ſubſtance felt oily be- tween the fingers, but would not lather in water as ſoap does. It deflagrated with nitre in fuſion, and afforded a tincture to ſpirit of wine. By this experiment the ſalts ſeem to have an oily inflam- mable ſubſtance joined with them.

(47.) "Could we ſeparate this colouring ſub- ſtance from theſe ſalts, and exhibit it by itſelf, ſo that it might become the object of experiment, the queſtion would be ſoon decided. Here che- miſtry leads us its aſſiſtance. Whatever has a ſtrong affinity or attraction to the ſalts with which it is joined, than this ſubſtance has, muſt ſet it at liberty, and make it viſible. Acids attract alka- lies ſo much from all other bodies; and therefore will throw any powder.

(48.) "Into a quantity of the impregnated ley mentioned in the former experiment, I poured ſome oil of vitriol. Some bubbles of air roſe, an in- teſtine motion was to be perceived, and the liquor changed its colour from a dark to a turbid white. It curdled like a ſolution of ſoap, and a ſcum ſoon gathered on the ſurface, about half an inch in thickneſs, the deepneſs of the liquor not being a- bove 6 inches. What was below was now pretty clear. A great deal of the ſame matter lay in the bottom; and I obſerved that the ſubſtance on the ſurface was precipitated, and ſhowed itſelf hea- vier than water, when the particles of air, attach- ed to it in great plenty, were diſpelled by heat. This ſubſtance was in colour darker than the cloth which had been boiled in it.

(48.) "I procured a conſiderable quantity of it by ſkimming it off. When I tried to mix it with water, it always fell to the bottom. When dried by the air, it diminiſhed very much in its ſize, and turned as black as a coal. In this ſtate it deflagrated ſtrongly with nitre in fuſion; gave a ſtrong tincture to ſpirit of wine; and, when put on a red hot iron, burnt very ſlowly, as if it con- tained a heavy ponderous oil; and left ſome earth behind.

(49.) "From the inflammability of this ſubſtance, its rejecting of water, and diſſolving in ſpirit of wine, we diſcover its oleaginous nature; but from its great ſpecific gravity we ſee that it differs very much from the expreſſed or cellular oil of vegeta- bles; and yet more from their mucilage. That it diſſolves in ſpirit of wine, is not a certain argu- ment of its differing from expreſſed oils; becauſe theſe when joined to alkaline ſalts, and recovered again by acids, become ſoluble in ſpirit of wine. The quantity of earthy powder left behind after burning, ſhows that it contains many of the ſolid particles of the flax. The ſubſtance extracted from cloth by alkaline leys appears then to be a compoſition of a heavy oil, and the ſolid earthy particles of the flax.—In what manner theſe ſalts act, ſo as to diſſolve the oils, and detach the ſo- lid particles, is uncertain; but we ſee evidently how much cloth muſt be weakened by an impro- per uſe of them, as we find the ſolid particles themſelves are ſeparated."

(48.) That the ſalts may enter into the body of the cloth along with the water, it is abſolutely neceſſary that the cloth be dry before bucking; for they will not enter in ſuch quantity if it be wet, and, by acting too powerfully on the exter- nal threads, may endanger them. The degree of heat is a very material circumſtance in this ope- ration. As the action of the ſalts is always in pro- portion to the heat, it would appear more proper to begin with a boiling heat, by which a great deal of time and labour might be ſaved. The rea- ſon why this method is not followed appears to be this: If any vegetable, or vegetable ſubſtance, is to be ſoftened, and to have its juices extracted, it is found more proper to give it gentle degrees of heat at firſt, and to advance gradually, than to plunge it all at once in boiling water. This laſt degree of heat is ſo ſtrong, that, when appli- ed at once to a vegetable, it hardens inſtead of ſoftening its texture. Dried vegetables are im- mediately put into boiling water by cooks, that theſe ſubſtances may preſerve their green colour, which is only to be done by hindering them from turning too ſoft. Boiling water has the ſame ef- fect on animal ſubſtances; for, if ſalt beef is put

into it, the water is kept from getting at the ſalts from the outſide of the beef being hardened.

(49.) If we conſider how much of an oily ſubſtance there is in the cloth, eſpecially at firſt, which will for ſome time keep off the water, and how the twiſting of the threads, and cloſeneſs of the texture, hinders the water from penetrating, we ſhall find that, if boiling water were put on it at once, the cloth might be liable, in ſeveral parts, to a dry heat, which would be much worſe than a wet one. That the leys have not acceſs to all parts of the cloth at firſt, appears plainly from this, that when it has lain after the firſt bucking, till all the leys are waſhed out, it is as black, in ſome parts, as when it was ſteeped. This muſt be owing to the diſcharge of the colouring particles, from thoſe places to which the ley has acceſs, and to their remaining where it has not. It ſeems adviſeable, then, in the firſt bucking or two, when the cloth is foul, to uſe the ley conſiderably below the boiling point; that by this ſoaking or maceration, the foulneſs may be entirely diſcharged, and the cloth quite opened for the ſpeedy reception of the boiling ley in the buckings which ſucceed. The leys ſhould likewiſe be weakeſt in the firſt buckings, becauſe then they act only on the more external parts; whereas, when the cloth is more opened, and the field of action is increaſed, the active powers ought to be ſo too. For this reaſon they are at the ſtrongeſt after ſome ſourings.

(50.) As to the management of the coarſe cloth, where *boiling* is ſubſtituted in place of *bucking*, this ſpecies of linen cannot afford the time and labour neceſſary for the latter operation; and therefore they muſt undergo a ſhorter and more active method. As the heat continues longer at the degree of boiling, the leys uſed to the coarſe cloth muſt be weaker, than thoſe uſed to the fine. There is not ſo much danger from heat in the coarſe as in the fine cloth, becauſe the former is of a more open texture, and will allow the ley to penetrate more ſpeedily. In the cloſer kinds, however, the firſt application of the ſalts ſhould be made without a boiling heat being uſed.

SECT. IV. *Of* ALTERNATE WATERING *and* DRYING.

(51.) When the cloth has been bucked, it is carried out to the field, and frequently watered for the firſt ſix hours. For if, during that time, when it is ſtrongly impregnated with ſalts, it is allowed to dry, the ſalts approaching cloſer together, and aſſiſted by a greater degree of heat, increaſing always in proportion to the dryneſs of the cloth, act with greater force, and deſtroy its very texture. After this, dry ſpots are allowed to appear before it gets any water. In this ſtate it profits moſt, as the latter part of the evaporation comes from the more internal parts of the cloth, and will carry away moſt from thoſe parts. The bleaching of the wax, in Dr Home's experiment (§ 41,) confirms this; for it ſeemed to whiten moſt when the laſt particles of water were going off.

(52.) This continual evaporation from the ſurface of the cloth ſhows, that the operation carries ſomewhat remaining after the former proceſs of bucking. This appears likewiſe from a fact known to all bleachers, that the upper ſide of cloth, where the evaporation is ſtrongeſt, attains to a greater degree of whiteneſs than the under ſide. But it is placed beyond all doubt by the fact, that cloth turns much lighter by being expoſed to the influence of the ſun, air, and winds oven though the ſalts have been waſhed out of it

(53.) What is the nature then of this ſubſtance As it appears (§ 40,) that the whitening, in the operation of bucking, depends on the extractin the heavy oil, and ſolid particles of the flax; it highly probable, that the effects of watering, an expoſure to the ſun, air, and winds, are produce by the evaporation of the ſame ſubſtance, joined t the ſalts, with which compoſite body the cloth impregnated, when expoſed on the field. Th theſe ſalts are in a great meaſure carried off or d ſtroyed, appears from the cloth being allowed t dry without any danger, after the evaporation h gone on for ſome time. "If we can ſhow (ſa Dr Home) that oils and ſalts, when joined tog ther, are capable of being exhaled, in this ma ner, by the heat of the atmoſphere, we ſhall r duce this queſtion to a very great degree of ce tainty. Sept. 10, I expoſed in a S. W. windo half an oz. of Caſtile ſoap, ſliced down and w tered. Sept. 14, when well dried, it weighed but 3 dr. 6 gr. Sept. 22, it weighed 2 dr. 2 g Sept. 24, it weighed 1 dr. 50 gr. It then ſeeme a very little whiter; but was much more mucil ginous in its taſte, and had no degree of ſaltne which it had before.

(54.) "It appears from this experiment, th ſoap is ſo volatile, when watered, and expoſed air not very warm, that it loſes above half i weight in 14 days. The ſame muſt happen to t ſaponaceous ſubſtance, formed from the conjun tion of the alkaline ſalts, heavy oil, and earthy pa ticles of the flax. The whole deſign, then, this operation, which by way of pre-eminen gets the name of BLEACHING, is to carry off, t the evaporation of water, whatever has been lo ſened by the former proceſs of bucking.

(55.) Againſt this doctrine there may be brough two objections, ſeemingly of great weight. It a general opinion amongſt bleachers, that lin whitens quicker in March and April than in a other months: but as the evaporation cannot ſo great at that time as when the ſun has a grea er heat; hence the whitening of cloth is not proportion to the degree of evaporation; a therefore the former cannot be owing to the la ter. This objection vaniſhes, when we conſide that the cloth that comes firſt into the bleachfiel in the ſpring, is cloſely attended, having no oth to interfere with it for ſometime; and as it is t whiteſt, gets, in the after buckings, the firſt the ley; while the ſecond parcel is often buck with what has been uſed to the firſt. Were t fact true, on which the objection is founded, t would be a ſufficient anſwer to the objection. But it appears not to be true, from an obſerv tion of Mr John Chriſtie, That cloth laid do in the beginning of June, and finiſhed in Septe ber, takes generally leſs work, and undergo fewer operations, than what is laid down in Ma and finiſhed in June.

(56.) "T

(56.) "The other objection is, That cloth dries much faſter in windy weather than in calm ſunſhine; but it does not bleach ſo faſt. This would ſeem to ſhow, that the ſun has ſome particular influence independent on evaporation. In anſwer to this objection, let it be conſidered, that it is not the evaporation from the ſurface, but from the more internal parts, that is of benefit to the cloth. Now, this latter evaporation muſt be much ſtronger in ſunſhine than in windy weather, on account of the heat of the ſun, which will make the cloth more open; while the coldneſs of windy weather muſt ſhut it up, ſo that the evaporation will all be from the ſurface. Clear ſunſhine, with a very little wind, is obſerved to be the beſt weather for bleaching; a convincing proof that this reaſoning is juſt.

(57.) "It would ſeem to follow as a corollary from this reaſoning, that the number of waterings ſhould in general be in proportion to the ſtrength of the ley; for the ſtronger the ley is, the more there is to be evaporated; and the greater the danger, in caſe the cloth ſhould be allowed to dry. But there is an exception to this general rule, ariſing from the conſideration of another circumſtance. It is obſerved, that cloth when brown dries ſooner than when it becomes whiter, ariſing from the cloſeneſs and oilineſs which it then has, not allowing the water a free paſſage. Perhaps that colour may retain a greater degree of heat, and in that way aſſiſt a very little. Cloth, therefore, after the firſt buckings, muſt be more carefully watered than after the laſt.

(58.) "It follows likewiſe from this reaſoning, that the ſoil of the bleach-field ſhould be gravelly or ſandy, that the water may paſs quickly through it, and that the heat may be increaſed by the reflection of the ſoil, for the ſucceſs of this operation depends on the mutual action of heat and evaporation. It is likewiſe neceſſary that the water ſhould be light, ſoft, and free from mud or dirt, which not being able to riſe along with the water, muſt remain behind. When there is much of this, it becomes neceſſary to rinſe the cloth in water, and then give it a milling, to take out the dirt; elſe it would be fixed in the cloth by the following bucking, as it is not ſoluble by the ley.

(59.) "This operation has more attributed to it by the bleachers than it can juſtly claim. The cloth appears, to the eye, to whiten under theſe alternate waterings and dryings; and theſe naturally get the honour of it, when it more properly belongs to the former operation. Here lies the fallacy. Alkaline ſalts give a very high colour to the decoctions or infuſion of vegetables. This is probably owing to the ſolution of the oleaginous coloring particles of the plant; which particles, being opened and ſeparated by the ſalts, occupy a greater ſpace, and give a deep colour to the liquor. The cloth participates of the liquor and colour. Hence bleachers always judge of the goodneſs of the bucking by the deepneſs of its colour. This rule, in general, is good. I obſerve that in thoſe buckings which continue from the Saturday night to the Monday morning, the cloth has always the deepeſt colour. When that cloth has been expoſed ſome hours to the influence of the air, theſe colouring particles, which are but looſely attached to it, are evaporated, and the linen appears of a brighter colour. This operation does no more than complete what the former had almoſt finiſhed. If its own merit were thoroughly known, there would be no occaſion to attribute that of another operation to it. Thread, and open cloths, ſuch as diaper, may be reduced to a great degree of whiteneſs, after one bucking, by it alone. No cloth, as would appear, can attain to a bright whiteneſs without it.

(60.) "Since the only advantage of watering is the removal of the ſalts, and what they have diſſolved, might we not effectuate this by ſome cheaper and more certain method? for it occupies many hands; and muſt depend altogether on the uncertainty of the weather; ſo that in the beginning of the ſeaſon, the bleacher is often obliged to repeat his buckings without bleaching. We might take out the alkaline ſalts by acids; but then the other ſubſtance would be left alone in the cloth, nor would any waſhing be able to remove it. Mill-waſhing appears a more probable method of taking out both ſalts and oils; and it would ſeem that this might in a great meaſure ſupply the place of watering; but upon trial it does not ſucceed. Two parcels of linen were managed equally in every other reſpect, except in this, that one was watered, and expoſed to the influence of the air, and the other was only mill-waſhed. This method was followed until they were fit for ſouring. The cloth which had been mill-waſhed had a remarkable green colour, and did not recover the bright colour of the pieces managed in the common way, until it had been treated like them for a fortnight. The green colour was certainly owing to a precipitation of the ſulphureous particles, with which the ley is impregnated, upon the ſurface of the cloth; owing to the ſalts being waſhed off more ſpeedily than the ſulphur, to which they are united in the ley. The attachment betwixt theſe two bodies we know is very looſe, and the ſeparation eaſily made. Evaporation then alone is ſufficient to carry off theſe ſulphurous particles."

SECT. V. *Of* SOURING.

(61.) That alkaline ſalts are convertible, by different methods, into abſorbent earths, is a fact well known in chemiſtry. Frequent ſolution in water, and evaporation of it again, is one of theſe. The tranſmutation then of theſe ſalts, which are not volatiliſed or waſhed away, muſt be continually going on in the cloth under theſe alternate waterings and dryings of the former proceſs: not much indeed after the firſt two or three buckings; becauſe the ſalts, not having entered deep into the cloth, are eaſily waſhed off, or evaporated. But when they penetrate into the very compoſition of the cloth and minuteſt fibres, of which the firſt veſſels are made, they have great difficulty of eſcaping again, and muſt be more ſubject to this tranſmutation. But if we conſider the bleaching aſhes as a compoſition of lime and alkaline ſalts, we muſt diſcover a freſh fund for the depoſition of this abſorbent earth. The common cauſtic, a compoſition of this very kind, is ſoon converted if expoſed to the open air, into a harmleſs earthy kind of powder.

(62.) Fre-

(62.) Frequent buckings and bleachings load cload with this ſubſtance. It becomes then neceſſary to take it out. No waſhing can do that, becauſe earth is not ſoluble in water. Nothing but acids can remove it. Theſe are attracted by the abſorbent earth, join themſelves to it, and compoſe a kind of neutral imperfect ſalt, which is ſoluble in water, and therefore eaſily waſhed out of the cloth. The acid liquors commonly uſed, are butter-milk, which is reckoned the beſt, ſour milk, infuſion of bran, rye-meal, &c. kept for ſome days till they ſour. Sour why is thought to give the cloth a yellow tinge.

(63.) Before the linen is put in the four, it ſhould be dried, that the acid particles may penetrate, along with the watery, through the whole. A few hours after it has been there, air-bubbles ariſe, the liquor ſwells, and a thick ſcum is formed; manifeſt ſigns of a fermentation. The following experiment, ſays Dr Home, ſhows the degree of heat which attends it. "May 25, I put a thermometer of Fahrenheit's into ſome butter milk, of which the bleachers were compoſing their ſours, and which ſtood in a vat adjoining to another, where the milk was the ſame, and the ſouring proceſs had gone on for two days. After the thermometer had been 20 minutes in the butter milk, the mercury ſtood at 64 degrees. In the ſouring vat it roſe to 68 degrees. An increaſe of four degrees ſhows a pretty briſk inteſtine motion.

(64.) "To what are all theſe effects owing? To the acetous fermentation going on in thoſe vegetable liquors, whoſe acids, extricating themſelves, produce heat, inteſtine motion, and air-bubbles. As the change is ſlow, the proceſs takes five or ſix days before it is finiſhed. During this time the acid particles are continually uniting themſelves to the abſorbent earth in the cloth. That this fermentation goes on in the liquor alone, appears from this conſideration, that the ſame effects, *viz.* air-bubbles, and ſcum, are to be ſeen in the butter milk alone. The only effect then it has is, by the ſmall degree of heat, and inteſtine motion, which attend it, to aſſiſt the junction of the acid and abſorbent particles. We ſhall preſently ſee that this proceſs may be carried on to as great advantage, without any fermentation; and therefore it appears not abſolutely neceſſary.

(65.) "When theſe abſorbent particles are fully ſaturated, the remaining acids may unite with, and have ſome ſmall effect in extracting the colouring particles. This appears from the two following experiments. Sept. 30, a piece of cloth which had been ſteeped, weighing 41½ gr. was put into a half-pound of butter milk, whigged, and well foured, by a mixture of water, and by boiling. Sept. 24, when taken out, and waſhed in water, it appeared a very little whiter. The mineral acids, as will appear afterwards, whiten cloth, even though they are very much diluted.

(66.) "Juſt before the acetous fermentation is finiſhed, the cloth ſhould be taken out; otherwiſe the ſcum will fall down and lodge in the cloth, and the putrefaction which then begins will weaken it. This appears from the following experiment. Sept. 16, a piece of cloth weighing 42 gr. was laid in butter milk unwhigged. Novem. 15, the milk had a putrefied ſmell. The cloth was a little whiter, but very tender; and weighed when well waſhed in warm water and dried 40 gr."

(67.) Sours made of bran, rye-meal, &c. ought to be prepared before uſe, to ſave time. Beſides when the water is poured upon the cloth, the linen is not in a better ſituation than if it had been taken up wet from the field; and thus the acid particles cannot penetrate ſo deep. Again this method of mixing the bran with the cloth may be attended with ſtill worſe conſequences. All vegetable ſubſtances, when much preſſed fall into the putreſcent, and not the acetous fermentation. This often happens to the bran preſſed betwixt the different layers on the linen, which muſt weaken the cloth. Hence, all ſours ſhould be prepared before the cloth is ſteeped in them, and none of the bran or meal ſhould be mixed with the cloth.

(68.) The ſours are uſed ſtrongeſt at firſt, and gradually weakened till the cloth has attained to its whiteneſs. In the firſt ſourings, there is more of the earthy matter in the cloth, from the many buckings it has undergone, than there can be afterwards. As the quantity of this matter decreaſes, ſo ſhould the ſtrength of the ſour. There is not, however, the leaſt danger, at any time, from too ſtrong a ſour. What is moſt wanted in this operation is a more expeditious and cheap method of obtaining the ſame end. As it takes five or ſix days, it retards the whitening of the cloth conſiderably; and as bleachers are obliged to ſend for milk to a great diſtance, it becomes very dear. This laſt conſideration makes them keep it ſo long that, when uſed, it can have no good effect; perhaps it may have a bad one.

(69.) One conſideration may lead us to ſhorten the time. The ſouring proceſs is ſooner finiſhed in warm than in cold weather. Heat quickens the fermentation, by aiding the inteſtine motion. The vats therefore ſhould not be buried in the ground, as they always are, and which keep them cold: there ſhould be pipes along the wall of the room, to give it that degree of heat which on trial, anſwers beſt. There are few days in ſummer ſo hot as is neceſſary; and the beginning and end of the ſeaſon are by much too cold. That this is no ideal ſcheme, the following fact proves. There are two vats in Salton bleachfield, adjoining to a partition wall, at the back of which there is a kitchen fire. In theſe vats the ſouring proceſs is finiſhed in three days, whereas it laſts five or ſix days in thoſe that are placed round the ſame room.

(70.) This improvement, though it ſhortens the time of ſouring a very little, yet is no remedy againſt the ſcarcity and dearneſs of milk ſours. Such a liquor as would ſerve our purpoſe, muſt be found either among the vegetable acids, which have no further fermentation to undergo, or among the mineral acids. The former are a large claſs, and contain within themſelves many different ſpecies; ſuch as the acid juice of ſeveral plants, vinegars made of fermented liquors, and acid ſalts, called *tartars*. But there is one objection againſt theſe vegetable acids: they all contain, along the acid, a great quantity of oily matter

…gs are increaſed in ſtrength, while the ſours …miniſhed. There are two cauſes for this. …texture of the cloth is now ſo opened, that …ugh the leys are ſtrong, the alkaline ſalts and …rbent earth are eaſily waſhed out; and the …particles are in a great meaſure removed which …to blunt the acidity of the liquor.

…5.) There are two objections however, againſt …uſe of vitriolic ſours. One is, that the pro… of ſouring with milk is performed by a fer…ntation; and as there is no fermentation in the …riol ſours, they cannot ſerve the purpoſe ſo well: …other, that they may hurt the texture of the …th. The anſwer to the former objection is very …ort; that the vitriol ſours operate ſucceſsfully …ithout a fermentation, as experience ſhows; and …erefore in them a fermentation is unneceſſary. …s to the latter objection, that oil of vitriol, be…ng a very corroſive body, may hurt the cloth; …nat will vaniſh likewiſe, when it is conſidered …ow much the vitriol is diluted with water, that …he liquor is not ſtronger than vinegar, and that …it may be ſafely taken into the human body. In…deed that it may be ſafely uſed much ſtronger than what is neceſſary in the bleachfield, appears from the following experiment with regard to the ſtamping of linen.

(76.) After the linen is boiled in a ley of aſhes, it is bleached for ſome time; after which, to make it receive the colour, it is ſteeped in a ſour of water and oil of vitriol, about 15 times ſtronger than that made uſe of in the bleachfield; for to 100 gallons of water are added 2¼ of oil of vitriol. Into this quantity of liquor, made ſo warm as the hand can juſt be held in it, is put 7 pieces, of 28 yards each. The linen remains in it about two hours, and comes out remarkably whiter. The fine cloth often undergoes this operation twice; nor is there any danger if the oil of vitriol is well mixed with the water. But if the two are not well mixed together, and the vitriolic acid remains in ſome parts undiluted, the cloth will be corroded.

(77.) The vitriolic ſours have various advantages over thoſe of milk. The latter is full of oily particles, ſome of which muſt be left in the cloth; but the caſe is worſe when the ſcum is allowed to precipitate upon the cloth. The former is liable to neither of theſe objections. The common ſours haſten very faſt to corruption; and if, from want of proper care, they ever arrive at that ſtate, muſt damage the cloth very much. As the milk is kept very long, it is often putrid before it is uſed; and, without acting as a four, has conſiderable bad effects, whilſt the vitriol ſours are not ſubject to putrefaction at all. Milk ſours are very dear, and often difficult to be got; thoſe of vitriol are cheap, and may be eaſily procured at any time. The milk takes 5 days to perform its taſk; but the vitrol ſours do it in as many hours; nay, perhaps in as many minutes. Their junction with the abſorbent particles in the cloth muſt be immediate, whenever theſe acid particles enter with the water.

(78.) An unanſwerable proof, that the fact is ſo, ariſes from the circumſtances which happen when the cloth is firſt ſteeped in the vitriol four; the cloth has no ſooner imbibed the acid liquor, than it loſes all acidity, and becomes immediately vapid. This

effect of vitriol four muſt be of great advantage in the bleachfield, as the bleachers are at preſent hindered from enjoying the ſeaſon by the tedioufneſs of the ſouring proceſs. The whole round of operations takes 7 days; to anſwer which they muſt have 7 parcels, which are often mixing together, and cauſing miſtakes. As three days at moſt will be ſufficient for all the operations when vitriol fours are uſed, there needs be no more than 3 parcels. The cloth will be kept a ſhorter time in the bleaching, and arrive ſooner at market.

(79.) Vitriol has alſo another advantage in its power of whitening cloth. Even in this diluted ſtate, its whitening power is very conſiderable. We have already ſeen, that it removes the ſame colouring particles which the alkaline leys do. What then remains of it, after the alkaline and abſorbent particles are neutralized in the cloth, muſt act on theſe colouring particles, and help to whiten the cloth. That this is really the caſe, appears from the following fact. A bleacher being obliged to chooſe 20 of the whiteſt pieces out of 100, he took 20 of the pieces which were bleached with vitriolic acid. On the whole, from both reaſon and experience it appears, that it muſt be for the advantage of our linen manufactures to uſe vitriolic inſtead of milk fours.

SECT. VI. *Of* WASHING, HAND-RUBBING, RUBBING BOARDS, STARCHING, *&c.*

(80.) As ſoon as the cloth comes from the fouring, it ſhould be well waſhed in the waſhing-mill, to take off all the acid particles which adhere to its ſurface. All acids decompoſe ſoap, by ſeparating alkaline ſalts and oily parts from each other. Were this to happen on the ſurface of the cloth, the oil would remain; nor would the waſhing mill afterwards be able to be rubbed by women's hands, with ſoap and water. As the liquors, which are generally employed for ſouring, are impregnated with oily particles, many of theſe muſt lodge in the cloth, and remain, notwithſtanding the preceding milling. It is probable that all the heavy oils are not evaporated by bleaching. Hence it is neceſſary to apply ſoap and warm water, which unite with, diſſolve, and carry them off. It is obſerved, that if the cloth, when it is pretty white, gets too much ſoap, the following bleaching is apt to make it yellow; on that account the ſoap ſhould be wrung out.

(81.) It has been doubted, whether it be better to uſe hard or ſoft ſoap for the cloth. Moſt bleachers agree, that the hard ſoap is apt to leave a yelloweſs in the cloth, and it is ſaid, that it is diſuſed in Holland on that account. As there muſt be a conſiderable quantity of ſea-ſalt in the hard, which is not in the ſoft ſoap, and as this ſalt appears prejudicial to cloth, the ſoft ſoap ought certainly to be preferred.

(82.) In this operation, the management of the COARSE cloth is very different from that of the FINE. Inſtead of being rubbed with hands, which would be too expenſive, it is laid on a table, run over with ſoap, and then put between two rubbing boards, which have ridges or grooves from one ſide to another, like teeth. Theſe boards have [illegible] edges to keep in the ſoap and water, which [illegible] the cloth. They are moved either by hand or by a water-wheel, which is more equal and cheap. The cloth is either drawn by degrees through the boards, by men; or which is better the ſame wheel moves two rollars, with ridge and groove, ſo that the former enters the latter, and by a gentle motion round their own axis, the cloth is gradually pulled through the boards. This mill was invented in Ireland above 30 years ago. The Iriſh bleachers uſe it for their fine as well as coarſe cloths. Theſe rubbing boards were diſcharged ſome years ago in Ireland, by the truſtees for the manufactures of that country, being convinced from long experience of their bad effects. But as proper care was not taken to inſtruct the bleachers by degrees in a ſafer method, they continued in the old, made a party, and kept poſſeſſion of the rubbing boards. There were conſiderable improvements made in them in this country ſuch as the addition of the ledges, to keep the cloth moiſt; and of the rollers, which pull the cloth more gradually then men's hands. Theſe improvements were firſt made in SALTON bleachfield.

(83.) Conſiderable objections have been urged however, againſt theſe rubbing boards. By rubbing on ſo unequal a ſurface, the fibrous part of the cloth is worn; by which it is much weakened. Theſe boards alſo give the cloth a cottony ſurface, ſo that it does not long keep clean. They alſo flatten the threads, and take away all that roundneſs and firmneſs, which is the diſtinguiſhing property of cloth bleached in the Dutch method. For theſe reaſons they muſt be very prejudicial to *fine* cloth, and ſhould never be uſed in bleaching it. As they ſeem to be in ſome meaſure neceſſary to leſſen the expence of bleaching *coarſe* linen, they ought never to be uſed above twice or thrice at moſt. They might be rendered much more ſafe, by lining their inſides with ſome ſoft elaſtic ſubſtance, that will not wear the cloth ſo much as the wooden teeth do. Short hair has been tried in one inſtance, and is found to anſwer very well.

(84.) When the coarſe cloth has undergone the rubbing, it ſhould be immediately milled for an hour, and warm water poured now and then on it to make it lather. This milling has very good effects; for it clears away all the dirt which the rubbing boards have looſened, and which, at the next boiling, would have diſcoloured the cloth; and beſides, it makes the cloth leſs cottony, and more firm, than when whitened by rubbing only.

(85.) Of the laſt operation, STARCHING and BLUEING, we need ſay nothing in this place; as there is nothing peculiarly different in the proceſs, from that to which landry women are accuſtomed. It often happens, that the cloth, when expoſed to the weather to be dried after this operation, gets rain, which undoes all again, and puts the bleacher to a new expence. To remedy this inconvenience, ſome bleachers very properly employ a dry-houſe, where the cloth may be dried after this operation, in any kind of weather.

SECT. VII. *Of* BLEACHING *with* LIME.

(86.) The proceſs of bleaching, it is believed may be very ſafely undertaken with the aſſiſtance of LIME. Dr Home has found, by repeated trials that

naged. This is done always in the morning; as it cannot be done at night, in regard of the hot quality of the lime, which ſoon heats the cloth and renders it. If a hot ſun-ſhine follows, it has great effect; for lime is juſt like all other materials for bleaching, that have more or leſs effect, according as the weather is good or bad.

(90.) "I take it up the 2d day after bucking, and give it a little milling, or hand-rubbing, or ſittling, commonly called *knocking*; and lay it on the field again, watering it carefully as before. The effect is more viſible the 2d than the firſt day. As all cloth when limed ſhould have a great deal of work, otherwiſe more than half the effect is loſt; and not only that, but a great deal of labour and pains is requiſite to take the lime out of the cloth again; it muſt never be expoſed on the Sabbath day, but carefully kept wet always while uſed in this way. Thus bucking for 3 or 4 times at moſt, is ſufficient for any cloth except that made of flax pulled either over-green, or which grows in a droughty ſeaſon, or perhaps not ſo well hecked as it ſhould be. This ſort occaſions great trouble and expence to the bleacher. But the moſt effectual and expeditious way I ever found for this kind was, after boiling, to take a little of the warm ley, and mix a very ſmall quantity of lime with it, and draw the cloth through that as hot as poſſible, and put it on the field directly, watering it carefully. This will clean it of the ſprat ſurpriſingly. Then I boil it with pearl aſhes, and give it the laſt boil with ſoap."

(91.) "There are innumerable miſtakes in the uſe of lime committed by the vulgar, who are ignorant of its quality and effects. They know only this in general, that it is a thing which whitens cloth cheap, and is eaſily purchaſed; therefore they will uſe it. Some of them begin whitening of their cloth with it, which I have already obſerved to be wrong, and given reaſons for it, and continue it until the cloth is bleached; give it a boil or two at moſt, and then waſh it up while the groſs body of the lime is in the ſubſtance of the cloth. This makes limed cloth eaſily diſtinguiſhable from unlimed, as the former has a yellowiſh colour, and is full of a powder. Beſides, as lime is of a very hot corroding nature, it muſt by degrees weaken the cloth. The bad effects of this ſubſtance do not end here. When the cloth is put on board, it contracts a dampneſs, which not only makes it yellow, and loſe any thing of colour it has, but directly rots it. And although it ſhould eſcape this, which it is poſſible it may, by a quick and ſpeedy paſſage; yet whenever it is put in any warehouſe, it will meet with moiſture there, eſpecially if the winter ſeaſon ſhould come on before it is diſpoſed or made uſe of. Theſe I take to be the principal reaſons for ſo much complaint in bleaching with this material."

(92.) It is evident, the whole art and ſafety in uſing lime, according to this method, depends on the junction of the alkaline ſalts, during the bucking, to the particles of lime which were on the ſurface of the cloth. As bleaching depends on the extraction of a certain quantity of phlogiſtic matter from the cloth, it is natural to ſuppoſe that it might be accelerated by rendering the alkali very cauſtic. Thus the ſalt would be entirely freed

freed from the fixed air, with which in the usual experiments of chemistry it appears to have a greater affinity than with oil; for soap may be partially decomposed by fixed air, nor can it be prepared without an exceedingly caustic alkaline ley.

(93.) In this light the matter has appeared to some very eminent chemists; and Dr BLACK thought it of importance sufficient to publish printed directions to the practical bleachers how to render their alkali sufficiently caustic with lime, and at the same time recover it from the chalky residuum with as little loss as possible. This method has accordingly been tried; but does not altogether answer the sanguine expectations at first raised by the proposal. In the large way of operating, fixed alkali quits the fixed air to unite with the oily or other matter to be extracted from the cloth. The only advantage therefore to be gained by Dr Black's improvement is, that the action of the alkali is thus quickened, and some quantity of fuel saved; but this is not, by the bleachers, reckoned an equivalent to the trouble of rendering the alkali caustic, unless in places where fuel is very scarce.

PART. II.

Of the NEW METHOD of BLEACHING.

INTRODUCTION.

(94.) THE use of ACIDS, in bleaching, was formerly in a great measure unaccounted for; but from the late discoveries concerning the use of dephlogisticated spirit of salt in this art, it appears probable that they act by means of the dephlogisticated air they contain. This, however, is not always the case; for silk is rendered yellow by the action of dephlogisticated air, though rendered white by the action of the volatile sulphureous acid, which undoubtedly contains a portion of this kind of air, though much less than the concentrated vitriolic acid. The nitrous acid, which contains a great quantity of dephlogisticated air, likewise communicates a yellow colour to silk; and indeed seems very much inclined to produce this colour upon all the substances it touches. At any rate, its price would be a sufficient objection against its use in bleaching.

(95.) The marine acid, more generally known by the name of *spirit of salt*, in its common state, is said by M. Berthollet to be used with success by some bleachers in France, instead of the vitriolic; but such experiments as have been made upon it in this country have not answered the purpose. The new method of bleaching is founded upon the remarkable property, which that acid when dephlogisticated possesses, of destroying vegetable colours; and various attempts have been made to introduce it into practice, though in this country the difficulties or disadvantages attending it have prevented it from coming into general use, so that many of our bleachers obstinately persevere in the old method. M. Scheele was the inventor of this kind of acid; but M. Berthollet seems to have been the first who attempted to apply it in the operation of bleaching.—From a treatise on the new method of bleaching, which has been lately published in Edinburgh, we have collected the following particulars.

SECT. I. ACCOUNT of M. BERTHOLLET'S METHOD of BLEACHING.

(96.) I. M. BERTHOLLET having procured the dephlogisticated marine acid, in as strong and concentrated a state as he could, immersed into it thread and cloth; which by that means were considerably whitened. In a short time the liquor seemed to lose its strength; upon which it was poured off, and more put in its place; and so on until the substance immersed became perfectly white. Thus, however, the process was not only very expensive, but the stuff was considerably injured; sometimes even losing its cohesion altogether, so that there was a necessity for trying some other method.

(97.) II. Using a diluted spirit, he succeeded perfectly in rendering the cloths completely white; but by keeping them for some time, or exposing them for a little to the action of an alkaline ley they became again brown or yellow.

(98.) III. On considering the process of bleaching in the common method, he found that the action of the sun and air are subservient to bleaching only as they prepare the colouring particles for being dissolved and separated by alkaline leys. To investigate this subject, he examined the nature of the dews, both such as are precipitated from the atmosphere and those which transpire from vegetables. Both these were found so from by impregnated with dephlogisticated air, that they destroyed the colour of paper when fairly tinged with turnsole. Hence he observes, that is by no means improbable, that the ancient prejudices concerning May-dews might have arisen from some observations analogous to this; more especially as in that month the transpiration of plants is extremely copious.

(99.) IV. By imitating with the dephlogisticated marine acid and alkaline ley the common process of bleaching, he succeeded in making a perfect and permanent white. For this purpose an alkaline lixivium was employed alternately with the dephlogisticated marine acid; the latter being no longer used in a concentrated state. Thus he avoided both the inconvenience arising from the suffocating smell of the liquid, and that of its destroying the texture of the stuff immersed in it.

(100.) V. The cloth is prepared for bleaching in this manner; by steeping it 24 hours in water, to extract the dressing it receives from the weaver; a little old ley, which has already lost the greatest part of its strength in other processes, may be used with advantage. It is next to be exposed once or twice to the action of some good fresh alkaline ley; to separate, by means of this cheap liquid, all the colouring matter which it can extract, and thereby save the dephlogisticated acid.

(101.) VI. The stuff must next be carefully washed with water, to separate any remains of the ley which might adhere to it, and weaken the acid of the liquor. It is then to be disposed of in wooden troughs, so that the dephlogisticated acid may pass freely through every part of it; to allow which, it must lie quite loose, without be-

Fig. 1.

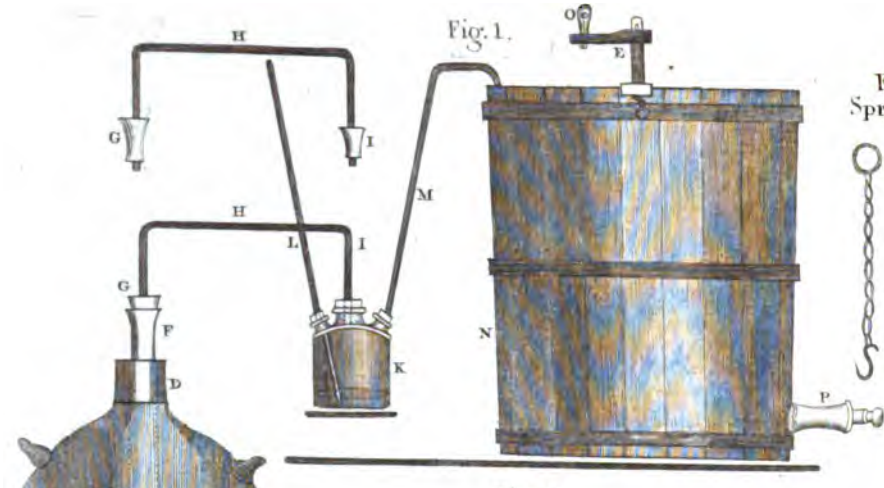

Fig. 5.
Spring Block

Fig. 2.

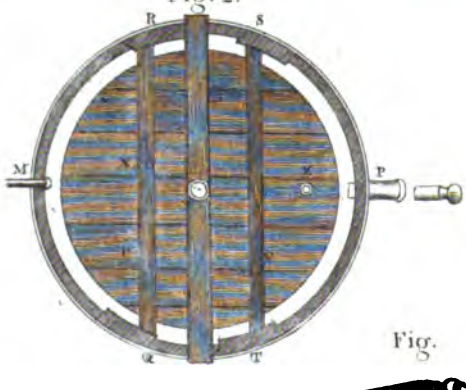

Fig.

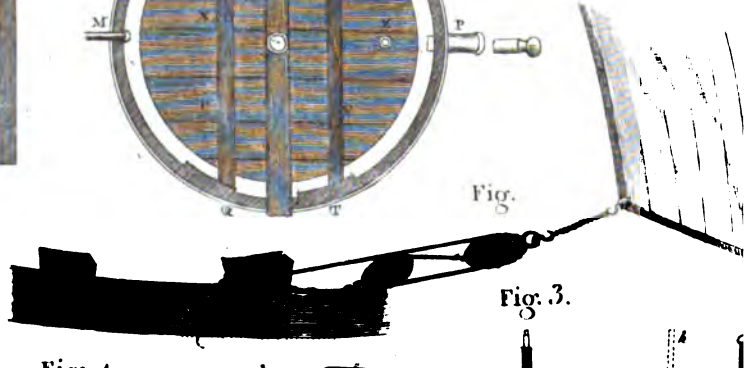

Fig. 3.

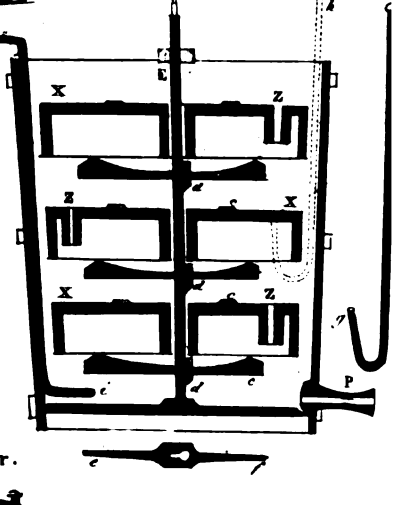

Fig. 4.

Fig.
Bolt Drawer.

Engraved for Rees's Cyclopedia Philadelphia

Fig. 3.
Spring Block.

Fig. 2.

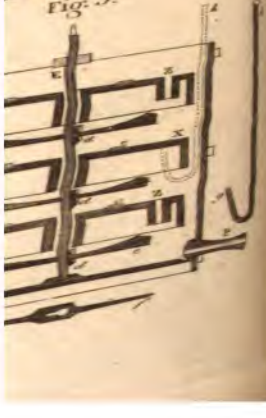

Fig. 3.

troughs ought to be conſtructed entirely of wood without any iron, as that would eaſily be corroded and ſtain the cloth.

(105.) VII. The firſt immerſion in the dephlogiſticated acid is to continue 3 hours; after which the cloth is to be removed, and the liquor wrung out of it. It muſt then be waſhed a ſecond time with alkaline ley; which being alſo waſhed out, it is to be again immerſed in dephlogiſticated acid.

(106.) VIII. The ſecond immerſion in the acid is to continue only about half an hour; after which it is to be taken out and wrung as before. The ſame liquor may ſerve for ſeveral immerſions; only when it appears to be much exhauſted, it is to be relieved by an addition of freſh liquor.

(107.) IX. After the cloth ſeems to be ſufficiently whitened, excepting only ſome few black threads and the ſelvages, it is to be filled with black ſoap, and ſtrongly rubbed for ſome time; after which it muſt again waſhed in alkaline ley, and receive another immerſion in the acid liquor.

(108.) X. It has not yet been determined what number of immerſions in the acid are neceſſary to whiten linen cloth, though our author ſuppoſes from 6 to 8 to be ſufficient for the purpoſe.

SECT. II. METHOD *of* PREPARING *the* DEPHLOGISTICATED MARINE ACID; *with a* DESCRIPTION *of the* APPARATUS.

(109.) For preparing the dephlogiſticated acid, M. Berthollet recommends ſix ounces of black manganeſe finely powdered, 16 ounces of ſea-ſalt likewiſe in powder, and 12 ounces of concentrated vitriolic acid to be diluted with 8 ounces of water: but the quantity of this laſt muſt be varied according to the ſtrength of the acid and the dryneſs of the ſalt. If the manganeſe is impure, its quantity muſt be augmented in proportion to the ſuppoſed impurity; and it is known whether a ſufficient quantity has been employed, by a portion remaining undiſſolved and retaining its black colour. When the materials are prepared, the manganeſe and common ſalt, both reduced to fine powder, muſt be mixed accurately together, and put into the diſtilling veſſel placed in a ſand-bath; the vitriolic acid, diluted with water and allowed to cool, is then to be poured upon them, and the junctures exactly luted. The receiver may be of wood coated on the inſide with wax, and of a very large ſize, for the gas is abſorbed in proportion to the ſurface of the water it acts upon.

(110.) M. BERTHOLLET deſcribes an apparatus, rather complicated, but of which we have given a repreſentation in Plate XXXIX. Fig. 1. is an elevation of the apparatus, in which is repreſented a reverberatory furnace A B C D, having, on a line with B, many ſmall openings in its circumference, to ſerve as chimneys; within which, upon a hollow ſ, is placed a matraſs b, the neck of which ſtands out above the furnace, running through the opening D, which is to be cloſed with clay. The mouth F, of the neck of the matraſs, is cloſed by a cork G, through the middle of which paſſes a tube H, which forms a communication between the inſide of the matraſs b, and the intermediate veſſel K, where it alſo paſſes through a cork I, which cloſes one of the three openings of that veſſel. The corks G and I ought to be prepared before-hand, and well fitted to each end of the tube of communication H, which is to be ſo diſpoſed that it may be fitted in immediately after the mixture is made in the matraſs.

(108.) The intermediate veſſel K is about ¾ part full of water; into it is plunged the *tube of ſafety* L, to prevent danger from regurgitation. This tube ought to be ſo high, that the weight of the water which enters into it, by the preſſure of the gas, may be great enough to cauſe the gas to paſs into the pneumatic tub N O P, by the tube of communication M, which is plunged therein, and reaches to the bottom, where it is bent horizontally, ſo that the gas may be emitted under the firſt of the three wooden, or (if they can be procured) ſtone ware cavities, or receivers, which are placed in the inſide of the tub, one above the other. Q is a handle which ſerves to turn the agitator E, the movement of which facilitates the combination of the gas with the water. P is a ſpigot and faucet to draw off the liquor.

(109.) Fig. 2. UPPER PART *of the* PNEUMATIC TUB. In this Q R S T are four ſtaves which are thicker than the others, and which project within the tub, where they are hollowed ſo as to receive the ends of two wooden bars U V, which ſerve to keep in their places the cavities or receivers X.

(110.) Fig. 3. SECTION *of the* TUB. Each cavity X is ſo conſtructed that it may receive the gas which is emitted at *i* from the tube of communication M. The gas, as it comes out, is collected under the loweſt cavity, and increaſes in quantity until it paſſes by the funnel Z to that in the middle, and afterwards to the upper one.—The opening through which the agitator E paſſes, in the centre of each cavity, is in the ſhape of a funnel, and is ſo formed as to hinder the gas from eſcaping along the agitator, which is furniſhed with three tranſverſe arms, *c*, *c*, *c*, each being faſtened by a wedge *d*, *d*, *d*,—*e f* repreſents one of theſe arms in a horizontal direction. The bent tube *g h* ſerves to draw off the atmoſpheric air which is contained under the cavities, after the tube has been filled with water. To make uſe of this tube, the bent part is ſucceſſively introduced under each cavity, as is ſhewn at *g*; we muſt then blow into it, at the end *h*, till the water in it is forced out; after which the air contained under the cavity will immediately make its eſcape.

(111.) Fig. 4. APPARATUS *for the* DISTILLATION *of* MURIATIC ACID. In this, *l* repreſents a retort, which is to be placed in a reverbatory furnace; the mouth of the retort is to be cloſed by a cork *m*, having two holes, through one of which paſſes the tube *n*, bent at *o*, and terminating at the top in the form of a funnel *p*, by means of which the vitriolic acid is to be introduced into the retort. The other hole of the cork *m* receives the end of a tube *q*, which forms a communication between the retort and a veſſel *r*; which veſſel has three openings, and is to be about ¾ part full of water, into which is to be plunged the *tube of ſafety s*, to prevent danger from regurgitation: the veſſel *r* has a communication with a ſecond veſſel *u*, by means of the tube *t*: this ſecond veſſel is to be half full of water, and is to have a

communi-

communication with a 3d ſimilar veſſel: this 3d veſſel ſhould be alſo provided with a tube of ſafety, and ſhould communicate with a 4th.

(112.) In the conſtruction of an apparatus for this purpoſe, it is evident the requiſites are, that the receiver ſhould not only be capacious but broad, that the gas, which is very volatile, may meet with a large ſurface of water to abſorb as much of it as poſſible. It is very improbable, however, that all the gas can be abſorbed by a ſingle receiver, let us make it as large as we will; for which reaſon it will be proper to have ſeveral of them connected with each other by glaſs tubes, ſo that what eſcapes from one may be obſerved by another. Thus we are ſure of having the water fully impregnated with the gas; though we cannot by any means concentrate this liquid like the mineral acids.

(113.) By means of condenſing engines, indeed, a greater quantity of it might be forced into the water than it can naturally contain: but this could anſwer no uſeful purpoſe; for the moment that a bottle containing ſuch liquor was opened, the ſuperfluous gas would fly off, with violence and danger to the perſon who opened it. The bottles themſelves would alſo be liable to burſt on every ſlight alteration of temperature in the atmoſphere. It is proper, therefore, not to attempt the preparation of the liquor, in any great degree of ſtrength; though this is indeed attended with a very conſiderable inconvenience, viz. the difficulty of tranſporting it from the place where it is prepared to the bleachfield, on account of the great buſk and weight of it. M. Berthollet propoſes to have it made at the place where the cloth is to be bleached; and ſo near that the dephlogiſticated ſpirit of ſalt might be conveyed by ſpouts to the troughs which contain the cloth. This, however, muſt in many caſes be impracticable, unleſs we ſuppoſe the generality of bleachers to be poſſeſſed of a ſkill in managing chemical operations, which at preſent they have not. When great quantities of liquor are to be brought from diſtant places, however, it muſt undoubtedly be a great diſcouragement, eſpecially if the beſt methods, and the cheapeſt alſo, have not been uſed in the preparation of the acid.

SECT. III. ADVANTAGES *of the* NEW METHOD *of* BLEACHING.

(114.) It would add much to the importance of this new method of bleaching, if a comparative eſtimate of the expence of that and of the old mode were fairly laid before the public, and the preference in this reſpect appeared juſtly due to the former. This, however, has not yet been done; nor even the firſt and moſt eſſential ſtep towards it taken, viz. the determining how much ſtuff a certain quantity of dephlogiſticated ſpirit of ſalt will whiten. From ſuch experiments as have been made on the ſubject, it is probable, that the acid drawn from one pound of ſalt will whiten 4 of linen cloth without any addition.—This may ſeem a ſmall expence; but if we conſider the vitriolic acid to be made uſe of, and that the reſiduum is uſeleſs, it would ſoon be found very conſiderable. Glauber's ſalt may indeed be ured from the reſiduum of the diſtillation; but ſo much of that article is prepared otherwiſ that at preſent the making of it is no object. M Berthollet mentions the ſeparation of the miner alkali from the reſiduum; and ſays he has rece ved ſome inſtructions on this head from M. Mo veau and others, but conceals them on accou of their being communicated as ſecrets.

(115.) To enable the reader to judge for himſ of the expence of M. Berthollet's method, we i ſert the latter part of his memoir, in which th part of the ſubject is more particularly conſidere

(116.) "If (ſays he) at preſent, when the ox genated muriatic acid coſts nearly three *denie* (about half an Engliſh farthing a quart,) in the pr vinces which are not ſubject to the GABELLE, tax no longer exiſting in France,) the new meth of bleaching, when properly conducted, is fr quently advantageous notwithſtanding this e pence; it is not to be doubted but that it may b come much more ſo, by means of theſe œcon mical practices which I have juſt mentioned. Bu ſo long as the preparation of the bleaching liqu is at all expenſive, there will always be a great a vantage in favour of fine cloths; becauſe, in equ quantities of ſurface, they preſent a leſs quanti of matter, and are bleached much eaſier; ſo th an ell, or a pound, of fine cloth, requires muc leſs liquor than an ell, or a pound, of coarſ cloth.

(117.) "But, that the advantages of this pr ceſs may be fully enjoyed, it is neceſſary to eſt bliſh it in a country which is not ſubject to t tax on ſalt, called the *gabelle*; for, where ſalt not at a low price, the oxygenated muriatic ac becomes too expenſive.

(118.) "Nevertheleſs, it is not by the expen of the new proceſs, rigorouſly compared with th of the ordinary method of bleaching, that w muſt judge of its advantages, as it is attend with ſome particular ones which would compe ſate a ſuperior price. Cloths and thread, whi in ſome places require many months, may be e ſily bleached in five or ſix days, even in a lar manufactory; and the bleaching of a few piec only, may, without difficulty, be terminated two or three days. Beſides, the new method bleaching may be executed in the winter as w as in the ſummer, only the drying requires mo time.

(119.) "An induſtrious countryman, whoſe f mily employ their intervals of leiſure in ſpinnin is obliged to wait for favourable weather, and pe haps to ſend his thread and cloths to a great d tance, where they remain a long time in bleac ing; or, if his neceſſities are preſſing, he is ob ged to ſell them, at a loſs, to ſome intermedia factor, who lays a tax upon his poverty. But, the manufactories for making oxygenated muri tic acid increaſe in number ſufficiently, thoſe wh weave a piece of cloth will be able to bleach themſelves, and to enjoy the whole fruit of the labour, as ſoon as it is out of their hands.

(120.) "The warehouſeman, in a ſeaſon whi is unfavourable to the ordinary method of bleac ing, is not able to fulfil his engagements witho great difficulty; he is obliged to employ a co ſiderable capital to fill his warehouſe, in the ſe ſon in which the bleaching is executed; he is u ab

ſame obſervation, and I ſoon after was con-
ed of the truth of it, by making uſe of the pro-
which I deſcribed when ſpeaking of the Ja-
e ley, namely, by weakening, with a great deal
water, the liquor thereby obtained. M. Ober-
ipf, to whom I communicated this proceſs,
who neglects nothing which may contribute
the perfection of his excellent manufactory at
y, immediately began to make ſome trials,
ch he has lately continued with M. Royer,
which promiſe to be ſucceſsful, except with
ect to colours in which iron has been employ-
for, thoſe are weakened; the reds, on the
trary, become brighter than by the ordinary
ceſs; but my knowledge of this art is not yet
iciently perfect to enable me to be more parti-
ar.

127.) M. Berthollet adds, in a note, "It ap-
rs from what I have juſt learnt from Mr Tay-
, a celebrated manufacturer at Manchester,
re they begin to make uſe of the new method,
there is not always a neceſſity for adding al-
to the oxygenated muriatic acid; and that the
ours which contain iron are not always weak-
d. Theſe different effects probably depend
n the various methods uſed in printing the
hs."

128.) "In the trials made at Jouy, the expence
been greater than that of the ordinary proceſs,
account of the price of ſalt; this is a great diſ-
antage to manufactories of printed cloths eſta-
ed in countries ſubject to a tax on ſalt."

129.) As to the preparation of mineral alkali,
e celebrated chemiſts have aſſerted, that the
es of lead, or lead itſelf, will decompoſe ſea-
, and thus afford an eaſy method of procuring
On this principle indeed attempts have been
le to procure it, but hitherto without ſucceſs;
from ſuch experiments as we have made, it
ns to be totally impracticable. The method
decompoſing Glauber's ſalt and other vitriolic
by means of charcoal, is perhaps the only one
ſeems to promiſe ſucceſs. The difficulty here
hat the ſalt is converted into an *hepar ſulphuris*,
ch cannot be decompounded but by means of
cid.

130.) A trial has been lately made of applying
d for this purpoſe, and not without a proſpect
ſucceſs. The particulars hitherto diſcovered
cerning this method are, 1. Sea-ſalt yields one
its weight of pure alkali. 2. From 20 to 25
unds of freſh ſorrel leaves are to be uſed for e-
pound of ſea-ſalt. 3. The plant is eaſily cul-
ted, yields three crops annually if properly
naged, and is ſuperior in acidity in its cultiva-
ſtate to the wild ſorrel. The above calcula-
was made with wild ſorrel. 4. An acre of
nd will produce as much ſorrel as is ſufficient
making from a ton to a ton and an half of al-
. It will not thrive except in moiſt ground.

131.) From theſe particulars it is probable, that
combining the proceſs of making dephlogiſti-
d ſpirit of ſalt with that of preparing the mi-
l alkali, bleaching might be performed at an
er and cheaper rate than has yet been done;
ugh even here there is ſome doubt, that with-
an encouragement from government, by ta-
g off the duties from ſalt and ſulphur uſed in
the

the different operations, a project of this kind might miscarry, to the great detriment of the individual who should attempt it.

(132.) On the whole, the principal objections to the new method of bleaching are, that little or none of the alkali commonly used can be saved. The air also and light of the sun, which in the common way is had for nothing, must in the new way be bought at a certain price. The only advantage therefore is, that in the new method, a considerable portion of time is saved. Hence it is impossible to make an exact comparative calculation of the expence of both methods, without estimating how much labour is saved in the new way. If the price of the labour saved exceeds that of the dephlogisticated spirit of salt, there is no doubt that the use of it will be attended with profit, but not otherwise. It is asserted by M. Berthollet, that in the new way of bleaching, the texture of the cloth is less hurt than in the old one: this too must be reckoned an advantage; though by the bleachers, and indeed by the public in general, it will probably be overlooked, unless they are induced by the *cheapness* to prefer the new to the old process.

(133.) The following important particulars have been published by M. Berthollet in the *Annales de Chimie*, in addition to what he had before advanced.

(134.) "It was always my intention (says he), when I published the description of the method of bleaching by means of the muriatic acid, to communicate to the public every useful remark I could add to it, whether they arose from my own observations, or from those of my correspondents, provided the latter were not made known to me under the tie of secrecy; for, it is natural that those who devote themselves to the practice of any particular art, should wish to keep secret those improvements which they may succeed in making; and there is no kind of property which ought to be more respected, than those discoveries which arise from industry.

(135.) "M. WELTER has found it of advantage to finish the process of bleaching, by exposing the cloths and thread on the field for 3 or 4 days, during which they should be sometimes wetted, and afterwards washed in pure water. He thinks that this exposition is absolutely necessary, in order to take away a yellow tinge, which they are apt to retain, but he observes that cotton does not want this operation.

(136.) "Others, however, have bleached to the entire satisfaction of the dealers, without this exposition, and I have convinced myself, by many experiments, that linen may be brought to the most perfect whiteness without it; nevertheless, when thread or cloth is pressed together in any parts, during the process (which, when a large quantity is bleached at the same time, it is very difficult to avoid), those parts are apt to preserve a yellow tinge, which it would perhaps require several operations to efface equally throughout; these repeated operations would increase the charge, and tend to weaken the texture of the linen; whereas a short exposition on the field entirely takes away that tinge. This practice, therefore, seems to me [illegible] to be adopted with respect to linen; it requires but a small extent of ground, and it occasions but a small loss of time.

(137.) "M. DECROISILLE, whose establishmen at Rouen is in full vigour, has made many advantageous alterations in the process; as indeed might be expected from the attention of so able a chemist. I have his permission to publish the following extract from one of his letters. 'We bleach here, at about the same price as other bleachers coarse cotton cloths, fine linen for shirts, stockings, caps, &c. of thread and cotton. I flatter myself, that I have improved upon your discovery: my great recipient, in the distilling apparatus, is of a kind entirely new; I have no wood in any part of it, and each of my distilling matrasses contains 60lb. of vitriol acid, &c. I have also left off using wood for those vessels in which the subjects to be bleached are plunged; and the whiteness of our goods is now esteemed to be superior to that produced by the English before your discovery. Cotton yarn bleached by your process takes, very advantageously, the red dye called the Turkey red; as, by means of that process, about one third of the usual labour is spared; less oil is required in the preparation; and your ley, employed in certain stages of the operation, in concurrence with the other ingredients, produces a much more beautiful colour. Your discovery will be particularly useful to our city, many merchants finding it worth while to give us dyed cloths to have their colours discharged; *no colour resists*, and we return them their cloths *as found* and *as white* as if they had never been dyed or printed.'

(138.) "The making use, instead of wood (for the pneumatic tub, and troughs), of a matter which is not acted upon by the liquor, is certainly of great advantage to the success of this method of bleaching; as, by that means, we not only avoid the loss of that portion of the liquor, which exerts its action upon the wood, but we also save expence in repairing the vessels, which are very soon worn out.

(139.) "I have said that the cloths, when taken out of the water acidulated with vitriolic acid ought to be plunged into common water; but that precaution is not sufficient, they must be plunged into a weak caustic ley, moderately warm, and kept in it during some minutes.

(140.) "When the liquor is immediately drawn off into the troughs, as I directed, we must take care that it is first well stirred with the agitator otherwise, that which is at the bottom of the tub and is most saturated with acid, would first run off, and would act too strongly upon the cloths. We may, indeed, omit the use of the agitator, by drawing off only half, or three quarters, of the liquor, which must afterwards be mixed with a proper quantity of water, according to the proportions I have pointed out; and the rest of the liquor, which is but weakly impregnated, may serve, with an additional quantity of water, for another distillation.

(141.) "Many persons have attempted to execute this process without having any knowledge of chemistry, and without attending to the quality of the thread and cloth they meant to bleach and it either did not succeed with them, or the

cuting it in an place and feafons, and the diminution of the capital required in the linen trade, may compenſate for the increaſe of expence.

(143.) "It is impoſſible to eſtabliſh *data* upon which to determine in every particular caſe, but I would adviſe thoſe who are intereſted in this ſubject, to begin by trials upon a ſmall ſcale, and, from them, to form fair calculations, without ſeeking to flatter themſelves; on the other hand, they muſt not be led aſtray by theſe loſſes to which every one is liable, before he becomes familiarized with the management of the proceſs; it is, however not very expenſive to follow, for a certain time, ſuch operations on a ſmall ſcale as may lead us afterwards to undertake, with advantage, others on a large one."

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BLEACHLY, a village in Buckinghamſhire, W. of Fenny Stratford.

(1.) * BLEAK. *adj.* [*blac*, *blæc*, Sax.] 1. Pale. 2. Cold; chill; cheerleſs.—

Intreat the North
To make his *bleak* winds kiſs my parched lips,
And comfort me with cold. *Shakeſpeare.*

The goddeſs that in rural ſhrine
Dwells here with Pan, or Sylvan, by bleſt ſong
Forbidding every *bleak* unkindly fog
To touch the proſperous growth of this tall wood. *Milton.*

—Her deſolation preſents us with nothing but *bleak* and barren proſpects. *Addiſon.*—

Say, will ye bleſs the *bleak* Atlantick ſhore,
Or bid the furious Gaul be rude no more? *Pope.*

(2.) * BLEAK. *n. ſ.* [*ſalburnus*, from his white or *bleak* colour.] A ſmall river fiſh.—The *bleak*, or freſhwater ſprat, is ever in motion, and therefore called by ſome the river ſwallow. His back is of a pleaſant, ſad ſea water green; his belly white and ſhining like the mountain ſnow. *Bleaks* are excellent meat, and in beſt ſeaſon in Auguſt. *Walton.*

(3.) BLEAK, in ichthyology. See ALBURNUS and CYPRINUS. The French call it the ABLETTE.

BLEAKLY, *adv.* Palely; coldly. *Aſh.*

* BLEAKNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bleak*.] Coldneſs; chilneſs.—The inhabitants of Nova Zembla go naked, without complaining of the *bleakneſs* of the air; as the armies of the northern nations keep the field all winter. *Addiſon.*

BLEAKSWARE, a village in Hereſordſhire, near Ware.

* BLEAKY. *adj.* [from *bleak*.] Bleak; cold; chill.—

On ſhrubs they browze, and, on the *bleaky* top
Of rugged hills, the thorny bramble crop. *Dryd.*

BLEANE, a village in Kent, 4 miles N. W. of Canterbury.

* BLEAR. *adj.* [*blaer*, a bliſter, Dutch.] 1. Dim with rheum or water; ſore with rheum.—It is a tradition that *blear* eyes affect ſound eyes. *Bacon.*—It is no more in the power of calumny to blaſt the dignity of an honeſt man, than of the *blear* eyed owl to caſt ſcandal on the ſun. *L'Eſtrange.*—

His *blear* eyes ran in gutters to his chin;
His beard was ſtubble, and his cheeks were thin. *Dryden.*

When

When thou ſhalt ſee the *blear* ey'd fathers teach
Their ſons this harſh and mouldy ſort of ſpeech. *Dryden.*

2. Dim; obſcure in general; or that which makes dimneſs.—

Thus I hurl
My dazzling ſpells into the ſpungy air,
Of power to cheat the eye with *blear* illuſion,
And give it falſe preſentments. *Milton.*

* *To* BLEAR. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] 1. To make the eyes watry, or ſore with rheum.—

All tongues ſpeak of him, and the *bleared* ſights
Are ſpectacled to ſee him. *Shakeſpeare.*

The Dardanian wives,
With *bleared* viſages, come forth to view
Th' iſſue of th' exploit. *Shakeſpeare.*

When I was young, I, like a lazy fool,
Would *blear* my eyes with oil to ſtay from ſchool;
Averſe to pains. *Dryden.*

2. To dim the eyes.—This may ſtand for a pretty ſuperficial argument, to *blear* our eyes, and lull us aſleep in ſecurity. *Raleigh.*

* BLEAREDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bleared.*] The ſtate of being bleared, or dimmed with rheum.—The defluxion falling upon the edges of the eyelids, makes a *blearedneſs*. *Wiſeman.*

BLEAR-EYED, *adj.* having the eyes dim with rheum.

BLEASBEY, a hamlet of Southwell, in Nottinghamſhire.

* BLEAT. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] The cry of a ſheep or lamb.—

Set in my ſhip, mine ear reach'd, where we rode,
The bellowing of oxen, and the *bleat*
Of fleecy ſheep. *Chapman.*

* *To* BLEAT. *v. n.* [*blætan*, Sax.] To cry as a ſheep.—

We were as twinn'd lambs, that did friſk i' th' ſun,
And *bleat* the one at th' other. *Shakeſpeare.*

You may as well uſe queſtion with the wolf,
Why he hath made the ewe *bleat* for the lamb.
Shakeſpeare's Merchant of Venice.

While on ſweet graſs her *bleating* charge does lie,
Our happy lover feeds upon her eye. *Roſcom.*

What bull dares bellow, or what ſheep dares *bleat*
Within the lion's den? *Dryden.*

* BLEB. *n. ſ.* [*blæsa*, to ſwell, Germ.] A bliſter. *Skinner.*

BLECHINGLEY, an ancient town of Surry in England, which ſends two members to parliament; and has done ſo ever ſince parliaments exiſted. The bailiff who returns the members is choſen annually at the lord of the manor's court. The town ſtands on a hill, and has a fine proſpect as far as the South Downs in Suſſex. Lon. 0. 15. W. Lat. 51. 20. N.

BLECHINGTON, a town 6 m. from Oxford.

BLECK-HALL, the name of two Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Cumberland, S. of Carliſle: 2. in Middleſex, on the Lee, oppoſite to Chigford.

BLECTINUM, in botany, a genus of plants of the claſs of the *cryptogamia filices*; the fructifications of which are diſpoſed in parallel lines on the ſides of the leaves.

* BLED. *preterite* and *particip.* [from *To bleed.*]

BLEDDINGTON, a village in *GENEVA.*

BLEDES, Los, an iſland near Majorca.

BLEDLOW, a village in Buckinghamſhire, between Prince's Riſborough and Oxfordſhire.

BLEE, *n. ſ. obſ.* Corn. *Chauc.*

(1.) * *To* BLEED. *v. a.* To let blood; to take blood from.—

That from a patriot of diſtinguiſh'd note,
Have *bled* and purg'd me to a ſimple vote. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To* BLEED. *v. n.* pret. I *bled*; I have *bled.* [*blædan*, Saxon.] 1. To loſe blood; to run with blood.—

I *bleed* inwardly for my lord. *Shakeſpeare.*

Bleed, *bleed*, poor country!
Great tyranny, lay thou thy baſis ſure;
For goodneſs dare not check thee! *Shakeſp.*

— Many, upon ſeeing of others *bleed*, or ſtrangled, or tortured, themſelves are ready to faint, as if they *bled. Bacon.* 2. To die a violent death.—

The lamb thy riot dooms to *bleed* to-day;
Had he thy reaſon, would he ſkip and play? *Pope.*

3. To loſe blood medicinally; as he *bled* for a fever. 4. To drop, as blood. It is applied to any thing that drops from ſome body on inciſion, as blood from an animal.—

For me the balm ſhall *bleed*, and amber flow,
The coral redden, and the ruby glow. *Pope.*

(1.) BLEEDING, a hæmorrhage or flux of blood from a wound, rupture of a veſſel, or other accident. See HÆMORRHAGE.

(2.) BLEEDING, in farriery. See FARRIERY.

(3.) BLEEDING, in ſurgery. See SURGERY, INDEX.

(4.) BLEEDING, in therapeutics. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

(5.) BLEEDING AT THE NOSE, or EPISTAXIS. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

(6.) BLEEDING OF A CORPSE is a phenomenon ſaid to have frequently happened in the bodies of perſons murdered, which, on the touch, or even the approach, of the murderer, began to bleed at the noſe, ears, and other parts. It was formerly admitted in England, and is ſtill allowed in ſome other places, as a detection of the criminal, and proof of the fact. Numerous inſtances of theſe poſthumous hæmorrhages are given by writers. But this kind of evidence ought to be of ſmall weight: for it is to be obſerved, that this bleeding does not ordinarily happen, even in the preſence of the murderer; although ſometimes it happens even in that of the neareſt friends, or perſons moſt innocent; and ſometimes without the preſence of any, either friend or foe. In effect, where is the impoſſibility that a body, eſpecially if full of blood, upon the approach of external heat, having been conſiderably ſtirred or moved, and a putrefaction coming on, ſome of the blood-veſſels ſhould burſt, as it is certain they all will in time.

(7.) BLEEDING OF PLANTS, drawing out the ſap of plants, otherwiſe called *tapping*. See TAPPING.

BLEEDY FAWLDS, a place in Aberdeenſhire in the pariſh of Tough, near which there is a large

ſtone ſtanding perpendicular, 12½ feet high, and 9½ in circumference. Below it, tradition ſays one of Macbeth's ſons lies interred. At ſome diſtance there are veſtiges of a camp of Macbeth's, and near it a cairn, under which he is buried.

BLEGON, a village in Somerſetſhire, 7 miles from Huntſpill. It has a fair, laſt Frid. in Auguſt.

* BLEIT. BLATE. *adj.* Baſhful. It is uſed in Scotland, and the bordering counties.

BLEKING, a province in the S. of Sweden, having the Baltic Sea on the S Smaland on the N. and the province of Schonen on the W. Its principal towns are Chriſtianſtadt, Ellehalm, Ahuys, Roterby, and Chriſtianople, which laſt is the capital. It is 15 miles long, and 4 broad; is mountainous, but pleaſant; and contains about 50,000 inhabitants.

(1.) * BLEMISH. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A mark of deformity; a ſcar; a diminution of beauty.—As he hath cauſed a *blemiſh* in a man, ſo ſhall it be done to him again. *Leviticus.*—Open it ſo from the eye-lid, that you divide not that; for, in ſo doing, you will leave a remedileſs *blemiſh*. *Wiſeman.* 2. Reproach; diſgrace; imputation.—That you have been earneſt, ſhould be no *blemiſh* or diſcredit at all unto you. *Hooker.*—And if we ſhall neglect to propagate theſe bleſſed diſpoſitions, what others can undertake it, without ſome *blemiſh* to us, ſome reflection on our negligence? *Spratt.*—None more induſtriouſly publiſh the *blemiſhes* of an extraordinary reputation, than ſuch as lie open to the ſame cenſures; raiſing applauſe to themſelves, for reſembling a perſon of an exalted reputation, though in the blameable parts of his character. *Addiſon.* 3. A ſoil; turpitude; taint; deformity.—

Eirſt ſhall virtue be vice, and beauty be counted a *blemiſh*,
Ere that I leave with ſong of praiſe her praiſe to ſolemnize. *Sidney.*

Live thou, and to thy mother dead atteſt,
That clear ſhe died from *blemiſh* criminal. *F. Q.*

—Is conformity with Rome a *blemiſh* unto the church of England, and unto churches abroad an ornament? *Hooker.*—

Not a hair periſh'd:
On their ſuſtaining garments not a *blemiſh*,
But freſher than before. *Shakeſpeare.*

Evadne's huſband! 'tis a fault
To love, a *blemiſh* to my thought. *Waller.*

That your duty may no *blemiſh* take,
I will myſelf your father's captive make. *Dryd.*

—Such a mirth as this is capable of making a beauty, as well as a *blemiſh*, the ſubject of deriſion. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BLEMISH, in hunting, is uſed when the hounds, or beagles, finding where chace has been, make a proffer to enter, but return.

* *To* BLEMISH. *v. a.* [from *blême*, *Junius*; from *bleme*, white, Fr. *Skinner.*] 1. To mark with any deformity.—Likelier that my outward face might have been diſguiſed, than that the face of ſo excellent a mind could have been thus *blemiſhed*. *Sidney.* 2. To defame; to tarniſh, with reſpect to reputation.—

Not that my verſe would *blemiſh* all the fair;
But yet if ſome be bad, 'tis wiſdom to beware. *Dryden.*

—Thoſe, who, by concerted defamations, endeavour to *blemiſh* his character, incur the complicated guilt of ſlander and perjury. *Addiſon.*

BLEMMYES, or BLEMYES, } a fabulous people of Ethiopia, ſaid to have had no heads; their eyes, mouth, &c. being ſituated in their breaſts. See ACEPHALI, N° 3. Bochart derives the word *Blemmyes* from בלא, which implies *negation*, and מח, *brain*: in which ſenſe the Blemmyes ſhould have been people without brains.

BLENA. See BLENNA.

BLENCH, or BLANCH, a ſort of tenure of land. To hold land in blench is by payment of a ſugar loaf, a couple of capons, a beaver hat, or the like, if demanded; *nomine albæ firmæ, i. e.* in name of blench.

(1.) * *To* BLENCH. *v. a.* To hinder; to obſtruct. Not uſed.—The rebels beſieged them winning the even ground on the top, by carrying up great truſſes of hay before them, to *blench* the defendants ſight, and dead their ſhot. *Carew.*

(2.) * *To* BLENCH. *v. n.* To ſhrink; to ſtart back; to give way: not uſed.—

I'll obſerve his looks;
I'll tent him to the quick; if he but *blench*,
I know my courſe. *Shakeſpeare.*

Patience herſelf, what goddeſs ere ſhe be,
Doth leſſer *blench* at ſufferance than I do. *Shak.*

Hold you ever to our ſpecial drift;
Though ſometimes you do *blench* from this to that,
As cauſe doth miniſter. *Shakeſpeare.*

BLENCOGO, a village in Cumberland, near Abbey-Holme.

BLENCOW, MAGNA, } Two villages in Cumberland in the pariſh of Dacor.
BLENCOW, PARVA, }

BLENCRAG, or BLENCRAKE, } a village in Cumberland, miles from Cockermouth up the Derwent.

BLEND, BLENDE, or BLACK-JACK, a mineral called alſo *falſe galena*. See BLINDE and ZINC.

* *To* BLEND. *v. a.* preter. I *blended*; anciently, *blent*. [*blendan*, Saxon.] 1. To mingle together.

'Tis beauty truly *blent*, whoſe red and white
Nature's own ſweet and cunning hand hath laid on. *Shakeſpeare.*

—The miſtion taught by the ancients is too ſlight or groſs: for bodies mixed according to their hypotheſis, would not appear ſuch to the acute eye of a lynx, who would diſcern the elements, if they were no otherwiſe mingled, than but *blended* but not united. *Boyle.*—

He had his calmer influence, and his mien
Did love and majeſty together *blend*. *Dryden.*

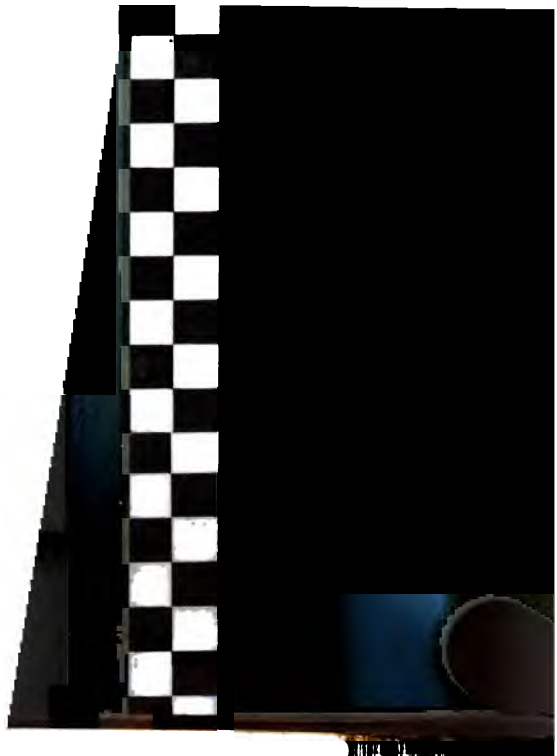
The grave where even the great find reſt,
And *blended* lie th' oppreſſor and th' oppreſs'd *Pope.*

2. To confound.—The moon ſhould wander from her beaten way, the times and ſeaſons of the year *blend* themſelves by diſordered and confuſed mixture. *Hooker.* 3. To pollute; to ſpoil; to corrupt. This ſignification was anciently much in uſe, but is now wholly obſolete.—

Which when he ſaw, he burnt with jealous fire;
The eye of reaſon was with rage *yblent*.

Fairy Queen.

Regar



after 12. The troops then advanced to the attack; the right under the direction of Prince Eugene, the left headed by Marlborough, and oppoſed to Marſhal Tallard. Marlborough, at the head of the Engliſh troops, having paſſed the rivulet, attacked the cavalry of Tallard with great bravery. This general being then reviewing the diſpoſition of his troops to the left, his cavalry fought for ſome time without their commander. Prince Eugene had not yet attacked the forces of the elector; and it was near an hour before he could bring up his troops to the engagement.—Tallard was no ſooner informed that his right was attacked by the duke, than he flew to its head, where he found a furious encounter already begun; his cavalry being thrice driven back, and rallying as often. He had poſted a large body of forces in Blenheim; and he made an attempt to bring them to the charge. They were attacked by a detachment of Marlborough's troops ſo vigorouſly, that inſtead of aſſiſting the main body they could hardly maintain their ground. All the French cavalry being thus attacked in flank, was totally defeated. The Engliſh army now penetrated between the two bodies of the French commanded by the marſhal and elector, while the forces in Blenheim were ſeparated by another detachment. In this diſtreſſed ſituation Tallard flew to rally ſome ſquadrons; but from his ſhortſightedneſs miſtaking a detachment of the enemy for his own, he was made priſoner by the Heſſian troops, who were in the allied army. Meanwhile, Prince Eugene, after having been thrice repulſed, at laſt put the enemy into confuſion. The rout then became general, and the flight precipitate. The conſternation of the French ſoldiers was ſuch that they threw themſelves into the Danube, without knowing whither they fled. The allies being now maſters of the field of battle, ſurrounded the village of Blenheim, where a body of 13,000 men had been poſted in the beginning of the action, and ſtill maintained their ground. Theſe troops ſeeing themſelves cut off from all communication with the reſt of the army, and deſpairing of being able to force their way through the allies, threw down their arms, and ſurrendered priſoners of war. Thus ended the battle of Blenheim, one of the moſt complete victories that ever was obtained: 12000 French and Bavarians being ſlain in the field or drowned in the Danube; and 13,000 made priſoners of war; beſides 100 pieces of cannon, 22 mortars, upwards of 100 pair of colours, 200 ſtandards, 17 pair of kettle-drums, upwards of 3000 tents, 34 coaches, 300 loaded mules, two bridges of boats, and all the French baggage, taken with their military cheſt. Next day, when the D. of Marlborough viſited his priſoner the marſhal, the latter aſſured him that he had overcome the beſt troops in the world. "I hope, Sir, (replied the duke), you will except thoſe troops by whom they were conquered." The allies, in conſequence of this victory, became maſters of a country 100 leagues in extent. Blenheim lies 3 m. N. E. of Hochſtet, and 25 N. W. of Augſburg. Lon. 10. 25. E. Lat. 48. 40. N.

BLENHEIM-HOUSE a princely houſe erected in honour of the D. of Marlborough near Woodſtock was

was ſettled on the duke and his heirs, in conſideration of the eminent ſervices by him performed for the public; and for building of which houſe the ſum of L. 500,000 was granted by parliament, &c. The tenure by which the manor of Woodſtock is held, is the preſenting at the caſtle of Windſor annually, on the day in which the battle of Blenheim was fought, a flag embroidered with flowers-de-lis; which flag is ſhown to all ſtrangers who viſit the caſtle.

BLENKARN, a village in Cumberland, 4 m. N. W. of Appleby.

BLENKENSHIP, a village in Northumberland near the Picts Wall, on the borders of Cumberland.

BLENNA, BLENA, [βλεννα, μυξα, πεφυξα,] is uſed by Hippocrates for a thick phlegm and mucus flowing from the brain through the noſtrils, and ſhewing ſigns of a beginning concoction; as Galen explains it in ſeveral parts of his works.

BLENNERHASSET, a village in Cumberland near Bothel.

BLENNIUS, the BLENNY, in ichthyology, a genus of fiſhes belonging to the order of jugulares; the characters of which are theſe: The head ſlants or declines to one ſide; there are ſix rays in the membrane of the gills; the body tapers towards the tail; the belly fins have only two blunt bones; and the tail fin is diſtinct. The ſpecies are 13; viz.

1. BLENNIUS CORNUTUS, with a ſimple ray above the eyes, and a ſingle black fin.

2. BLENNIUS CRISTATUS, with a longitudinal briſtly creſt betwixt the eyes. The above two are natives of the Indies.

3. BLENNIUS GALERIA, with a tranſverſe membraneous creſt upon the head, is found in the European ſeas.

4. BLENNIUS GATTORUGINE, with ſmall palmated fins about the eye-brows and neck. It is about ſeven or eight inches long, is found in the European ſeas.

5. BLENNIUS GUNELLUS has 10 black ſpots on the back fin. It is found in the Atlantic Ocean.

6. BLENNIUS LUMPENUS has ſeveral duſky-coloured areolæ running acroſs its body. It is found in the European ſeas.

7. BLENNIUS MUSTELARIS has 3 rays on the fore part of the back fin. It is a native of India.

8. BLENNIUS OCELLARIS, with a furrow betwixt the eyes, and a large ſpot on the back fin. It is found in the European ſeas.

9. BLENNIUS PHOLIS has a ſmooth head, a curve line upon the ſides, and the upper jaw is larger than the under one.

10. BLENNIUS PHYCIS, with a kind of creſted noſtrils, a cirrus or beard on the under lip, and a double fin on the back. It has 7 rays in the gill membrane; the anus is ſurrounded with a black ring; and the tail is roundiſh. The two laſt are found in the Mediterranean Sea.

11. BLENNIUS RANINUS, with ſix diviſions in the belly fins, is found in the lakes of Sweden.—It is remarkable, that when this fiſh appears in the lake, all the other fiſhes retire; and what is worſe, it is not fit for eating.

12. BLENNIUS SUPERCILIOSUS, with ſmall fins about the eye-brows, and a curved lateral line.—It is a native of India.

13. BLENNIUS VIVIPARUS has two tentacu at the mouth. Schonevelde firſt diſcovered th ſpecies; Sir Robert Sibbald afterwards found on the Scottiſh coaſt. They bring forth 200 c 300 young at a time. Their ſeaſon of partur tion is a little after the depth of winter. Befo midſummer, they quit the bays and ſhores; an retire into the deep, where they are commonl taken. They are a very coarſe fiſh, and eate only by the poor. They are common in the mout of the river Eſk, at Whitby, Yorkſhire; wher they are taken frequently from off the bridge.— They ſometimes grow to the length of a foot.— Their form is ſlender, and the backbone is green as that of a ſea-needle.

BLENNUS, a name given by ſome authors particularly Schonfelt, to the SYNGNATHUS *corpore hexagono, cauda pinnata*; the ACUS of Ariſtotle; and *acus ſecunda* of other writers; called alſo by Goſner and Belonius, TYPHLE MARINA. It is a name uſed alſo by ſome for the tobacco pipe fiſh.

BLENNY. See BLENNIUS.

(1.) BLENT. *adj. Obſ.* ceaſed; blind; diſappointed. *Chaucer.*

* (2.) BLENT. The obſolete *participle* of *blend*. See BLEND.

BLEPHARIDES, in anatomy, the hair of the eye-lids, or the part on which it grows.

BLEPHARO, *n. ſ.* one who has great eye-lids.

BLEPHARON, *n. ſ.* [βλιφαρον, Gr.] the eye-lid.

BLEPHAROXYSTUM, [from βλιφαρον and ξυω, to ſcrape off,] an inſtrument for pulling hairs out of the eye-lids.

BLERA, in old records, peat or turf.

BLERVIE, a barony in the county of Elgin, comprehending a very fertile diſtrict, which produces excellent grain. It belongs to the Hon. Lewis Duff, who has built an elegant ſeat upon it. The tower of the ancient family ſeat of the Dunbars, which is all that remains of it, ſtands upon an elevated ground, and commands a very extenſive view of the Moray Firth, and great part of the counties of Elgin, Nairn, Inverneſs, Cromarty, Roſs, Sutherland and Caithneſs.

BLESENIS BOLUS, *bloe of Blois*, in the materia medica, a medicinal earth dug about Saumur, Blois, and Burgoyne in France, and ſeeming to poſſeſs all the virtues of the Armenian bole of Galen, which it alſo much reſembles in external appearance. It is uſeful in fluxes and other caſes, and might be had in any quantities, at a ſmall price; but the common red French bole, a counterfeit of it, or the BOLE ARMENIAC, is generally ſold for it.

BLESILOQUENT, *adj.* [from *blæſus*, an impediment and *loquor*, to ſpeak,] ſtammering.

BLESS, Henry, painter, was born at Bovine, near Dinant, 1480. He acquired his ſkill by the ſtrength of his natural genius, aſſiſted by a diligent ſtudy of Patenier's works; and rendered himſelf eminent, particularly by his landſcapes. His beſt performances were bought by the Emperor Rodolph, and they are ſtill preſerved at Vienna. His ſtyle in hiſtorical ſubjects reſembled that of the Flemiſh artiſts. But he crowded ſeveral ſubjects,

jects into one deſign; as, in his picture of the diſciples at Emmaus, he repreſented not only that incident, but likewiſe, in different groups in the back ground, the different parts of our Saviour's paſſion. And yet, notwithſtanding this impropriety, his pictures were ſo delicately finiſhed, and ſo full of variety, that even in Italy his works were in great requeſt. They were ſtiled the *owl pictures*, for he fixed an owl, as his peculiar mark, in each of them; by which his works are always indiſputably known. He died in 1550.

* To BLESS. *v. a. preterite* and *participle*, *bleſſed* or *bleſt*.] *bleſſian*, Saxon.] 1. To make happy; to proſper; to make ſucceſsful.—

The quality of mercy is not ſtrain'd;
It droppeth as the gentle rain of heaven
Upon the place beneath. It is twice *bleſs'd*;
It *bleſſeth* him that gives, and him that takes.
Shakeſpeare.

Had I but died an hour before this chance,
I had liv'd a *bleſſed* time: for, from this inſtant,
There's nothing ſerious in mortality. *Shakeſ.*

—This kingdom enjoyed the greateſt calm, and the fulleſt meaſure of felicity, that any people, in any age, for ſo long time together, have been *bleſſed* with. *Clarendon.*—

Happy this iſle, with ſuch a hero *bleſt*;
What virtue dwells not in his loyal breaſt? *Waller.*

In vain with folding arms the youth aſſay'd
To ſtop her flight, and ſtrain the flying ſhade;
But ſhe return'd no more, to *bleſs* his longing eyes. *Dryden.*

O hoſpitable Jove! we thus invoke,
Bleſs to both nations this auſpicious hour. *Dryd.*

2. To with happineſs to another; to pronounce a bleſſing upon him.—And this is the bleſſing wherewith Moſes the man of God *bleſſed* the children of Iſrael, before his death. *Deuteronomy.* 3. To conſecrate by a prayer.—He *bleſſed*, and brake, and gave the loaves. *Matthew.* 3. To praiſe; to glorify by benefits received; to celebrate.—Unto us there is one only guide of all agents natural, and he both the creator and worker of all in all, alone to be *bleſſed*, adored, and honoured by all for ever. *Hooker.*—

But *bleſs'd* be that great pow'r, that hath us *bleſs'd*
With longer life than earth and heav'n can have.
Davies.

5. It ſeems, in one place of *Spenſer*, to ſignify the ſame as *to waive; to brandiſh; to flouriſh.* This ſignification is taken from an old rite of our Roman anceſtors, who *bleſſing* a field directed their hands in quick ſucceſſion to all parts of it.—

Whom when the prince to battle new addreſt,
And threat'ning high his dreadful ſtroke did ſee,
His ſparkling blade about his head he *bleſt*,
And ſmote off quite his right leg by the knee.
Fairy Queen.

(1.) * BLESSED. *particip. adj.* [from *To bleſs.*] 1. Happy; enjoying felicity.—*Bleſſed* are the barren. *Luke.* 2. Holy and happy; happy in the favour of God.—All generations ſhall call me *bleſſed*. *Luke.* 3. Happy in the joys of heaven.—*Bleſſed* are the dead that die in the Lord. *Rev.*

(2.) * BLESSED THISTLE. [*cnicus*, Lat.] The name of a plant.

* BLESSEDLY. *adv.* [from *bleſſed.*] Happily.—This accident of Clitophon's taking, had ſo *bleſſedly* procured their meeting. *Sidney.*

* BLESSEDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bleſſed.*] 1. Happineſs: felicity.—Many times have I, leaning to yonder palm, admired the *bleſſedneſs* of it, that it could bear love without the ſenſe of pain. *Sidney.*—

His overthrow heap'd happineſs upon him;
For then, and not till then; he felt himſelf,
And found the *bleſſedneſs* of being little. *Shakeſ.*

2. Sanctity.—

Earthlier happy is the roſe diſtill'd,
Than that, which, withering on the virgin thorn,
Grows, lives, and dies in ſingle *bleſſedneſs*. *Shakeſ.*

3. Heavenly felicity.—It is ſuch an one, as, being begun in grace, paſſes into glory, *bleſſedneſs*, and immortality. *South.* 4. Divine favour.

* BLESSER. *n. ſ.* [from *bleſs.*] He that bleſſes, or gives a bleſſing; he that makes any thing proſper.—When thou receiveſt praiſe, take it indifferently, and return it to God, the giver of the gift, or *bleſſer* of the action. *Taylor.*

* BLESSING. *n. ſ.* [from *bleſs.*] 1. Benediction; a prayer by which happineſs is implored for any one. 2. A declaration by which happineſs is promiſed in a prophetick and authoritative manner.—The perſon that is called, kneeleth down before the chair, and the father layeth his hand upon his head, or her head, and giveth the *bleſſing*. *Bacon.* 3. Any of the means of happineſs; a gift; an advantage; a benefit.—

Nor are his *bleſſings* to his banks confin'd,
But free and common, as the ſea and wind.
Denham.

—Political jealouſy is very reaſonable in perſons perſuaded of the excellency of their conſtitution, who believe that they derive from it the moſt valuable *bleſſings* of ſociety. *Addiſon.*—A juſt and wiſe magiſtrate is a *bleſſing* as extenſive as the community to which he belongs: a *bleſſing* which includes all other *bleſſings* whatſoever, that relate to this life. *Atterbury.* 4. Divine favour.—

My pretty couſin,
Bleſſing upon you! *Shakeſpeare.*

I had moſt need of *bleſſing*, and Amen
Stuck in my throat. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Honour thy father and mother, both in word and deed, that a *bleſſing* may come upon thee from them. *Eccluſ.*—He ſhall receive the *bleſſing* from the Lord. *Pſalms.* 5. The Hebrews, under this name, often underſtood the preſents which friends make to one another; in all probability, becauſe they are generally attended with *bleſſings* and compliments both from thoſe who give, and thoſe who receive. *Calmet.*—And Jacob ſaid, receive my preſent at my hand; take, I pray thee, my *bleſſing* that is brought to thee. *Geneſis.*

BLESSINGTON, a town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow, Leinſter, pleaſantly ſeated on a riſing ground, near the Liffey, 14 m. S. W. of Dublin. Lon. 6. 40. W. Lat. 53. 10. N.

* BLEST. *preterite* and *participle.* [from *bleſs.*]

Peace to thy gentle ſhade, and endleſs reſt!
Bleſt in thy genius, and in thy love too *bleſt!* *Pope.*

BLESTIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Britain; now called OLD-TOWN, not far from Hereford.

BLESTRISMUS, [from βλησσω, *to toſs*,] in the ancient phyſic, a continual toſſing and inquietude of

of the body occaſioned by a tumultuary effervescence of the blood, eſpecially in acute fevers.

BLETA ALBA, an epithet given by ſome to the milky urine voided in ſome diſorders of the kidneys, ranked by Paracelſus among the cauſes of the *phthiſis*.

BLETARN, a village in Weſtmoreland, N. W. of Kirby-Lonſdale.

BLETCHINGTON, the name of two villages in Suſſex; 1. near Brighthelmſtone; and, 2. N. of Eaſtbourn.

BLETHERWICK, a village in Northamptonſhire, near King's-Cliff.

BLETONISM, a faculty of perceiving and indicating ſubterraneous ſprings and currents by ſenſation. The term is modern, and derived from a Mr Bleton, who within theſe few years excited univerſal attention by poſſeſſing this faculty, which ſeems to depend upon ſome peculiar organization. Concerning the reality of this extraordinary faculty, there occured great doubts among the learned. But M. Thouvenel, a French philoſopher, ſeems to have put the matter beyond diſpute, in two memoirs which he publiſhed upon the ſubject. He was charged by the late unfortunate monarch with a commiſſion to analyſe the mineral and medicinal waters in France; and, by repeated trials, he had been ſo fully convinced of the capacity of Bleton, to aſſiſt him with efficacy in this important undertaking, that he ſolicited the miniſtry to join him in the commiſſion upon advantageous terms. All this ſhows that the operations of Bleton have a more ſolid ſupport, than the tricks of impoſture or the deluſions of fancy. In fact, a great number of his diſcoveries are aſcertained by reſpectable affidavits. The following is a ſtrong inſtance in favour of Bletoniſm. "For a long time the traces of ſeveral ſprings and their reſervoirs in the lands of the Abbey de Vervains had been entirely loſt. It appeared, nevertheleſs, by ancient deeds and titles, that theſe ſprings and reſervoirs had exiſted. A neighbouring abbey was ſuppoſed to have turned their waters for its benefit into other channels, and a lawſuit was commenced upon this ſuppoſition. M. Bleton was applied to: he diſcovered at once the new courſe of the waters in queſtion: his diſcovery was aſcertained, and the law-ſuit was terminated." Bleton, however, was miſtaken more than once; and M. Thouvenel enumerates, with candour, the caſes in which he failed: but theſe caſes are very rare in compariſon with thoſe in which he ſucceeded. Beſides, even the miſtakes of Bleton do not invalidate the reality of his talent; ſince a talent may be real without being perfect, or exerting itſelf with the ſame ſucceſs in every trial. Many argued againſt Bletoniſm, becauſe they looked upon the facts on which it is founded as inexplicable. But M. Thouvenel aſſigns principles, upon which the impreſſions made by ſubterraneous waters and mines may be accounted for. Having aſcertained a general law, by which ſubterraneous electricity exerts an influence upon the bodies of certain individuals, eminently ſuſceptible of that influence, and ſhown that this law is the ſame whether the electrical action ariſes from currents of warm or cold water, from currents of humid air, from coal or metallic mines, from ſulphur, and ſo on, he obſerves, that there is a diverſity in the phyſical and organical impreſſions which are produced by this electrical action, according as it proceeds from different foſſile bodies, which are more or leſs conductors of electrical emanations. There are alſo artificial proceſſes, which conduce in leading us to diſtinguiſh the different conductors of mineral electricity; and in theſe proceſſes the uſe of electrometrical rods deſerves the attention of philoſophers, who might perhaps in proceſs of time ſubſtitute in their place a more perfect inſtrument. Their phyſical and ſpontaneous mobility, and its electrical cauſe, are demonſtrated by indiſputable experiments. On the other hand, M. Thouvenel proves, by very plauſible arguments, the influence of ſubterraneous electrical currents, compares them with the electrical currents of the atmoſphere, points out the different impreſſions they produce, according to the number and quality of the bodies which act, and the diverſity of thoſe which are acted upon. The ordinary ſources of cold water make impreſſions proportioned to their volume, the velocity of their currents, and other circumſtances. Their ſtagnation deſtroys every ſpecies of electrical influence; at leaſt, in the ſtate they have none that is perceptible. The depth is indicated by geometrical proceſſes, founded upon the motion and divergence of the electrical rays; but there are ſecond cauſes, which ſometimes diverſify theſe indications, and occaſion ſeeming errors. Theſe errors, however, according to our author, are only exceptions to the general rule; exceptions which depend on the difference of mediums and ſituations, and not on the inconſtancy or incertitude of the organic ſenſitive, or convulſive faculties of the Bletoniſt. All the hot ſprings in France, traced by M. Thouvenel, from the places where they flow, to the places where their formation commences (ſometimes at a diſtance of 15 leagues), led him conſtantly to maſſes of coal; where they are collected and heated in baſons of different depths and dimenſions, nouriſhed by the filtration of lakes and the courſe of torrents, and mineralized by falin ſulphureous, metallic, and bituminous ſubſtance in the natural furnaces where they are heated, in the ſtrata through which they flow.—The l and the moſt ſingular and important phenomen which our author met with in the courſe of experiments, muſt not be here omitted. Over veins of iron mines aloſſe the electrometrical r aſſume a motion of rotation diametrically oppo to that which they exhibit over all other mi This phenomenon takes place with the ſame tinction when iron and other metals are extrac from their mines and depoſited under grou But the moſt remarkable circumſtance in this tinctive action of theſe metals, is, that it has uniform and conſtant direction from E. to W. all metals, iron excepted, juſt as iron rende magnetic has an action directed from S. to The action of red metals is more palpable t that of the white; but the latter, though weak has nevertheleſs a real exiſtence in the ſulphur. the ſupplement to this memoir, there is an ac rate account of the proceſſes that have furni theſe invariable reſults. They naturally ſug the idea of conſtructing an electrical com

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which may be of as eminent uſe in experimental philoſophy, as the magnetic compaſs is in navigation. The natural and ſpontaneous direction of [illegible] towards the W. being aſcertained, it only remains to render them palpable, by the conſtruction of an inſtrument, which may be called in the place of the electrometrical rod, that you originally by the name of the *divining rod*. His analyſis of the hot ſprings of Bourbonne-les-Bains, in the ſource of which, in the great mountains of Burgundy, he was led by the electrical indications of Bleton, ſhows the great intelligence and ſagacity of M. Thouvenel in operations of this nature. He found the origin of theſe famous hot ſprings in the centre of an oblong rifing mount, full of coal, and commanded on 3 ſides by a group of mountains, of which the greateſt part was filled with the ſame mineral. From a particular caſe, in which the electrical rays of the abundant water and thoſe of the adjacent coal crolſed each other, he deduces a very natural account of the errors which may ſometimes, though rarely, baffled for a time the greateſt adepts in Britain, when they find themſelves in combined ſphere of electrical activity. Another obſervation, often ſeems confirmed by ſeveral facts, accounts [illegible] for this fallibility: the obſervation is, that electrical rays, whether direct or collateral, iſſuing from ſubterraneous focuſes, ſeem to undergo, in their [illegible] a fort of refraction as they paſs from one medium to another, or traverſe bodies which alſo with reſpect to the property of tranſmitting electricity. It follows from theſe obſervations, that when ſuch privileged inveſtigators of currents as thoſe of Bleton are placed upon the electrical planes of thoſe bodies, they will indicate their [illegible] and their reſpective depths, according to the [illegible] they feel within themſelves, or the [illegible] they obſerve in the electrometrical inſtrument; and if they meet with [illegible] accidental cauſes, or complications of ſecondary ſources, which modify or alter theſe meaſurements, this will neceſſarily occaſion miſtakes [illegible] of their operations which they may [illegible] eaſily; but which, at all events, it would [illegible] to be to their charge, or allege as an [illegible]

which have their name. Theſe ſeem not to breed with us; but appear in our rivers only at certain ſeaſons, when there have been very violent N. winds. This fiſh is ſeldom found ſingle; ſo that the fiſhermen rejoice at the taking one of them, expecting a large ſhoal of them near.

BLEW-HOUSE, a village in Middleſex, W. of Endfield-Chaſe.

BLEYDON, a village in Somerſetſhire, near Up-hill.

(1.) * BLEYME. *n. ſ.* An inflammation in the foot of a horſe, between the ſole and the bone. *Farrier's Dict.*

(2.) BLEYMES are of 3 ſorts; the firſt, bred in ſpoiled wrinkled feet with narrow heels, are uſually ſeated in the inward or weakeſt quarter; the 2d infects the griſtle, and muſt be extirpated, as in the cure of a quitter-bone: the 3d is occaſioned by ſmall ſtones and gravel between the ſhoe and the ſole.—For a cure, pare the foot, let out the matter, if any, and dreſs the ſore, like the prick of a nail.

BLIBOROUGH, a town in Lincolnſhire, S. of Kirton.

BLICCA, in ichthyology, a ſpecies of cyprinus. See BALLERUS, N° 2, and CYPRINUS.

BLICEA, in ichthyology, 1. the name of a ſmall fiſh of the harengiform kind, caught in the German and other ſeas, and ſuppoſed by many to be the ſame with our ſprat. 2. It is alſo the name of a freſh-water fiſh of the *malacoſtomous*, or leather-mouthed kind, the ſame with the more common kind of *carcaſſius*. 3. It is alſo the name of an E. India fiſh, of the ſhape and colour of the herring, but ſomewhat broader and thinner. Its tail is forked; but its eyes and the end of its ſnout are extremely large. Theſe fiſh ſwim in vaſt ſhoals, and are caught principally on the coaſt of Malabar. They are well taſted, but have no taſte of a herring. They take ſalt, which ſcarce any other of the Eaſt India fiſh will do, and are therefore much valued, and ſent into all the neighbouring parts of the country in pickle. The natives alſo, in manuring the lands whereon they ſow their rice, uſe theſe fiſh, which are caught in prodigious plenty, inſtead of dung.

BLICKLING, a village in Norfolkſhire, near [illegible]

[illegible]ESLOW, or BELLELOW, a village in [illegible]thire, near Awre.

[illegible], in ichthyology, a name given by the [illegible] of the [illegible]

[illegible] etymology unknown.] [illegible] *Skinner*; but it ſeems [illegible] general ſenſe, for any [illegible]—I complained to the [illegible] who often fell into the [illegible]med it ſome *bigar* of [illegible] Any thing nipping, or [illegible]d to the proof once, the [illegible]oft infallibly ſtrip you of [illegible]

[illegible]undry, a diſeaſe incident [illegible] them variouſly, the whole [illegible]ng by it, and ſometimes [illegible]ſions, which will be ſcorch- [illegible] the reſt remaining green and [illegible]ave ſuppoſed t[illegible] blights are

uſually produced by an eaſterly wind, bringing vaſt quantities of inſects eggs along with it, from ſome diſtant place; and that theſe, being lodged upon the ſurface of the leaves and flowers of fruit trees, cauſe them to ſhrivel up and periſh. To cure this diſtemper, they adviſe the burning of wet litter on the windward ſide of the plants, that the ſmoke thereof may be carried to them by the wind, which they ſuppoſe will ſtifle and deſtroy the inſects, and thereby cure the diſtemper. Others direct the uſe of tobacco duſt, or to waſh the trees with water wherein tobacco ſtalks have been infuſed for 12 hours; which they ſay will deſtroy thoſe inſects, and recover the plants. Pepper duſt ſcattered over the bloſſoms of fruit trees, &c. has been recommended as very uſeful in this caſe; and there are ſome that adviſe the pulling off the leaves that are diſtempered. The true cauſe of blights ſeem to be continued dry eaſterly winds for ſeveral days together, without the intervention of ſhowers, or any morning dew, by which the perſpiration in the tender bloſſom is ſtopped; and if it ſo happens that there is a long continuance of the ſame weather, it equally affects the tender leaves, whereby their colour is changed, and they wither and decay. The beſt remedy for this diſtemper, is to waſh and ſprinkle gently over the tree, &c. from time to time with common water; and if the young ſhoots ſeem to be much infected, let them be waſhed with a woollen cloth, ſo as to clear them, if poſſible, from this glutinous matter, that their reſpiration and perſpiration may not be obſtructed. This operation ought to be performed early in the day, that the moiſture may be exhaled before the cold of the night comes on: nor ſhould it be done when the ſun ſhines very hot. Another cauſe of blights in ſpring is ſharp hoary froſts, which are often ſucceeded by hot ſunſhine in the day time. Theſe are the moſt ſudden and certain deſtroyers of the fruits that are known.

* *To* BLIGHT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To corrupt with mildew.—This vapour bears up along with it any noxious mineral ſteams; it then blaſts vegetables, *blights* corn and fruit, and is ſometimes injurious even to men. *Woodward.* 2. In general, to blaſt; to hinder from fertility.—My country neighbours do not find it impoſſible to think of a lame horſe they have, or their *blighted* corn, till they have run over in their minds all beings. *Locke.*—

But leſt harſh care the lover's peace deſtroy,
And roughly *blight* the tender buds of joy,
Let reaſon teach. *Lyttelton.*

BLIGHTED CORN. See SMUT.

BLIKE, in ichthyology, a name given by ſome to an anadromous fiſh, reſembling our river chub, and called by Geſner *capito anadromus*; but better known by the name of ZARTA, or the ZERTE.

BLILESLOW. See BLIDESLOW.

BLIMHILL, a village in Staffordſhire, W. of Penkridge.

To BLIN, *v. n. obſ.* To ceaſe. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * BLIND. *adj.* [*blind*, Sax.] 1. Without ſight; wanting the ſenſe of ſeeing; dark.—The *blind* man that governs his ſteps by feeling, in defect of eyes, receives advertiſements of things through a ſtaff. *Digby.*—

Thoſe other two equall'd with me in fate,
So were I equall'd with them in renown!
Blind Thamyris, and *blind* Mæonides;
And Tereſias, and Phineas, prophets old. *Mil*

2. Intellectually dark; unable to judge; ignorant with *to* before that which is unſeen.—

All authors *to* their own defects are *blind*;
Hadſt thou, but Janus like, a face behind,
To ſee the people, what ſplay mouths they make
To mark their fingers pointed at thy back.
Dryde

3. Sometimes *of*.—

Blind of the future, and by rage miſled,
He pulls his crimes upon his people's head.
Dryde

4. Unſeen; out of the publick view; private: g nerally with ſome tendency to ſome contempt c cenſure.—To grievous and ſcandalous inconv niencies they make themſelves ſubject, with whoi any *blind* or ſecret corner is judged a fit houſe common prayer. *Hooker.* 5. Not eaſily diſcern ible; hard to find; dark; obſcure; unſeen.- There be alſo *blind* fires under ſtone, which flam not out; but oil being poured upon them, the flame out. *Bacon.*—

Where elſe
Shall I inform my unacquainted feet
In the *blind* mazes of this tangl'd wood? *Mi*
How have we wander'd a long diſmal night
Led through *blind* paths by each deluding ligh
Roſcommo
Part creeping under ground, their journ *blind*,
And climbing from below, their fellows meet
Dryde
So mariners miſtake the promis'd guſt,
And, with full ſails, on the *blind* rocks are lo
Dryde
A poſtern door, yet unobſerv'd and free,
Join'd by the length of a *blind* gallery,
To the king's cloſet bed. *Dryde*

6. *Blind Veſſels.* [with chymiſts.] Such as have opening but on one ſide.

(2.) * BLIND. *n. ſ.* 1. Something to hinder t ſight.—Hardly any thing in our converſation pure and genuine; civility caſts a *blind* over t duty, under ſome cuſtomary words. *L'Eſtran* 2. Something to miſlead the eye or the und ſtanding.—Theſe diſcourſes ſet an oppoſition b tween his commands and decrees; making the o a *blind* for the execution of the other. *Decay Piety.*

(3.) BLIND, an epithet applied to a perſon ſenſitive creature deprived of the uſe of his eye or, in other words, to one from whom light, c lours, and all the glorious variety of the viſil creation, are intercepted by ſome natural or ac dental diſeaſe. Such is the literal acceptation the term; but it is likewiſe uſed in a metaphc cal ſenſe, (ſee § 1. *def.* 2.) and frequently impli at the ſame time, ſome moral or ſpiritual dep vity in the ſoul thus blinded, which is either t efficient or continuing cauſe of this internal ma dy. Yet, even in metaphor, the epithet is ſon times applied to a ſpecies of ignorance, which n ther involves the idea of real guilt nor of volun ry error. It is, however, our preſent intention conſider the word, not in its figurative, but in

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natural and primary ſenſe. Nor do we mean in this place to regard it as a ſubject of medical ſpeculation, or to explore its cauſes and enumerate its cures. Theſe belong to another ſcience. See MEDICINE, INDEX. Our chief deſign here is to conſider, By what means this inexpreſſible misfortune may be compenſated or alleviated to thoſe who ſuſtain it; what advantages and conſolations they may derive from it; of what acquiſitions they may be ſuſceptible; what are the proper means of their improvement; or by what culture they may become uſeful to themſelves, and important members of ſociety. See § 5—19.

(4.) BLIND, ACCOUNT OF THE DISTRESSED SITUATION OF THE. There is not perhaps any ſenſe or faculty of the corporeal frame, which affords ſo many ſources of utility and entertainment as the power of viſion; nor is there any privation which can be productive of diſadvantages ſo various, and ſo bitter, as the want of ſight. By no avenue of corporeal perception is knowledge in her full extent, ſo acceſſible to the rational ſoul, as by the glorious and delightful medium of light. For this not only reveals external things in all their beauties, and varieties, but enables the mind to give body, form, and colour, to intellectual ideas; ſo that the whole material and intelligent creation lie open, and the majeſtic frame of nature is perceived at a glance. To the blind, on the contrary, the viſible univerſe is totally annihilated; he has not even any diſtinct idea of ſpace, except that in which he ſtands, or to which his extremities can reach. Sound, indeed, gives him ſome ideas of diſtant objects; but theſe ideas are extremely obſcure and indiſtinct. They are obſcure, becauſe they conſiſt alone of the objects whoſe oſcillations vibrate on his ear, and do not neceſſarily ſuppoſe any other bodies with which the intermediate ſpace may be occupied; they are indiſtinct, becauſe ſounds themſelves are frequently ambiguous, and do not uniformly indicate their real cauſes. And though by them the idea of diſtance in general, or even of ſome particular diſtances, may be obtained; yet they never fill the mind with thoſe vaſt and exalting ideas of extenſion, which are inſpired by ocular perception. For though a clap of thunder, or an explоſion of ordnance, may be diſtinctly heard after the ſound has traverſed an immenſe region of ſpace; yet, when the diſtance is uncommonly great, it ceaſes to be indicated by ſound; and therefore the ideas, acquired by auricular experiment, of extenſion and interval, are extremely confuſed and inadequate. The comprehenſive eye darts its inſtantaneous glance over extenſive valleys, lofty mountains, protracted rivers, illimitable oceans. It views in an inſtant, the mighty ſpace from earth to heaven, or from one ſtar to another. By the aſſiſtance of teleſcopes, its power is almoſt infinitely extended, its objects prodigiouſly multiplied, and the ſphere of its obſervation immenſely enlarged. Thus the imagination, inured to vaſt impreſſions of diſtance, can not only recal them in their greateſt extent, with as much rapidity as they were at firſt imbibed; but can multiply them, and add one to another, till all particular boundaries and diſtances be loſt in immenſity. The blind are apprehenſive of danger in every motion towards any place, from whence their contracted powers of perception can give them no intelligence. All the various modes of delicate proportion, all the beautiful varieties of light and colours, exhibited in the works of nature and art, are to them irretrievably loſt. Dependent for every thing, but mere exiſtence, on the good offices of others; obnoxious to injury from every point, which they are neither capacitated to perceive nor qualified to reſiſt; they are, during the preſent ſtate of being, rather priſoners at large, than citizens of nature. The ſedentary life, to which by privation of ſight they are deſtined, relaxes their frame, and ſubjects them to all the diſagreeable ſenſations which ariſe from dejection of ſpirits. Hence the moſt feeble exertions create laſſitude and uneaſineſs. Hence the native tone of the nervous ſyſtem, compatible with health and pleaſure, being deſtroyed by inactivity, exaſperates and embitters every diſagreeable impreſſion. Natural evils, however, are ſupportable; being either mild in their attacks, or ſhort in their duration: the miſeries inflicted by conſcious and reflecting agents alone deſerve the name of evils. Theſe excruciate the ſoul with ineffable poignancy, as expreſſive of indifference or malignity in thoſe by whom ſuch bitter portions are cruelly adminiſtered. The negligence or wantonneſs, therefore, with which the blind are too frequently treated, is an enormity which God alone has juſtice or power to puniſh. Thoſe amongſt them who have had ſenſibility to feel, and capacity to expreſs, the effects of their misfortunes, have deſcribed them in a manner capable of penetrating the moſt callous heart. Homer, who, in the perſon of Demodocus the Phæatian bard, is ſaid to have deſcribed his own ſituation, proceeds thus:

Τον περι Μυσ' εφιλησε, δεδω δ' αγαθον τε, κακον τε
Οφθαλμων μεν αμερσε δεδω δ' ηδεαν αοιδην. ODYS. θ

Dear to the muſe, who gave his days to flow
With mighty bleſſings mix'd with mighty woe,
In clouds and darkneſs quench'd his viſual ray,
Yet gave him power to raiſe the lofty lay. POPE.

Our ancient Caledonian bard, Oſſian, who in his old age participated the ſame calamity, has alſo, in more than one paſſage of his works, deſcribed his ſituation in a manner equally delicate and pathetic. And Milton complains, (*Par. Loſt*, B. iii.)

——————" With the year
Seaſons return; but not to me returns
Day, or the ſweet approach of ev'n or morn,
Or ſight of vernal bloom, or ſummer's roſe,
Or flocks, or herds, or human face divine;
But cloud inſtead, and ever during dark,
Surround me, from the chearful ways of men
Cut off," &c.

And in his tragedy of Sampſon Agoniſtes, in the perſon of his hero, he deplores the misfortune of blindneſs with great pathos and energy.

——————But chief of all,
O loſs of ſight, of thee I moſt complain!
Blind among enemies, O worſe than chains,
Dungeon, or beggary, decrepid age.
Light, the prime work of God, to me's extinct,
And all her various objects of delight

Annull'd, which might in part my grief have eas'd,
Inferior to the vileſt now become
Of man or worm. The vileſt here excel me:
They creep, yet ſee.——
Scarce half I ſeem to live, dead more than half
O dark, dark, dark, amid the blaze of noon,
Irrecoverably dark, total eclipſe
Without all hope of day!
Since light ſo neceſſary is to life,
And almoſt life itſelf, why was the ſight
To ſuch a tender ball as th' eye confin'd,
So obvious, and eaſy to be quench'd?
And not, as feeling, through all parts diffus'd,
That ſhe might look at will thro' ev'ry pore?
Then had I not been thus exil'd from light,
As in the land of darkneſs, yet in light
To live a life half dead, a living death;
And buried; but yet more miſerable!
Myſelf the ſepulchre, a moving grave.

Thus dependent on every creature, and paſſive to every accident, can we be ſurpriſed, to obſerve moments when the blind are at variance with themſelves and every thing elſe around them? With the ſame inſtincts of ſelf-preſervation, the ſame iraſcible paſſions which are common to the ſpecies, and exaſperated by a ſenſe of debility either for retaliation or defence; can the blind be really objects of reſentment or contempt, even when they ſeem peeviſh or vindictive? This, however, is not always their character. Their behaviour is often highly expreſſive, not only of reſignation, but even of cheerfulneſs; and though they are often coldly, and even inhumanly, treated by men, yet they are rarely, if ever, forſaken of heaven. The common Parent of nature, whoſe benignity is permanent as his exiſtence, and boundleſs as his empire, has neither left his afflicted creatures without conſolation nor reſource. See § 5.

(5.) BLIND, ADVANTAGES ENJOYED BY THE. The blind often derive advantages even from their loſs, however oppreſſive and irretrievable; not indeed adequate to compenſate, but ſufficient to alleviate their miſery. The attention of the ſoul, confined to theſe avenues of perception which ſhe can command, is neither diſſipated nor confounded, by the immenſe multiplicity, nor the rapid ſucceſſion of ſurrounding objects. Hence her contemplations are more uniformly fixed upon the revolutions of her own internal frame. Hence her perceptions of ſuch external things, as are contiguous and obvious to her obſervation, become more exquiſite. Hence even her inſtruments of corporeal ſenſation are more aſſiduouſly improved; ſo that from them ſhe derives ſuch notices of approaching pleaſure, or impending danger, as entirely eſcape the attention of thoſe who depend for ſecurity on the reports of their eyes. A blind man, when walking ſwiftly, or running, is kindly checked by nature from rudely encountering ſuch hard and extended objects as might hurt or bruiſe him. When he approaches bodies of this kind, he feels the atmoſphere more ſenſibly reſiſt his progreſs; and in proportion as his motion is accelerated, or his diſtance from the object diminiſhed, the reſiſtance is increaſed. He diſtinguiſhes the approach of his friend by the ſound of his ſteps, by his manner of breathing and almoſt by every audible token which he can exhibit. Prepared for the dangers which he may encounter, from the ſurface of the ground upon which he walks, his ſtep is habitually firm and cautious. Hence he not only avoids thoſe falls which might be occaſioned by its leſs formidable inequalities, but from its general bias he collects ſome ideas, how far his ſafety is immediately concerned; and though theſe conjectures may be ſometimes fallacious, yet they are generally ſo true as to preſerve him from ſuch accidents as are not incurred by his own temerity. The rapid torrent and the deep caſcade not only warn him to keep a proper diſtance, but inform him in what direction he moves, and are a kind of audible ſyncſures to regulate his courſe. In places to which he has been accuſtomed, he as it were recogniſes his latitude and longitude, from every breath of varied fragrance that tinges the gale, from every aſcent or declivity in the road, from every natural or artificial ſound that ſtrikes his ear; if theſe indications be ſtationary, and confined to particular places. Regulated by theſe ſigns, the *blind* have not only been known to perform long journeys themſelves, but even to conduct others through dangerous paths at midnight, with the utmoſt ſecurity and exactneſs. See § 11. It would be endleſs to recapitulate the various mechanical operations of which they are capable, by their nicety and accuracy of touch. In ſome the tactile powers are ſaid to have been ſo highly improved, as to perceive that texture and diſpoſition of coloured ſurfaces, by which ſome rays of light are reflected and others abſorbed, and in this manner to diſtinguiſh colours. But the teſtimonies for this fact ſtill appear too vague and general to deſerve public credit. A perſon who loſt the uſe of his ſight at an early period of infancy, who in the vivacity or delicacy of his ſenſations was not perhaps inferior to any one, and who had often heard of others in his ſituation capable of diſtinguiſhing colours by touch, ſtimulated, partly by curioſity to acquire a new train of ideas, if poſſible, but ſtill more by incredulity with reſpect to the facts related, tried repeated experiments, by touching the ſurfaces of different bodies, and examining whether any ſuch diverſities could be found in them, as might enable him to diſtinguiſh colours; but no ſuch diverſity could he ever aſcertain. Sometimes, indeed, he imagined that objects which had no colour, or, in other words, ſuch as were black, were ſomewhat different and peculiar in their ſurfaces; but this experiment did not always hold. (See however § 13 & 14.) That their acouſtic perceptions are diſtinct and accurate, we may fairly conclude from the rapidity with which they aſcertain the acuteneſs or gravity of different tones, and from their exact diſcernment of the various modifications of ſound, and of ſonorous objects, if the ſounds themſelves be in any degree ſignificant of their cauſes. From this accuracy of external ſenſation, and from the aſſiduous and vigorous applications of a comprehenſive and attentive mind alone, we are able to account for the rapid and aſtoniſhing progreſs which ſome of them have made, not only in thoſe departments of literature, which were moſt obvi-

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und of his steps, by his manner of breathing, d almost by every audible token which he can hibit. Prepared for the dangers which he may counter, from the surface of the ground up z hich he walks, his step is habitually firm and utious. Hence he not only avoids those falls, equalities, but from its general bias he collects me ideas, how far his safety is immediately con- rned; and though these conjectures may le metimes fallacious, yet they are generally so true, to preserve him from such accidents as are not curred by his own temerity. The rapid torrent d the deep cascade not only warn him to keep roper distance, but inform him in what direc- n he moves, and are a kind of audible lyna- es to regulate his course. In places to which has been accustomed, he as it were recognises latitude and longitude, from every breath of ied fragrance that tinges the gale, from every ent or declivity in the road, from every artificial sound that strikes his ear; if these in- ations be stationary, and confined to particu- places. Regulated by these signs, the blind e not only been known to perform long jour- s themselves, but even to conduct others ough dangerous paths at midnight, with the oft security and exactness. See § 31. It ald be endless to recapitulate the various me- nical operations of which they are capable, by r nicety and accuracy of touch. In some the ile powers are said to have been so highly im- ved, as to perceive that texture and disposi- of coloured surfaces, by which some rays of t are reflected and others absorbed, and in this ner to distinguish colours. But the testimo- for this fact still appear too vague and general eserve public credit. A person who lost the of his sight at an early period of infancy, when e vivacity or delicacy of his sensations was not aps inferior to any one, and who had often d of others in his situation capable of distin- hing colours by touch, stimulated, partly by osity to acquire a new train of ideas, if pos- but still more by incredulity with respect to facts related, tried repeated experiments, by hing the surfaces of different bodies, and exa- ng whether any such diversities could be found em, as might enable him to distinguish co- ; but no such diversity could he ever ascer- Sometimes, indeed, he imagined that cer- which had no colour, or, in other words as were black, were somewhat different and liar in their surfaces; but this experiment did always hold. (See however § 13 & 14.) That acoustic perceptions are distinct and accu- we may fairly conclude from the rapidity which they ascertain the acuteness or gravi- different tones, and from their exact discern- of the various modifications of sound, and norous objects, if the sounds themselves be y degree significant of their causes. From ccuracy of external sensation, and from the ious and vigorous applications of a compre ve and attentive mind alone, we are able to unt for the rapid and astonishing progress h some of them have made, not only in those nts of literature, which were most obvi- ous to their senses, and accessible to their under- standings, but even in the most abstract sciences. Nothing, for instance, can be more remote from the conception of a blind man, than the abstract re- lations and properties of space and quantity? Yet the incomprehensible attainments of Dr Saunder- son in all the branches of mathematics are now known and firmly believed by the whole lite- rary world, both from the testimony of his pu- pils and the publication of his works. But should this fact be still deemed uncertain, it might be ve- rified by a living prodigy of this kind, with which our country is at present honoured; who, though blind from his infancy, by the assiduity of his ap- plication, and by the force of a genius to which nothing is impenetrable, has not only made incre- dible advances in mechanical operations, in mu- sic, and in the languages; but is likewise profound- ly skilled in geometry, in algebra, in astronomy, in chemistry, and in all the other branches of na- tural philosophy, as taught by Newton, and re- fined by an admiring world, even *optics* not ex- cepted. See § 7.

(6.) BLIND, A PHENOMENON RESPECTING THE, NOT ACCOUNTED FOR. When we ruminate on the innumerable advantages derived from the use of sight, and its immense importance, in extend- ing the human capacity, and improving every fa- culty of the mind, we might be tempted to doubt the reports concerning such persons as, without the assistance of light, have arrived at high de- grees of eminence even in those sciences which ap- pear absolutely unattainable but by the interposition of external mediums. It has, however, been de- monstrated by the late ingenious Dr Reid, that blind men, by proper instruction, are susceptible of almost every idea, and every truth which can be imparted on the mind by the mediation of light and colours, except the sensations of light and colours themselves. (*Inquiry into the Human Mind*, c. 6 § 1, 2.) Yet there is one phenomenon of this kind, which seems to have escaped the atten- tion of that great philosopher, and for which no author has offered any tolerable reason, though it certainly merits the attention of a philosopher. For though we should admit, that the blind can understand with great perspicuity all the pheno- mena of light and colours; though it were allow- ed, that on these subjects they might extend their speculations beyond their instructions, and inves- tigate the mechanical principles of optics by the mere force of genius and application, from the facts which they have already obtained; yet it will be allowed, if not impossible, to assign any rea- son why these objects should be more interesting to a blind man, than any other abstract truths whatever. It is possible for the blind, by a re- course to memory, to tell, That the sky is an azure; that the sun, moon, and stars, are bright; that flowers are red, the lily white or yellow, and the grass variegated. By continually hearing these substantives and adjectives joined, he may be ne- cessarily taught to join them in the same man- ner; but as he never had any sensation of colour, however accurately he may speak of coloured ob- jects, his language must be like that of a parrot; without meaning, and without ideas. Homer, Virgil, and Ossian, had been long acquainted with

the visible world, before they were surrounded with clouds and ever-during darkness. They might, therefore, still retain the pleasing impres- sions of what they had seen. Their descriptions might be animated with all the rapture and en- thusiasm, which originally fired their bosoms, when the grand or delightful objects which they delineated were immediately beheld. Nay, that enthusiasm might still be heightened by a bitter sense of their loss, and by that regret which a si- tuation so dismal might naturally inspire. But how shall we account for the same energy, the same transport of description, exhibited by those on whose minds visible objects were either never impressed, or have been entirely obliterated? Yet, however unaccountable this fact may appear, it is no less extraordinary than true. See the *Preface* to *Blacklock's Poems*, written by G. G. Esq. and printed at Edinburgh in 1754; or the account of his life and writings by the Rev. Mr Spence, pre- fixed to a 4to edition of his poems, published at London in 1756. A foreign author, a stranger to the Dr, says, "Blacklock will appear to poste- rity a fabulous character: even now he is a prodi- gy." See BLACKLOCK.

(7.) BLIND, ASTONISHING ACQUISITIONS MADE BY SOME OF THE. Dr Nicolas Bacon, a blind gentleman, descended from the same family with the celebrated lord Verulam, was, in the city of Brussels, with high approbation created LL. D. He was deprived of sight at 9 years of age by an arrow from a cross-bow whilst he was attempting to shoot it. When he had reco- vered his health, which had suffered by the shock, he pursued the same plan of education in which he had been engaged: and having heard that one Ni- casius de Voorde, born blind, who lived towards the end of the 15th century, after having distin- guished himself by his studies in the university of Louvain, took his degree as D. D. in that of Co- logne, he resolved to make the same attempt. But the public, cursed with prejudices for which the meaneft sensitive nature might blush, preju- dices equally beneath the brutality and ignorance of the loweft animal inftinct, treated his intention with ridicule; even the profeffors themfelves were not far from being of the fame fentiment; and they admitted him into their fchools, rather from an impreffion that it might amufe him, than be- come of any ufe to him. He had the good for- tune, however, contrary to their expectations, to obtain the firft places among his condifciples. It was then faid, that fuch rapid advances might be made in the preliminary branches of his educa- tion; but would foon be effectually checked by ftudies of a more profound and abftracted nature. This, it feems, was repeated from fchool to fchool, through the whole climax of his purfuits; and when, in the courfe of academical learning, it became neceffary to ftudy poetry, it was the general voice that all was over, and at length he had reached his *ne plus ultra*. But here he likewife difappointed their prejudices, and taught them the immenfe difference between blindnefs of body and blindnefs of foul. After continuing his ftu- dies in learning and philofophy for two years more, he applied himfelf to law, took his degree in that fcience, commenced pleading counfellor

or advocate in the council of Brabant, and has had the pleaſure of terminating almoſt every ſuit in which he has been engaged to the ſatisfaction of his clients. The following anecdotes of Dr MOYES were not long ago preſented to the Manchester Society by Dr G. Bew, and afterwards publiſhed. "Dr Henry Moyes, who occaſionally read Lectures on Philoſophical Chemiſtry at Manchester, like Dr Saunderſon, the celebrated profeſſor of Cambridge, loſt his ſight by the ſmall-pox in his early infancy. He never recollected to have ſeen: 'but the firſt traces of memory I have (ſays he,) are in ſome confuſed ideas of the ſolar ſyſtem.' He had the good fortune to be born in a country where learning of every kind is highly cultivated, and to be brought up in a family devoted to learning. Poſſeſſed of native genius, and ardent in his application, he made rapid advances in various departments of erudition; and not only acquired the fundamental principles of mechanics, muſic, and the languages, but likewiſe entered deeply into the inveſtigation of the profounder ſciences, and diſplayed an acute and general knowledge of geometry, optics, algebra, aſtronomy, chemiſtry, and in ſhort of moſt of the branches of the Newtonian philoſophy. Mechanical exerciſes were the favourite employments of his infant years. At a very early age he made himſelf acquainted with the uſe of edged tools ſo perfectly, that notwithſtanding his entire blindneſs, he was able to make little wind-mills; and he even conſtructed a loom with his own hands, which ſtill ſhow the cicatrices of wounds he received in the execution of theſe juvenile exploits. By a moſt agreeable intimacy and frequent intercourſe which I enjoyed with this accompliſhed blind gentleman, whilſt he reſided at Manchester, I had an opportunity of repeatedly obſerving the peculiar manner in which he arranged his ideas and acquired his informaton. Whenever he was introduced into company, I remarked that he continued ſome time ſilent. The ſound directed him to judge of the dimenſions of the room, and the different voices of the number of perſons that were preſent. His diſtinctions in theſe reſpects was very accurate; and his memory ſo retentive, that he ſeldom was miſtaken. I have known him inſtantly recognize a perſon, on firſt hearing him ſpeak, though more than two years had elapſed ſince the time of their laſt meeting. He determined pretty nearly the ſtature of thoſe he was ſpeaking with by the direction of their voices; and he made tolerable conjectures reſpecting their tempers and diſpoſitions, by the manner in which they conducted their converſation. It muſt be obſerved, that this gentleman's eyes were not totally inſenſible to intenſe light. The rays refracted through a priſm, when ſufficiently vivid, produced certain diſtinguiſhable effects on them. The red gave him a diſagreeable ſenſation, which he compared to the touch of a ſaw. As the colours declined in violence, the harſhneſs leſſened, until the green afforded a ſenſation that was highly pleaſing to him, and which he deſcribed as conveying an idea ſimilar to what he felt in running his hand over ſmooth poliſhed ſurfaces. Poliſhed ſurfaces, meandering ſtreams, and gentle declivities, were the figures by which he expreſſed his ideas of beauty: Rugged rocks, irregula points, and boiſterous elements, furniſhed hin with expreſſions for terror and diſguſt. He ex celled in the charms of converſation; was happ in his alluſions to viſual objects; and diſcourſe on the nature, compoſition, and beauty of co lours, with pertinence and preciſion. Dr Moye was a ſtriking inſtance of the power the huma ſoul poſſeſſes, of finding reſources of ſatisfaction even under the moſt rigorous calamities. Thoug involved 'in ever during darkneſs,' and exclude from the charming views of ſilent or animated na ture; though dependent on an undertaking fo the means of his ſubſiſtence, the ſucceſs of whic was very precarious; in ſhort, though deſtitut of other ſupport than his genius, and under th mercenary protection of a perſon whoſe integrit he ſuſpected, ſtill Dr Moyes was generally chea ful, and apparently happy. Indeed it muſt affor much pleaſure to the feeling heart, to obſerve thi hilarity of temper prevail almoſt univerſally wit the blind. Though 'cut off from the ways o men, and the contemplation of the human fac divine,' they have this conſolation; they are ex empt from the diſcernment, and contagious influ ence of thoſe painful emotions of the ſoul, tha are viſible on the countenance, and which hypo criſy itſelf can ſcarcely conceal. This diſpoſitio likewiſe may be conſidered as an internal evidenc of the native worth of the human mind, that thu ſupports its dignity and chearfulneſs under one o the ſevereſt misfortunes that can poſſibly befal us.' There are few ſciences in which the blind hav not diſtinguiſhed themſelves: even thoſe whoſe ac quiſition ſeemed eſſentially to depend upon viſion have at laſt yielded to genius and induſtry, thoug deprived of that advantage. Profeſſor SAUNDER SON has left the moſt ſtriking evidences of aſtoniſh ing proficiency in thoſe abſtract branches of ma thematics, which appeared leaſt acceſſible to blin perſons. Sculpture is not the moſt practicable ar for a blind man, yet there are inſtances of perſons who have taken the figure of a face by the touch and moulded it in wax with the utmoſt exactneſs as was the caſe of the blind ſculptor mentione by De Piles, who thus took the likeneſs of th Duke de Bracciano in a dark cellar, and made marble ſtatue of K. Charles I. with great elegan and juſtneſs. (*Cours de Peint. p.* 329. *Wolf. Pſycho Rat.* § 162.) And, however unaccountable it ma appear to the abſtract philoſopher, yet nothing i more certain in fact, than that a blind man may by the efforts of a cultivated genius, exhibit i poetry the moſt natural images and animated de ſcriptions, even of viſible objects, without eithe incurring or deſerving the imputation of plagi ariſm. In muſic, there are, at preſent, living in ſtances how far the blind may proceed. In forme periods, we ſhall find illuſtrious examples, hov amply nature has capacitated the blind to excel both in the ſcientific and practical departments o muſic. In the 16th century, when the progre of improvement both in melody and harmon was rapid and conſpicuous, FRANCIS SALINA was eminently diſtinguiſhed. He was born A. D 1513, at Burgos in Spain; and was ſon to th treaſurer of that city. Though afflicted with in curable blindneſs, he was profoundly ſkilled bot

in the theory and practice of muſic. As a performer, he is celebrated by his cotemporaries with the higheſt encomiums. As a theoriſt, Sir John Hawkins ſays, his book is equal in value to any now extant in any language. Though he was deprived of ſight in his earlieſt infancy, he did not content himſelf to delineate the various phenomena in muſic, but the principles from whence they reſult, the relations of ſound, the nature of arithmetical, geometrical, and harmonical ratios, which were then eſteemed eſſential to the theory of muſic, with a degree of intelligence which would have deſerved admiration, though he had been in full poſſeſſion of every ſenſe requiſite into theſe diſquiſitions. He was taken to Rome in the retinue of Petrus Sarmentus, archbiſhop of Compoſtella; and having paſſed 20 years in Italy, he returned to Salamanca, where he obtained the profeſſorſhip of muſic, an office at that time equally reſpectable and lucrative. Having diſcharged it with reputation and ſucceſs for ſome time, he died at the venerable age of 77. In the ſame period flouriſhed CASPAR CRUMBHORN, blind from the 3d year of his age: yet he compoſed ſeveral pieces in many parts with ſo much ſucceſs, and performed both upon the flute and violin ſo exquiſitely, that he was diſtinguiſhed by Auguſtus elector of Saxony. But preferring his native country, Sileſia, to every other, he returned to it, and was appointed organiſt of the church of St Peter and Paul in Lignitz, where he had often the direction of the muſical college, and died June 11, 1621. To theſe might be added MARTIN PESENTI of Venice, a compoſer of vocal and inſtrumental muſic almoſt of all kinds, though blind from his nativity; with other examples equally worthy of public attention. But if vulgar prejudice is capable of bluſhing at its own contemptible character, or of yielding to conviction, thoſe already quoted are more than ſufficient to ſhow the muſical jugglers of our time, that their art is no monopoly, with which thoſe alone who ſee are inveſted, by the irreverſible decree of heaven. See farther, § 11—15.

(4) BLIND, EDUCATION OF THE. It is ſcarce poſſible to lay down a plan, or enter into a detail of particulars with reſpect to the education of the blind. Theſe muſt be determined by the genius, the capacity, and the circumſtances, of thoſe to whom the general rules ſhould be applied. Much therefore muſt depend on their fortunes, much on their temper and genius; for unleſs theſe particulars were known, every anſwer which could be given to queſtions of this kind muſt be extremely general, and of conſequence extremely ſuperficial. Beſides, the taſk is ſo much more arduous, becauſe whoever attempts it can expect to derive no aſſiſtance from thoſe who have written on education before him: And though the blind have excelled in more than one ſcience; yet, except in the caſe of Dr Saunderſon, (ſee § 7 & 15.) it does not appear, that any of them have been conducted to that degree of eminence, at which they arrived, upon a premeditated plan. One ſhould rather imagine, that they have been led through the general courſe and ordinary forms of diſcipline; and that, if any circumſtances were favourable to their genius, they rather proceeded from accident than deſign. This melancholy truth reflects no honour on human nature. When contemplated by a man of benevolence, it is not eaſy to gueſs whether his mortification or aſtoniſhment will be greateſt. A heart that glows with real philanthropy feels for the whole vital creation, and becomes, in ſome meaſure, the *ſenſorium* of every ſuffering inſect or reptile. How muſt our ſympathy increaſe then in tenderneſs and force, when the diſtreſſed individuals of our own ſpecies become its objects? Nor do the blind bear ſo ſmall a proportion to the whole community, as, even in a political view, to be neglected. But in this, as in every other political crime, the puniſhment returns upon the ſociety in which it is committed. Thoſe abandoned and unimproved beings, who, under proper culture and diſcipline, might have ſucceſsfully concurred in producing and augmenting the general welfare, become the nuiſances and burdens of thoſe very ſocieties who have neglected them. There is perhaps no claſs of beings in the ſenſible univerſe, who have ſuffered from nature or accident, more meritorious of public compaſſion, or better qualified to repay its generous exertions, than the blind. They are meritorious of compaſſion; for their ſphere of action and enjoyment is much more limited than that of the deaf, the lame, or of thoſe who labour under any other corporeal infirmity conſiſtent with health: although, on the other hand, it muſt be owned, that they are more capable of acquiring moſt branches of ſcience than thoſe born deaf. They are better qualified to repay any friendly interpoſition for their happineſs; becauſe, free from the diſtraction which attends that multiplicity of objects and purſuits, that are continually obvious to the ſight, they are more attentive to their own internal œconomy, to the particular notices of good and evil impreſſed on their hearts, and to that peculiar province in which they are circumſcribed, by the nature and cultivation of their powers. The moſt important view, which we can entertain in the education of a perſon deprived of ſight, is to redreſs, as effectually as we poſſibly can, the natural diſadvantages with which he is encumbered; or, in other words, to enlarge as far as poſſible the ſphere of his knowledge and activity. This can only be done by the improvement of his intellectual, imaginative, or mechanical, powers; and which of theſe ought to be moſt aſſiduouſly cultivated, the genius of every individual alone can determine. Were men to judge of things by their intrinſic natures, leſs would be expected from the blind than others. But, by ſome pernicious and unaccountable prejudice, people generally hope to find them either poſſeſſed of preternatural talents, or more attentive to thoſe which they have than others; thinking with Rocheſter,

> That if one ſenſe ſhould be ſuppreſs'd,
> It but retires into the reſt.

Hence it unluckily happens, that blind men, who in common life are too often regarded as *rareeſhows*, when they do not gratify the extravagant expectations of their ſpectators, frequently ſink in the general opinion, and appear much leſs conſiderable and meritorious than they really are. This general diffidence of their powers deprives them both

both of opportunity and ſpirit to exert themſelves; and they deſcend, at laſt, to that degree of inſignificance, in which the public eſtimate has fixed them. From the original dawning, therefore, of reaſon and ſpirit, the parents and tutors of the blind ought to inculcate this maxim upon them, That it is their indiſpenſible duty to excel, and that it is abſolutely in their power to attain a high degree of eminence. To impreſs this notion on their minds, the firſt objects preſented to their obſervation, and the firſt methods of improvement applied to their underſtanding, ought to be comprehenſible by thoſe internal powers and external ſenſes which they poſſeſs. Not that improvement ſhould be rendered quite eaſy to them. For all difficulties, which are not inſuperable, heighten the charms and enhance the value of thoſe acquiſitions which they ſeem to retard. But care ſhould be taken that theſe difficulties be not magnified or exaggerated; for the blind have a painful ſenſe of their own incapacity, and conſequently a ſtrong propenſity to deſpair. For this reaſon, parents and relations ought never to be too ready in offering their aſſiſtance to the blind in any office which they can perform, or in any acquiſition which they can procure for themſelves, whether they are prompted by amuſement or neceſſity. Let a blind boy be permitted to walk through the neighbourhood without a guide, not only though he ſhould run ſome hazard, but even though he ſhould ſuffer ſome pain. If he has a mechanical turn, let him not be denied the uſe of edge tools; for it is better that he ſhould loſe a little blood, or even break a bone, than be perpetually confined to the ſame place, debilitated in his frame, and depreſſed in his mind. Such a being can have no employment but to feel his own weakneſs, and become his own tormentor; or to transfer to others the peeviſhneſs ariſing from the natural, adventitious, or imaginary evils which he feels. Scars, fractures, and diſlocations in his body, are trivial misfortunes compared with imbecility, timidity, or fretfulneſs of mind. Beſides the dreadful effects, which inactivity has in relaxing the nerves and depreſſing the ſpirits, nothing can be more productive of jealouſy, envy, peeviſhneſs, and every paſſion that corrodes the ſoul to agony, than a painful impreſſion of dependence on others, and of our inſufficiency for our own happineſs. This impreſſion, which, even in his moſt improved ſtate, will be too deeply felt by every blind man, is redoubled by that utter incapacity of action, which muſt reſult from the officious humanity of thoſe, who would anticipate all his wants, who would prevent all his motions, who would do or procure every thing for him without his own interpoſition. Blind people, as well as others, may ſurvive their parents, and thoſe who, by the ties of blood and nature, are more immediately intereſted in their happineſs than the reſt of mankind. When, therefore, they fall into the hands of ſtrangers, ſuch exigencies, as they themſelves cannot redreſs, will be but coldly and languidly ſupplied by others. Their expectations will be high and frequent, their diſappointments many and ſenſible; their petitions will often be refuſed, ſeldom fully gratified; and, even when granted, the conceſſion will be ſo ungraceful, as to render its want infinitely more tolerable than its fruition. For all theſe reaſons, in the education of a blind man, it is better to direct than ſuperſede his own exertions. From the time that he can move and feel, let him be taught to ſupply his own exigencies; to dreſs and feed himſelf; to run from place to place, either for exerciſe, or in purſuit of his own toys or neceſſaries. In theſe excurſions, however, it will be proper for his parent or tutor to ſuperintend his motions at a diſtance, without ſeeming to watch over him. A vigilance too apparent, may impreſs him with a notion that ſome ſelfiſh motive may have produced it. When dangers are obvious and great, ſuch as from rivers, precipices, &c. thoſe who are entruſted with the blind need not make their vigilance a ſecret. They ought to acquaint their pupil, that they are preſent, and interpoſe for his preſervation, whenever his temerity renders it neceſſary. But objects of a nature leſs noxious, which may give him ſome pain without any permanent injury or mutilation, may even with deſign be thrown in his way; provided that this deſign be always induſtriouſly concealed. For his own experience of their bad effects will be a far more eloquent and ſenſible monitor, than the abſtract and frigid counſels of any adviſer whatever. The natural curioſity of children renders them extremely inquiſitive. This diſpoſition is often peculiarly prevalent in the blind. Parents and tutors, therefore, ſhould gratify it whenever their anſwers can be intelligible to the pupil; when it is otherwiſe, let them candidly confeſs the impoſſibility or impropriety of anſwering his queſtions. At this period, if their hearts be tender, and their powers inventive, they may render his amuſements the vehicles, and his toys the inſtruments of improvement: why, for inſtance, may not the centrifugal and centripetal forces be illuſtrated from the motion of a top, or the nature and power of elaſticity by the rebound of a ball? Theſe hints may lead to others, which, if happily improved, may wonderfully facilitate the progreſs of knowledge. Nor will the violence of exerciſe and the tumult of play, be productive of ſuch perils as may be apprehended. For the encouragement of parents, we can aſſure them, that though, till the age of 20, ſome blind perſon were on moſt occaſions permitted to walk, to run, to play at large, they have yet eſcaped without any corporeal injury from theſe excurſions. Parents in the middle, or higher ranks, who have blind children, ought, by all means, to keep them out of vulgar company. Such perſons often have a wanton malignity, which impels them to impoſe upon the blind, and to enjoy their painful ſenſations. This is a ſtricture upon the humanity of our ſpecies, which nothing but the love of truth and the dictates of benevolence could extort. Some have ſuffered ſo much from this diabolical mirth in their own perſons, that it is a duty to prevent others from becoming its victims. Blind people have infinitely more to fear from the levity and ignorance, than from the ſelfiſhneſs and ill nature of mankind. In ſerious and important affairs, pride and compaſſion ſuſpend the efforts of knavery or ſpleen; and that very infirmity, which ſo frequently renders the blind defenceleſs to the

fail, as to render its want infinitely more tolerable than its fruition. For all these reasons, in the education of a blind man, it is better to direct than supersede his own exertions. From the time that he can move and feel, let him be taught to supply his own exigencies; to dress and feed himself; to run from place to place, either for exercise, or in pursuit of his own toys or necessaries. In these excursions, however, it will be proper for his parent or tutor to superintend his motions at a distance, without seeming to watch over him. A vigilance too apparent, may impress him with a notion that some selfish motive may have produced it. When dangers are obvious and great, such as from rivers, precipices, &c. those who are entrusted with the blind need not make their vigilance a secret. They ought to acquaint their pupil, that they are present, and interpose for his preservation, whenever his temerity renders it necessary. But objects of a nature less [illegible] which may give him some pain without any permanent injury or mutilation, may even with design be thrown in his way; provided that the design be always industriously concealed. For his own experience of their bad effects will be a far more eloquent and sensible monitor, than the [illegible] dead and frigid counsels of any adviser whatever. The natural curiosity of children renders them extremely inquisitive. This disposition is also peculiarly prevalent in the blind. Parents and tutors, therefore, should gratify it whenever their answers can be intelligible to the pupil; when it is otherwise, let them candidly confess the impossibility or impropriety of answering his questions. At this period, if their hearts be tender, and their powers inventive, they may render his [illegible] means the vehicles, and his toys the instruments of improvement: why, for instance, may not centrifugal and centripetal forces be illustrated from the motion of a top, or the nature and power of elasticity by the rebound of a ball? These hints may lead to others, which, if happily improved, may wonderfully facilitate the progress of knowledge. Nor will the violence of exercise and the tumult of play, be productive of such perils as may be apprehended. For the encouragement of parents, we can assure them, that though, till the age of 20, some blind persons were on most occasions permitted to walk, to run, to play at large, they have yet escaped without any corporeal injury from these excursions. Parents in the middle, or higher ranks, who have blind children, ought, by all means, to keep them out of vulgar company. Such persons often have a wanton malignity, which impels them to impose upon the blind, and to enjoy their painful situations. This is a stricture upon the humanity of our species, which nothing but the love of truth could extort from us; and the dictates of benevolence so much from this diabolical [illegible] Some have suffered so much in their own persons, that it is a duty to prevent others from becoming its victims. Blind people have infinitely more to fear from the levity, mirth and ignorance, than from the selfishness and [illegible] nature of mankind. In serious and important affairs, pride and compassion suspend the efforts of knavery or spleen; and that very infirmity, which frequently renders the blind defenceless to the

terrors of the insidious, or to the attempts of malice, is a powerful incentive to pity, which is capable of disarming fury itself. Villainy, which frequently piques itself more upon the arts by which it prevails, than upon the advantages which it obtains, may often with contempt reject the blind, as objects below its operation; but the ill-natured buffoon considers the most malicious effects of his merriment as a mere jest, without reflecting on the shame or indignation which they inspire, when inflicted on a sensible temper. But the credulity and ignorance of the lower class are no less dangerous than their false wit. The illiterate have often a strong propensity to relate whatever is marvellous and dreadful. These impressions, when early imbibed, can scarcely be eradicated by all the conspiring efforts of mature reason and confirmed experience. Those philosophers who have attempted to break the alliance between darkness and spectres, were certainly inspired by laudable motives. Were we endued with senses to advertise us of every noxious object before its contiguity could render it formidable, our panics would probably be less frequent and sensible than we really feel them. Darkness and silence, therefore, have something dreadful in them, because they supersede the vigilance of those senses which give us the earliest notices of things. In talking, therefore, to a blind boy of invisible beings, let benevolence be an inseparable ingredient in their character. We may tell him of departed spirits, anxious for the welfare of their surviving friends; of ministring angels, who descend with alacrity from heaven to execute the purposes of their Maker's benignity; we may even regale his imagination with the sportive gambols and innocent frolics of fairies; but let him hear as seldom as possible, even in stories which he knows to be fictitious, of vindictive ghosts, vindictive fiends, or avenging furies. They seize and pre-occupy every avenue of terror which is open in the soul; nor are they easily dispossessed. Sooner may we hope to exorcise a ghost, than to obliterate their images in a warm and susceptible imagination, where they have been habitually impressed, and where their feelings cannot be dissipated by external phenomena. If horrors of this kind should agitate the heart of a blind boy, (which may happen notwithstanding the most strenuous endeavours to prevent it,) the stories which he has heard will be most effectually discredited by ridicule. This, however, must be cautiously applied, by gentle gradations. If he is inspired with terror by effects upon his senses, the causes of which he cannot investigate, pains must be taken to explain these phenomena, and to confirm that explication, wherever it can be done, by the testimony of his own senses and his own experience. The exercise of his locomotive and mechanical powers will greatly contribute to dispel these terrors. His intellectual faculties ought likewise to be indulged with the same freedom. The data which they require may be presented in such a manner, as to render discoveries easy: but still let invention be allowed to co-operate. The internal triumph which the mind feels from the attainment of new truths, heightens their charms, impresses them deep on the memory, and gives them a lasting influence in practice. There are people whose views and education have been strictly confined to one province, and whose conversation is of consequence limited and technical. These, in literary intercourse, or fashionable life, are branded with the name of *mere men of business*. Nor is it any wonder, that the conversation of such persons should prove exceedingly disgusting. It would be arrogance in them to expect, that indifferent persons should either enter into their private interests, or the peculiarities of their craft, with a warmth equal to their own. We have known the intrusion of such a person involve a numerous company in gloom, and terminate the freedom and vivacity of agreeable discourse, in lazy yawning and discontented silence. Of all innocent characters, this ought to be avoided by the blind; because, of all others, it is the character which they run the greatest hazard of adopting. The limitation of their powers naturally contracts their views and pursuits, and, as it were, concentres their whole intellectual faculties in one, or at best in a few objects. Care should therefore be taken to afford the mind a theatre for its exertions, as extensive as possible, without diverting it from one great end, which, in order to excel, it ought for ever to have in view.

(9.) Blind, employments proper for the. If the pupil be not in easy circumstances, music is his readiest and most profitable resource. Civil and ecclesiastical employments have either something in their own nature, or in the invincible prejudices of mankind, which renders them entirely inaccessible to such as have not the use of sight. No liberal and cultivated mind can entertain the least hesitation in concluding, that there is nothing, either in the nature of things, or even in the positive institutions of genuine religion, repugnant to the idea of a blind clergyman. But the novelty of the phenomenon, while it astonishes persons of contracted understandings, inflames their zeal to madness. Besides, the adventitious trappings and ceremonies, assumed by some churches as the drapery of religion, would, according to these systems, render the sacerdotal office painful, if not impracticable, to the blind. With regard to the law, were it not for a fact so striking and so well authenticated, as that of Dr Bacon, (See § 7.) though there could have been no doubt that a blind man might discharge the office of a chamber counsel with success; yet as a barrister, his difficulties must have appeared formidable, if not absolutely insuperable. For he must remember all the sources, whether in natural equity or positive institutions, whether in common or statutory law, from whence his arguments ought to be drawn. He must be able to specify, and to arrange in their proper order, all the material objections of his antagonists: these he must likewise answer as they are proposed, *extempore*. When, therefore, it is considered how difficult it is, to temper the natural associations of memory with the artificial arrangements of judgment, the desultory flights of imagination with the calm and regular deductions of reason, the energy and perturbation of passion with the coolness and tranquillity of deliberation; some idea may be formed of the arduous task which every blind man must achieve,

atchieve, who undertakes the law as a profeſſion. Perhaps aſſiſtances might be drawn from Cicero's treatiſe on Topics and on Invention; which if improved might leſſen the diſparity of a blind man to others, but could ſcarcely place him on an equal footing with his brethren. And it ought to be fixed as an inviolable maxim, that no blind man ought to engage in any province, in which it is not in his power to *excel*. For the conſciouſneſs of the obvious advantages poſſeſſed by others, habitually prediſpoſes a blind man to deſpondency; and if he ever gives way to deſpair (which he will be too apt to do, when purſuing any acquiſition, where others have a better chance of ſucceſs than himſelf,) adieu to all proficiency. His ſoul ſinks into irretrievable depreſſion; his abortive attempts inceſſantly prey upon his ſpirit; and he not only loſes that vigour and elaſticity of mind, which are neceſſary to carry him through life, but that patience and ſerenity which alone can qualify him to enjoy it. As to phyſic, the obſtacles which a blind man muſt encounter, both in the theory and practice of that art, will be eaſily conceived. If the blind muſt depend upon the exerciſe of their own powers for bread, we have already pointed out muſic as their eaſieſt and moſt obvious province; but let it be remembered, that mediocrity in this art may prove the bittereſt and moſt effectual curſe, which a parent can inflict upon his offſpring; as it ſubjects them to every vicious impreſſion or habit, which may be imbibed or contracted, from the loweſt and moſt abandoned of mankind. If your pupil, therefore, be not endowed with natural talents exquiſitely proper both for the theory and practice of this art, ſuffer him by no means to be initiated in it. If his natural genius favours your attempts, the ſpinet, harp, or organ, are the moſt proper inſtruments for him to begin; becauſe, by theſe inſtruments, he may be made more eaſily acquainted with the extent of muſical ſcales, with the powers of harmony, with the relations of which it is conſtituted, and of courſe with the theory of his art. It would be not only unneceſſary, but impracticable, to carry him deep into the theory, before he has attained ſome facility in the practice. Let, therefore, his head and his hands be taught to go *pari paſſu*.—Let the one be inſtructed in the ſimpleſt elements, and the others connected in the eaſieſt operations firſt: contemplation and exerciſe will produce light in the one and promptitude in the other.—But as his capacity of ſpeculation and powers of action become more and more mature, diſcoveries more abſtract and retired, taſks more arduous and difficult, may be aſſigned him. He ſhould be taught the names and gradations of the diatonic ſcale, the nature and uſe of time, the diverſity of modes whether ſimple or mixed. He ſhould be taught the quantity or value of notes, not only with reſpect to their pitch, but to their duration. Yet let him be inſtructed not to conſider theſe durations as abſolutely fixed, but variable according to the velocity of the movements in which they are placed. Thus we reckon a ſemibreve equal to 4 vibrations of a pendulum; a minim to 2; a crochet to 1, &c. But if the number of aliquot parts, into which a ſemibreve is divided, be great, conſequently the value of each particular part ſmall, the minim, crotchet, quaver, &c. will increaſe in their intrinſic durations, though they muſt always preſerve the ſame proportions relatively one to another. He ſhould never be habituated to take a piece of muſic, either from the ſound of a voice or an inſtrument. His companion ought to read the muſic by the names and values of its characters, with the ſame exactneſs as the words in any other language. When he becomes a conſiderable adept in the art, tangible ſigns may be uſed, (See § 16.) by which he may not only be enabled to read, but even to ſet muſic for himſelf. Such exerciſes will render him infinitely more accurate, both in his principles and practice, than he would otherwiſe be.

(10.) BLIND, EXERCISES, DIET, &c. PROPER FOR THE. When the volatile ſeaſon of puerile amuſement is expired, and the impetuous hurry of animal ſpirits ſubſides, the tutor will probably obſerve in his pupil a more ſenſible degree of timidity and precaution, and his activity will then require to be ſtimulated more than reſtrained. In this criſis, exerciſe will be found requiſite, rather to preſerve health, and facilitate the vital functions than merely for recreation. Of all kinds of exerciſe, riding on horſeback, is by far the moſt eligible. Care, however, muſt be taken that the horſes employed be neither capricious nor unmanageable; for on this not only his ſafety, but his confidence, will entirely depend. In all his excurſions, his attendant ought conſtantly to be with him; and the horſe ſhould always either be tangled implicitly to follow its guide, or be conducted by a leading rein beſides the bridle which he himſelf holds. Next to this mode of exerciſe is walking. If the conſtitution of the blind boy be tolerably robuſt, let him be taught to endure every viciſſitude of weather, which the human ſpecies can bear with impunity. For if he has been bred with too much delicacy, particular accidents may ſuperſede all his former ſcruples, and ſubject him to the neceſſity of ſuffering, what will not only be ſevere in its ſenſation, but dangerous in its conſequence. Yet, when the cold is ſo intenſe, or the element ſo tempeſtuous, as to render air and exerciſe abroad impracticable, there are methods of domeſtic exerciſe, which may be practiſed; ſuch as dumb bells, or the bath chair. The firſt of theſe are made of lead, conſiſting of a cylinder, the middle of which may either be rectilineal or arcuated for the conveniency of holding, and terminates at each end in a ſemiglobular maſs. The weight ſhould be conformed to the ſtrength of the perſon who uſes them. The method of employing them is to take one in each hand, and ſwing them backwards and forwards over his head, deſcribing a figure ſomewhat like a parabola. This not only ſtrengthens the arms, and opens the cheſt, but promotes the circulation of the fluids. The bath chair is a deal 12 feet in length, as free from knots and as elaſtic as poſſible, ſupported by a fulcrum at each end, upon which may be placed two rolling cylinders to give it greater play; when ſeated upon this, by alternately depreſſing it with his own weight, and ſuffering it to return to its natural ſituation, he gives himſelf a motion, ſomewhat reſembling the trot of a horſe. The elaſtic chair is of ſtill greater utility, eſpecially to one in a valetudinar-

ſtudinary ſtate. It conſiſts of 3 falſe bottoms, and one real, which is the baſis of the whole.—The loweſt is by far the moſt extenſive. The higheſt is ſtuffed to render it eaſy, and covered with pluſh, baize, or duffle. Between each of the falſe bottoms, at either end, behind and before, are placed ſteel ſprings, fixed above and below to the boards; with ſtaples, and curved in a ſpiral or ſerpentine form, each conſiſting of 7 ſpires; which are formed in ſuch a manner, that one of them can paſs through another, and thus give the ſprings full play in riſing or deſcending. The loweſt bottom or baſis of the whole is protruded about 4 inches; which aſſiſts one to mount the ſeat with more facility, and ſerves as a ſupport for the feet in riding. The operation is performed by alternately depreſſing and raiſing one's ſelf upon the ſeat; ſo that the ſprings yielding to the weight when the perſon deſcends, and reſiſting when he riſes, give a motion like that of the deal, but more violent, more rapid, and conſequently more ſalutary. The whole frame of the ſeat is ſurrounded with leather, having different apertures to admit or eject the air occaſioned by the motion. Theſe general hints are ſufficient to give any ingenious artiſan an idea of the nature and ſtructure of the machine, which he may alter or improve as conveniency ſhall dictate. To theſe modes of domeſtic exerciſe may be added that of a ſwing, which is formed by a rope ſuſpended from two ſcrews, which ought to be ſtrongly fixed at proper diſtances, in the joiſts of a capacious chamber, with a board and a cuſhion for a ſeat, and cords faſtened behind and before, leſt the impetuoſity of the motion ſhould ſhake the patient out of his poſition. The blind, in diet as well as in exerciſe, ſhould neither be mechanically regular, nor entirely excentric. In the one caſe, he will be a ſlave to habit, which may create ſome inconvenience; in the other, he will form no habits at all, which may ſtill be productive of greater. The blind being liable to all the inconveniences of a ſedentary life, are peculiarly ſubjected to that diſorder, called *tædium vitæ*, or low ſpirits. This indiſpoſition may be ſaid to comprehend in it all the other evils of human life; becauſe, by its immediate influence on the mind, it aggravates the weight and bitterneſs of every calamity to which we are obnoxious. Parents and tutors, therefore, cannot be too careful in obſerving and obviating the firſt ſymptoms of this impending plague. If the limbs of a blind child or pupil be tremulous; if he be apt to ſtart, and eaſily ſuſceptible of ſurpriſe; if he finds it difficult to ſleep; if his ſlumbers, when commenced, are frequently interrupted and attended with perturbation; if his ordinary exerciſes appear to him more terrible and inſuperable than uſual; if his appetites become languid and his digeſtion ſlow; if agreeable occurrences give him leſs pleaſure, and adverſe events more pain than they ought to inſpire;—theſe are the criſis of vigorous interpoſition. A proper ſtrengthening diet, and moderate exerciſe are the beſt preventives of this evil, and perhaps its beſt remedies when unhappily incurred. Animal food affords the moſt proper nutriment, as being of eaſy digeſtion; better too, if done upon the ſpit or gridiron: neither ſhould it be too fat: beef, mutton, or fowls, arrived at maturity, give the ſtomach leaſt labour, and are moſt nutritive. Of all vegetable ſubſtances, white bread is perhaps the only ingredient which may be eat with impunity; and even this would ſtill be ſafer were it prepared without fermentation. Eggs may be eat by people in low ſpirits, even at ſupper, with great advantage. Herbs and roots are not only extremely flatulent, but productive of that ſharp acid for which magneſia is the beſt remedy. Patients of this deſcription ſhould rather be frequent than liberal in their meals, and ſcrupulouſly careful of all heterogeneous mixtures. Their moſt eligible beverage, except ſimple water, is port wine, if they can afford it, as being leaſt convertible into that poignant fluid: porter likewiſe, if not ſtale, may, by its ſtrength and bitterneſs, aſſiſt the action of the ſtomach. Neither of theſe fermented liquors ſhould be taken in large quantities; let nature be ſatisfied, and no more; for if the ſpirits are unnaturally elated, they will ſink proportionably when the ſtimulus ceaſes to operate. The moderate uſe of genuine rum or brandy, properly diluted, when the other liquors cannot be had, may be productive of good effects. In deſperate caſes opium may be uſed with advantage, if properly ſupported by a nutritive diet. See MEDICINE, INDEX. Tea is prohibited by ſome phyſicians, but others think, if not drank too warm, or in too great quantities, it is rather beneficial, as it exhilarates the ſpirits, without inducing that ſinking which follows the liberal uſe of higher ſtimuli. Care ſhould be taken that the patient may never be too much warmed, either by cloaths or exerciſe, eſpecially when in bed.—Exertions of body, particularly in the open air, are indiſpenſably neceſſary for promoting digeſtion and acquiring ſtrength; but ſhould never be carried to fatigue. The mind ſhould likewiſe be diverted from attention to itſelf and its diſorder, by reading and converſation. But diſcernment and delicacy are requiſite, that theſe may neither be too cheerful nor too ſerious, for the ſtate of the mind.

(11.) BLIND GUIDES, INSTANCES OF. Authors of good credit mention a very ſurpriſing blind guide who uſed to conduct the merchants through the ſands and deſarts of Arabia. See *Leo Afric. Deſcr. Afr. lib.* vi. *p.* 246. and *Caſaub. Treat. of Enthuſ. c.* ii. *p.* 45. Dr Bew, in the *Tranſact of the Manchester Society*, mentions an inſtance not leſs marvellous, in our own country. "John Metcalf, a native of the neighbourhood of Manchester, where he is well known, became blind at a very early age, ſo as to be entirely unconſcious of light and its various effects. This man paſſed the younger part of his life as a waggoner, and occaſionally as a guide in intricate roads during the night, or when the tracks were covered with ſnow. Strange as this may appear to thoſe who can ſee, the employment he has ſince undertaken is ſtill more extraordinary: it is one of the laſt to which we could ſuppoſe a blind man would ever turn his attention. His preſent occupation is that of a projector and ſurveyor of highways in difficult and mountainous parts. With the aſſiſtance only of a long ſtaff, I have ſeveral times met this man traverſing the roads, aſcending precipices, exploring valleys, and inveſtigating their ſeveral exte-

extents, forms, and situations, so as to answer his designs in the best manner. The plans which he designs, and the estimates he makes, are done in a manner peculiar to himself; and which he cannot well convey the meaning of to others. His abilities in this respect are nevertheless so great, that he finds constant employment. Most of the roads over the Peak in Derbyshire, have been altered by his directions; particularly those in the vicinity of Buxton: and he is at this time constructing a new one betwixt Wilmeslow and Congkton, with a view to open a communication to the great London road, without being obliged to pass over the mountains."

(12.) BLIND, INVENTIONS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE. See § 15—18.

(13.) BLIND LADY, SURPRISING ACQUISITIONS OF A. In the *Annual Register* for 1762, the following narrative is inserted. "A young gentlewoman of a good family in France, now in her 18th year, lost her sight when only two years old, her mother having been advised to lay some pigeons blood on her eyes, to preserve them in the small-pox; whereas, so far from answering the end, it eat into them. Nature, however, may be said to have compensated for the unhappy mistake, by beauty of person, sweetness of temper, vivacity of genius, quickness of conception, and many talents which certainly much alleviate her misfortune. She plays at cards with the same readiness as others of the party. She first prepares the packs allotted to her, by pricking them in several parts; yet so imperceptibly, that the closest inspection can scarce discern her indexes. She sorts the suits, and arranges the cards in their proper sequence, with the same precision, and nearly the same facility, as they who have their sight. All she requires of those who play with her, is to name every card as it is played; and these she retains so exactly, that she frequently performs some notable strokes, such as show a great combination and strong memory. The most wonderful circumstance is, that she should have learned to read and write; but even this is readily believed on knowing her method. In writing to her, no ink is used, but the letters are pricked down on the paper; and by the delicacy of her touch, feeling each letter, she follows them successively, and reads every word with her finger ends. She herself in writing makes use of a pencil, as she could not know when her pen was dry; her guide on the paper is a small thin ruler, and of the breadth of her writing. On finishing a letter, she wets it, so as to fix the traces of her pencil, that they are not obscured or effaced; then proceeds to fold and seal it, and write the direction: all by her own address, and without the assistance of any other person. Her writing is very straight, well cut, and the spelling no less correct. To reach this singular mechanism, the indefatigable cares of her affectionate mother were long employed, who accustomed her daughter to feel letters cut in cards or paste-board, brought her to distinguish an A from a B, and thus the whole alphabet, and afterwards to spell words; then, by the remembrance of the shape of the letters, to delineate them on paper; and, lastly, to arrange them so as to form words and sentences. She has learned to play on the guitar, and has even contrived a way of pricking down the tunes as an assistance to her memory. So delicate are her organs, that in singing a tune, though new to her, she is able to name the notes. In figured dances she acquits herself extremely well, and in a minuet with inimitable ease and gracefulness. As for the works of her sex, she has a masterly hand; she sews and hems perfectly well; and in all her works she threads the needles for herself, however small. By the watch her touch never fails telling her exactly the hour and minute."

(14.) BLIND LADY, VERY EXTRAORDINARY CASE OF ANOTHER. This lady had been afflicted with the confluent small pox. "In the course of this disease, during which she had been attended by the late Sir Hans Sloane, several threatening symptoms appeared, which however were at length overcome; and the patient being thought out of danger, took several doses of such purgative medicines as are usually administered in the decline of the disease, without any bad consequence. But in the evening of the day, on which she had taken the last dose that was intended to be given her, she was suddenly seized with pains and convulsions in the bowels; the pain and other symptoms became gradually less violent as the force of the medicine abated, and by such remedies as were thought best adapted to the case, they seemed at length to be entirely subdued. They were, however, subdued only in appearance; for at eleven o'clock A. M. next day they returned with great violence, and continued some hours; when they went off, they left the muscles of the lower jaw so much relaxed, that it fell down, and the chin was supported on the breast. The strength of the patient was so much exhausted during this paroxysm, that she lay near two hours with no other signs of life than a very feeble respiration, which was often so difficult to be discerned, that those about her concluded she was dead. From this time the fits returned periodically every day, at about the same hour. At first they seemed to affect her nearly in the same degree; but at length all the symptoms were aggravated, the convulsions became more general, and her arms were sometimes convulsed alternately; it also frequently happened, that the arm which was last convulsed remained extended and inflexible some hours after the struggles were over. Her neck was often twisted with such violence, that the face looked directly backwards, and the back part of the head was over the breast; the muscles of the countenance were also so contracted and writhed by the spasms, that the features were totally changed, and it was impossible to find any resemblance of her natural aspect by which she could be known. Her feet were not less distorted than her head; for they were twisted almost to dislocation at the instep, so that she could not walk but upon her ancles. To remove or mitigate these deplorable symptoms, many remedies were tried; and, among others, the cold bath: but either by the natural effect of the bath, or by some mismanagement in the bathing, the unhappy patient first became blind, and soon afterwards deaf and dumb. It is not easy to conceive what could increase the misery of deafness, dumbness, blindness, and frequent paroxysms of excruciating pain; yet a very considerable

conſiderable aggravation was added; for the loſs of her ſight, her hearing, and her ſpeech, was followed by ſuch a ſtricture of the muſcles of her throat, that ſhe could ſwallow no kind of aliment either ſolid or liquid. It might reaſonably be ſuppoſed that this circumſtance, though it added to the degree of her miſery, would have ſhortened its duration: yet in this condition ſhe continued near three quarters of a year: and during that time was ſupported by chewing her food only; which having turned often, and kept long in her mouth, ſhe was obliged at laſt to ſpit out.—Liquors were likewiſe gargled about in her mouth for ſome time; and then returned in the ſame manner, no part of them having paſſed the throat by an act of diglutition: ſo that whatever was conveyed into the ſtomach, either of the juices or the ſolid food, or of liquids, was either gradually imbibed by the ſpongineſs of the parts which they moiſtened, or trickled down in a very ſmall quantity along the ſides of the veſſels. But there were other peculiarities in the caſe of this lady, yet more extraordinary. During the privation of her *ſight* and *hearing*, her *touch* and her *ſmell* became ſo exquiſite, that ſhe could diſtinguiſh the different colours of ſilk and flowers, and was ſenſible when any ſtranger was in the room with her. After ſhe became blind, and deaf, and dumb, it was not eaſy to contrive any method by which a queſtion could be aſked her, and an anſwer received. This however was at laſt effected, by talking with the fingers, at which ſhe was uncommonly ready. But thoſe who converſed with her in this manner, were obliged to expreſs themſelves by touching her hand and fingers inſtead of their own. A lady who was nearly related to her, having an apron on, that was embroidered with ſilk of different colours, aſked her, in the manner which has been deſcribed, if ſhe could tell what colour it was? and after applying her fingers attentively to the figures of the embroidery, ſhe replied, that it was red, and blue, and green; which was true. The ſame lady having a pink coloured ribbon on her head, and being willing to go further to ſatisfy her curioſity and her doubts, aſked what colour that was? Her couſin, after feeling ſome time, anſwered that it was pink colour: this anſwer was yet more aſtoniſhing, becauſe it ſhowed not only a power of diſtinguiſhing different colours, but different kinds of the ſame colour; the ribbon was not only diſcovered to be red, but the red was diſcovered to be of the pale kind called a *pink*. This unhappy lady, conſcious of her own uncommon infirmities, was extremely unwilling to be ſeen by ſtrangers, and therefore generally retired to her chamber, where none but thoſe of the family were likely to come. The ſame relation, who had by the experiment of the apron and ribbon diſcovered the exquiſite ſenſibility of her *touch*, was ſoon after convinced by an accident, that her power of *ſmelling* was acute and refined in the ſame highly aſtoniſhing degree. Being one day viſiting the family, ſhe went up to her couſin's chamber, and after making herſelf known, ſhe intreated her to go down, and ſit with her among the reſt of the family, aſſuring her, that there was no other perſon preſent; to this ſhe at length conſented, and went down to the parlour door; but the moment the door was opened, ſhe turned back, and retired to her own chamber much diſpleaſed; alledging that there were ſtrangers in the room, and that an attempt had been made to deceive her; it happened indeed that there were ſtrangers in the room; but they had come in while the lady was above ſtairs, ſo that ſhe did not know that they were there. When ſhe had ſatisfied her couſin of this particular, ſhe was pacified; and being afterwards aſked how ſhe knew there were ſtrangers in the room, ſhe anſwered, by the ſmell. But though ſhe could by this ſenſe diſtinguiſh in general between perſons with whom ſhe was well acquainted and ſtrangers, yet ſhe could not ſo eaſily diſtinguiſh one of her acquaintance from another without other aſſiſtance. She generally diſtinguiſhed her friends by feeling their hands; and when they came in, they uſed to preſent their hands to her, as a mean of making themſelves known; the make and warmth of the hand produced in general the differences that ſhe diſtinguiſhed; but ſometimes ſhe uſed to ſpan the wriſt, and meaſure the fingers. A lady, with whom ſhe was very well acquainted, coming in one very hot day, after having walked a mile, preſented her hand as uſual; ſhe felt it longer than ordinary, and ſeemed to doubt whoſe it was; but after ſpanning the wriſt, and meaſuring the fingers, ſhe ſaid, 'It is Mrs M. but ſhe is warmer to-day than ever I felt her before.' To amuſe herſelf in the mournful and perpetual ſolitude and darkneſs to which her diſorder had reduced her, ſhe uſed to work much at her needle; and it is remarkable, that her needle-work was uncommonly neat and exact; among many other pieces of her work that are preſerved in the family, is a pin-cuſhion, which can ſcarcely be equalled. She uſed alſo ſometimes to write; and her writing was yet more extraordinary than her needle-work; it was executed with the ſame regularity and exactneſs; the characters were very pretty, the lines were all even, and the letters placed at equal diſtances from each other; but the moſt aſtoniſhing particular of all, with reſpect to her writing, is, that ſhe could by ſome means diſcover when a letter had by miſtake been omitted, and would place it over that part of the word where it ſhould have been inſerted, with a caret under it. She uſed to ſit up in bed at any hour of the night, either to write or to work, when her pain or any other cauſe kept her awake. Theſe circumſtances were ſo very extraordinary, that it was long doubted, whether ſhe had not ſome faint remains both of hearing and ſight, and many experiments were made to aſcertain the matter; ſome of theſe experiments ſhe accidently diſcovered, and the diſcovery always threw her into violent convulſions. The thought of being ſuſpected of inſincerity, or ſuppoſed capable of acting ſo wicked a part, as to feign infirmities that were not inflicted, was an addition to her miſeries which ſhe could not bear, and which never failed to produce an agony of mind, not leſs viſible than thoſe of her body. A clergyman who found her one evening at work by a table with a candle upon it, put his hat between her eyes and the candle, in ſuch a manner that it was impoſſible ſhe could receive any benefit from the light of it, if ſhe had

had her ſight. She continued ſtill at her work, with great tranquillity; till, putting up her hand ſuddenly to rub her forehead, ſhe ſtruck it againſt the hat, and diſcovered what was doing; upon which ſhe was thrown into violent convulſions, and was not without great difficulty recovered. The family were by theſe experiments, and by ſeveral accidental circumſtances, fully convinced that ſhe was totally deaf and blind; particularly by ſitting unconcerned at her work, during a dreadful ſtorm of thunder and lightning, though ſhe was then facing the window, and always uſed to be much terrified in ſuch circumſtances. But Sir Hans Sloane, her phyſician, being ſtill doubtful of the truth of facts which were ſcarce leſs than miraculous, he was permitted to ſatisfy himſelf by ſuch experiments and obſervations as he thought proper; the iſſue of which was, that he pronounced her to be abſolutely deaf and blind. She was at length ſent to Bath, where ſhe was in ſome meaſure relieved; her convulſions being leſs frequent, and her pains leſs acute; but ſhe never recovered her ſpeech, her ſight, or her hearing in the leaſt degree. Many of the letters dated at Bath, in ſome of which there are inſtances of interlineations with a caret, the writer of this narrative hath ſeen; and they are now in the cuſtody of the widow of one of her brothers, who with many other perſons, can ſupport the facts here related, however wonderful, with ſuch evidence as it would not only be injuſtice, but folly to diſbelieve."

(15.) BLIND LITERATI, METHODS OF CALCULATION INVENTED BY. Of profeſſor Sanderſon's method of calculation, both in arithmetic and algebra, there is a full and circumſtantial detail, given by Mr Diderot in his *Letter concerning the Blind, for the uſe of thoſe who ſee*, which we ſhall here quote. "It is much eaſier, to uſe ſigns already invented, than to become their inventor; as one is forced to do, when engaged in circumſtances for which he is not provided. Of what advantage might not this be to Sanderſon, to find a palpable arithmetic already prepared for him at 5 years of age, which he might otherwiſe have felt the neceſſity of inventing for himſelf at the advanced period of 25? This Sanderſon, Madam, is an author deprived of ſight, with whom it may not be foreign to our purpoſe to amuſe you. They relate prodigies of him; and of theſe prodigies there is not one, which his progreſs in the belles lettres, and his mathematical attainments, do not render credible. The ſame inſtrument ſerved him for algebraical calculations, and for the conſtruction of rectilineal figures. You would not perhaps be ſorry that I ſhould give you an explication of it, if you thought your mind previouſly qualified to underſtand it: and you ſhall ſoon perceive that it preſuppoſes no intellectual preparations of which you are not already miſtreſs; and that it would be extremely uſeful to you if you ſhould ever be ſeized with the inclination of making long calculations by touch. Imagine to yourſelf a ſquare, ſuch as you ſee Plate XL. fig. 1. divided into 4 equal parts by perpendicular lines at the ſides, in ſuch a manner, that it may preſent you the 9 points, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. Suppoſe this ſquare pierced holes capable of receiving pins of two kinds, all of equal length and thickneſs, but ſome with heads a little larger than the others. The pins with large heads are never placed any where elſe but in the centre of the ſquare; thoſe with ſmaller heads never but at the ſides, except in one ſingle caſe, which is that of making the figure 1, where none are placed at the ſides. The ſign of 0 is made by placing a pin with a large head in the centre of the little ſquare, without putting any other pin at the ſides. See fig. 2. The number 1 is repreſented by a pin with a ſmall head placed in the centre of the ſquare, without putting any other pin at the ſides: the number 2, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 1: the number 3, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 2: the number 4, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 3: the number 5, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 4: the number 6, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 5: the number 7, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and a pin with a ſmall head placed in one of the ſides at the point 6: the number 8, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 7: the number 9, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 8. Here are plainly ten different expreſſions obvious to the touch, of which every one anſwers to one of our ten arithmetical characters. Imagine now a table as large as you pleaſe, divided into ſmall ſquares, horizontally ranged, and ſeparated one from the other at ſimilar diſtances, as you ſee it in fig. 3. Thus you will have the inſtrument of Sanderſon. You may eaſily conceive that there is not any number which one cannot expreſs upon this table; and, by conſequence, no arithmetical operation which one cannot execute upon it. Let it be propoſed, for inſtance, to find the ſum, or to work the addition of the 9 numbers following.

1	2	3	4	5
2	3	4	5	6
3	4	5	6	7
4	5	6	7	8
5	6	7	8	9
6	7	8	9	0
7	8	9	0	1
8	9	0	1	2
9	0	1	2	3

"I expreſs them on the table in the order as they are dictated to me; the firſt figure at the left of the firſt number, upon the firſt ſquare to the left of the firſt line; the 2d figure, to the left of the firſt number, upon the 2d ſquare to the left of the ſame line; and ſo of the reſt. I place the 2d number upon the 2d row of ſquare, units beneath units, and tens beneath tens, &c. I

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Inventions for the Improvement of blind Persons. Pl. XL.

Fig. 1.

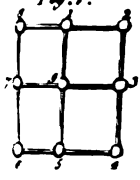


Fig. 2.

Fig. 4.

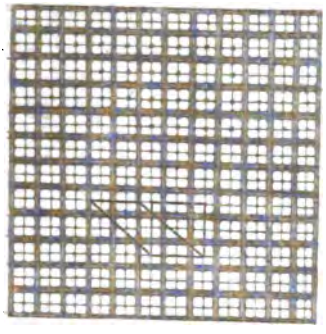


Fig. 3.

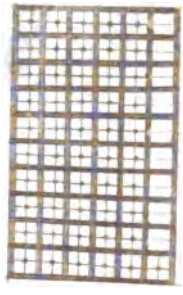


Fig. 5.

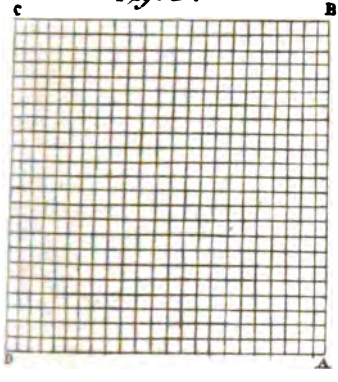


Fig. 6.

Fig. 7.

Fig. 8.

Fig. 10. Binacle.

Fig. 9.

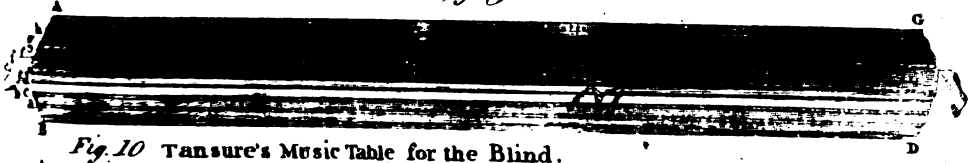
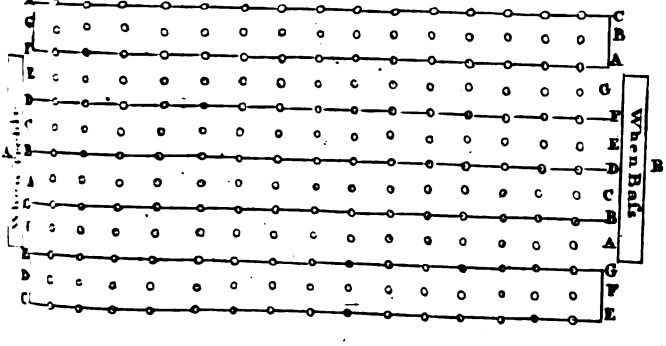
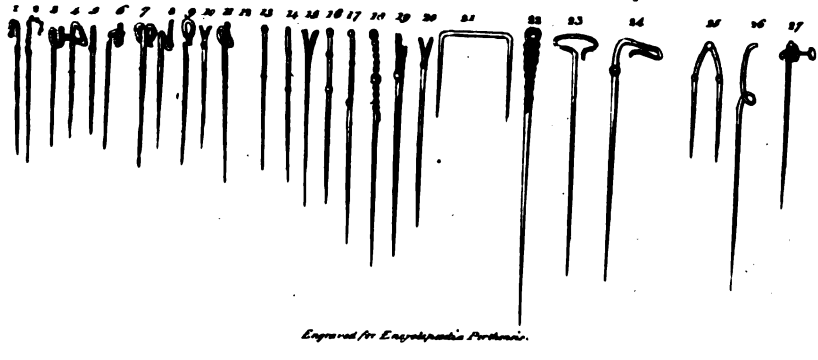


Fig. 10 Tansure's Music Table for the Blind.





Engraved for Encyclopaedia Perthensis.

place the 3d number upon the 3d row of squares, and ſo of the reſt. Then with my fingers running over each of the rows vertically from the bottom to the top, beginning with that which is neareſt to my right, I work the addition of the numbers which are expreſſed, and mark the ſurplus of the tens at the foot of that column. I then paſs to the 2d column, advancing towards the left; upon which I operate in the ſame manner; from thence to the 3d; and thus in ſucceſſion, till I finiſh my addition. We ſhall now ſee how the ſame table ſerved him for demonſtrating the properties of rectilineal figures. Let us ſuppoſe this propoſition to be demonſtrated, That parallelograms, which have the ſame baſis and the ſame height, are equal in their ſurfaces. He placed his pins as may be ſeen in fig. 4. He gave names to the angular points, and finiſhed his demonſtration with his fingers. If we ſuppoſe that Saunderſon only employed pins with large heads to mark the limits of his figures, around theſe he might arrange his pins with ſmall heads in 9 different manners, all of which were familiar to him. Thus he ſcarcely found an embarraſſment, but in thoſe caſes where the great number of angular points, which he was under a neceſſity of naming in his demonſtration, obliged him to recur to the letters of the alphabet. We are not informed how he employed them. We only know, that his fingers ran over the board with aſtoniſhing agility; that he undertook with ſucceſs the longeſt calculations; that he could interrupt the ſeries, and diſcover his miſtakes; that he proved them with the greateſt eaſe; and that his labours required infinitely leſs time than one could have imagined, by the exactneſs and promptitude with which he prepared his inſtruments and diſpoſed his table. This preparation conſiſted in placing pins with large heads in the centres of all the ſquares: having done this, no more remained for him but to fix their values by pins of ſmaller heads, except in caſes where it was neceſſary to mark an unit; then he placed in the centre of a ſquare, a pin with a ſmall head, with which it had been occupied. Sometimes, inſtead of forming an entire line with theſe pins, he contented himſelf with placing ſome of them at all the angular points, or points of interſection; around which he tied ſilk threads, which finiſhed the formation of the limits of his figures." See fig. 4. It may be added by way of improvement, that for the diviſion of one ſeries of numbers from another, a thin piece of timber in the form of a ruler with which lines are drawn, having a pin at each end for the holes in the ſquares, might be employed between the two ſeries to be diſtinguiſhed. By the notation above exhibited every modification of number may be expreſſed, and conſequently every arithmetical operation ſucceſsfully performed; but there is another form of decimal arithmetic, equally comprehenſive, and much more ſimple than that of Saunderſon, originally invented, and ſtill uſed in calculation, by Mr Henry Moyes; a gentleman, whoſe uncommon attainments we have already endeavoured to celebrate. See § 7. In a letter addreſſed to the editor of *Encyclopædia Britannica*, the Dr gives the following brief account of a palpable notation, which he has uſed for theſe 29 years, to aſſiſt his memory in numerical computations. "When I began to ſtudy the principles of arithmetic, which I did at an early period of life, being unacquainted with the writings of Saunderſon, in which a palpable notation is deſcribed, I embraced the obvious, though imperfect expedient of cutting into the form of numerical characters thin pieces of wood or metal. By arranging theſe on the ſurface of a board, I could readily repreſent any given number, not only to the touch, but alſo to the eye; and by covering the board with a lamina of wax, my ſymbols were prevented from changing their places, they adhering to the board from the ſlighteſt preſſure. By this contrivance, I could ſolve, though ſlowly, any problem in the ſcience of numbers: but it ſoon occurred to me, that my notation, conſiſting of 10 ſpecies of ſymbols or characters, was much more complicated than was abſolutely neceſſary, and that any given number might be diſtinctly expreſſed by 3 ſpecies of pegs alone. To illuſtrate my meaning, let A, B, C, D, (fig. 5.) repreſent a ſquare piece of mahogany a foot broad and an inch in thickneſs; let the ſides A B, B C, C D, D A, be each divided into 24 equal parts; let every two oppoſite diviſions be joined by a groove cut in the board ſufficiently deep to be felt with the finger, and let the board be perforated at each interſection, with an inſtrument a tenth of an inch in diameter. The ſurface of the board being thus divided into 576 little ſquares, with a ſmall perforation at each of their angles, let 3 ſets of pegs or pins, reſembling thoſe repreſented in the plate at the figures 6, 7, 8, be ſo fitted to the holes in the board, that when ſtuck into them they may keep their poſitions like thoſe of a fiddle, and require ſome force to turn them round. The head of each peg belonging to the firſt ſet is a right-angled triangle, about one tenth of an inch in thickneſs; the head of each peg belonging to the 2d ſet differs only from the former, in having a ſmall notch in its ſloping ſide, or hypothenuſe; and the head of each peg belonging to the 3d ſet is a ſquare, of which the breadth ſhould be equal to the baſe of the triangle of the other two. Theſe pegs ſhould be kept in a caſe conſiſting of 3 boxes or cells, each cell being allotted to a ſet, and the caſe muſt be placed cloſe by the board previous to the commencement of every operation. Each ſet ſhould conſiſt of 60 or 70 pegs (at leaſt when employed in long calculations); and when the work is finiſhed, they ſhould be collected from the board and carefully reſtored to their reſpective boxes. Things being thus prepared, let a peg of the firſt ſet be fixed into the board, and it will acquire 4 different values according to its poſition reſpecting the calculator. When its ſloping ſide is turned towards the left, it denotes 1, or the firſt digit; when turned upwards, or from the calculator, it denotes 2, or the 2d digit; when turned to the right, it repreſents 3; and when turned downwards, or towards the calculator, it denotes 4, or the 4th digit. Five is denoted by a peg of the ſecond ſet, having its ſloping ſide or hypothenuſe turned to the left; 6, by the ſame turned upwards; 7, by the ſame turned to the right; and 8, by the ſame turned directly down, or towards

wards the body of the calculator. Nine is expreſſed by a peg of the 3d ſet when its edges are directed to right and left; and the ſame peg expreſſes the cypher when its edges are directed up and down. By three different pegs the relative values of the ten digits may therefore be diſtinctly expreſſed with facility; and by a ſufficient number of each ſet, the ſteps and reſult of the longeſt calculation may be clearly repreſented to the ſenſe of feeling. It ſeems unneceſſary to illuſtrate this by an example; ſuffice it to expreſs in our characters the preſent year of the Chriſtian æra 1788: Take a peg of the firſt ſet, and fix it in the board with its ſloping ſide turned towards the left equal to one; take a new peg of the 2d ſet and fix it in the next hole in the ſame groove, proceeding as uſual from left to right, with its ſloping ſide turned to the right equal to 7; next take a peg of the ſame ſet and fix it in the next hole, with its ſloping ſide turned downwards, equal to 8; laſtly, take another peg of the ſame ſet and place it in the next hole in the ſame poſition, equal to 8; and the whole will expreſs the number required. When it is neceſſary to expreſs a vulgar fraction, I place the numerator in the groove immediately above, and the denominator in that immediately below the groove in which the integers ſtand; and in decimal arithmetic an empty hole in the integer groove repreſents the comma or decimal point. By ſimilar breaks I alſo denote pounds, ſhillings, pence, &c. and by the ſame expedient I ſeparate in diviſion the diviſor and quotient from the dividend. This notation, which ſupplies me completely with coefficients and indices in algebra and fluxions, ſeems much ſuperior to any of the kind hitherto made public in the weſt of Europe. That invented and deſcribed by Mr Grenville, having no leſs than ten ſets of pegs, is by much too complicated for general practice; and that which we owe to the celebrated Saunderſon is apt to puzzle and embarraſs the calculator, as the pegs repreſenting the numerical digits can ſeldom or never be in the ſame ſtraight line."

(16.) BLIND, METHODS OF INSTRUCTING THE, IN MUSIC. There is a hint of tangible ſigns for teaching muſic, in Tanſure's Muſical Grammar, p. 93. which, though (like the reſt of the book) obſcure and indigeſted, may be improved and applied with advantage. We have therefore inſerted his MUSIC TABLE, in *Plate* XL. *Fig.* II. and ſhall here quote his explanation. "Let A—B be a ſmooth board, 3 or 4 feet long, 1 inch thick, and 9 inches wide, with 5 ſquare ledges glued thereon, each being half an inch aſunder, half an inch wide, and half an inch high; which riſing ledges repreſent our 5 lines of muſic, and their ſpaces: and the two outward lines being made a little lower, may ſerve as leger lines, on occaſion. The cyphers repreſent ſo many holes bored into every line and ſpace, half an inch aſunder; wherein *pegs* of different ſhapes are to be ſet, to repreſent the ſeveral ſorts of notes and characters of the tune: which pegs the blind perſon may know by feeling, as well as he does his keys of the organ or harpſichord: ſo that, by keeping his fingers on the 5 lines, he feels the ſeveral pegs as they come, and are ſet to repreſent the ſeveral ſorts of notes, on both line and ſpace; whilſt his right hand ſtrikes the reſpective key, &c. he firſt knowing the names of all his keys, his lines, ſpaces and the mark of every peg. Let each peg be about half an inch high, when ſet in very faſ [N. B. The blind perſon muſt firſt be taught the names of the above lines and ſpaces in both the treble and baſs cliffs; and that he muſt feel his treble with his right hand, and his baſs with the left hand; each being contrary, as you may ſee by the letters of the above table, A and B; and muſt learn each part ſeparate.] Of pegs, he muſt have a great number of every ſort, to ſet his tune with, which he may mark as follows: For a *Semibreve*, 4 top-notches.—*Minim*, 2 top-notches.—*Crotchet*, 1 top-notch.—*Quaver*, 1 corner cut off.—*Semiquaver*, 2 corners cut off.—*Demiſemiquaver*, all 4 corners cut off.—*Reſts*, a notch in the corner.—A *Flat*, 1 notch on the ſide.—*Sharp*, 2 notches on the ſide.—*Point*, 3 notches on the ſide.—*Bar*, a flat thin top.—*Repeat*, a ſharp-pointed top, &c. &c. &c. But it is beſt for every performer to make and mark his own pegs; and deliver them one by one as they are called for by the perſon that ſets his *tune*." Such is Mr Tanſure's plan of Muſical Notation. It is, however, imperfect, and perhaps every table of the kind may be liable to the ſame cenſure, as not being comprehenſive of all the characters in the written language of muſic ſo that the blind rather may find no deficiency in acquiring any leſſon. Mr CHEESE's *Cuſhion* appears to have more powers than any other inſtrument hitherto invented for the ſame purpoſe; and therefore though it is alſo attended with formidable objections, we here inſert his deſcription of it. It may poſſibly, however, be beſt for every blind adept in the muſical art, after being ſufficiently inſtructed in its theoretical and practical principles, to invent for himſelf a table, by which may be expreſſed all the various phenomena of muſic; in which, by varying the forms and poſitions of his pegs, he may habitually aſſociate them with ſounds, durations, reſts, intervals, chords, cadences, da capos, repeats, and all the various graces which give animation and expreſſion to muſical ſounds: for thus, being the immediate creatures of his own imagination, they will eaſily become familiar to his memory, and be more ſtrongly and readily aſſociated with the phenomena which they are intended to expreſs, than the inventions of any other. Mr Cheeſe's machine (ſee *Plate* XL. *Fig.* 9.) is intended, in "teaching muſic to people deprived of ſight, to enable them to preſerve their compoſitions, in the act of compoſing, without the aſſiſtance of a copyiſt."—"That part of the machine, which repreſents the book, or paper, is a ſmall cuſhion ſtuffed, on a little frame; along which, is ſewed a number of pack-thread ſtrings at equal diſtances from each other; theſe repreſent the lines in a muſic book: the five which compoſe the ſtave are made of large twine; and thoſe which repreſent the leger or occaſional lines, drawn through the heads of the notes, where the muſic exceeds the compaſs of the eſtabliſhed ſtave, are made of ſmall twine, and are on this machine of the ſame length as the others. If the practitioner only wiſhes to write harpſichord muſic, the cuſhion may be ſhort leng

length he pleaſes, and about five or ſix inches wide: the ſtrings muſt be ſewed in the following order: beginning with the firſt or loweſt, near the edge of the cuſhion; 4 ſmall ones, which correſpond with the notes in the baſe of the inſtrument ff, rr, cc, ee: Next five large ones, for the ſtave which correſpond with the lines in the book, or notes in the inſtrument, g, b, d, f, r; one ſmall one, which repreſents the occaſional line between the baſe and treble, or middle c; 5 large ones for the treble ſtave, which make the notes e, g, b, d, f; 3 ſmall ones, which repreſent the leger lines when the muſic goes in alt. Theſe provide for the note a in alt, c in alt, and e in alt; in the ſpace above which, next the edge of the cuſhion, the f in alt is wrote, when it is wanting, which completes the compaſs of the inſtrument. Thoſe who only ſing or play on ſingle inſtruments, ſuch as violins, &c. ſhould have their cuſhions not above half the width of thoſe before-mentioned, upon which there ſhould be but one ſtave, and that in the following order:—Two ſmall lines at bottom, 5 large ones in the middle, and 3 ſmall ones at top. Neither of the outſide lines of theſe ſmall cuſhions ſhould be ſewed cloſe to the edge, as there are notes ſuppoſed above and below. At either end of theſe ſmall cuſhions, there ſhould be a ſmall wire ſtaple, in order that any number of them may be combined together at pleaſure, by running a rod through the ſtaples: this will enable the practitioner to write what muſicians call SCORE, in any number of parts he pleaſes; and by this means a thorough knowledge of the great works of Handel, and all other claſſical authors, may be acquired, as well without ſight as with it. The characters uſed to write on this machine are pins; ſome with 2, 3, or more heads; others bent in different forms—ſome, the heads taken off and the top beat flat; ſome of theſe are ſplit; others the heads taken off, and placed near the middle. The bars are pieces of wire crooked at each end; a double bar is made by placing two ſingle ones cloſe together; a double ſharp and double flat in the ſame manner. The characters are kept in a box in the ſame ſtyle as a printer keeps his types; each different compartment of which muſt be marked with a character in writing, ſignifying what each, contained in the ſeveral compartments, is intended to repreſent. That the maſter may be acquainted with them, the ſtudent muſt be taught to diſtinguiſh each of the characters contained in the box by the ſight, as well as the names of each line and ſpace over the cuſhion. When he can do this readily, the muſic ſhould be read to him, which it will be well for him to copy on the cuſhion: and when that is filled, let it be laid on the deſk of the harpſichord before him; and then by feeling over a paſſage or ſentence at a time, and afterwards playing it, his playing always commencing with the beginning of the piece, or at ſome particular part of it, this will ſoon enable him to recollect the whole, when the hands are taken off the cuſhion, to play what has been laſt felt. One of thoſe characters, called a direct, muſt be placed againſt the note to be next felt: This will enable the ſtudent to go on again, after playing, without any difficulty. The perſon who reads the muſic, muſt be inſtructed not to call the lines or ſpaces by the letters which diſtinguiſh them, leſt confuſion may enſue, every eighth being the ſame; but muſt read in the following manner: firſt the name of the character muſt be mentioned, whether minim, crotchet, or quaver, &c. then the line or ſpace; as for example, minim on the firſt line, crotchet on the firſt ſpace, quaver on the ſecond, &c. &c. When the muſic exceeds the compaſs of the ſtave, it muſt be particularly mentioned whether above or below, firſt calling the character, then the leger line or ſpace. The technical term at the beginning of each piece, is better remembered than wrote down on the machine: The accidental terms, which are beſt marked by placing ſome character, not much uſed, either above or below the note on which it happens, the ingenious mind will find out a method of doing for itſelf. This machine will not only teach muſic; but, calling the characters letters, any one will be enabled to ſpell, read, or write down his ſentiments on any ſubject, and even convey them to his friend without the aſſiſtance of a ſecretary. Arithmetic may be alſo taught upon this machine; as by calling the dot 1, and the pauſe 10, a complete ſet of figures will be formed. EXPLANATION *of the figures:* A, B, C, D, the form of the cuſhion, which in its full ſize is about 3 feet long, and 5½ inches wide, having thereon a repreſentation of muſical notes, ſhown by different pins ſtuck on it. The lines a, b, c, d, e, are of large packthread; and the lines, f, g, h, are of ſmall twine. Pins; N° 1. A ſemibreve. 2. A ſemibreve reſt. 3. A minim. 4. A minim reſt. 5. Dots. 6. A crotchet. 7. A crotchet reſt. 8. A quaver. 9. A quaver reſt. 10. A ſharp. 11. A ſemiquaver. 12. A ſemiquaver reſt. 13. A demiquaver. 14. A demiquaver reſt. 15. A flat. 16. A demiſemiquaver 17. A demiſemiquaver reſt. 18. A ſemidemiquaver. 19. A ſemidemiquaver reſt. 20. A natural. 21. Bars. 22. A direct. 23. A tye. 24. Baſs. 25. Tenor cliff. 26. Treble cliff. 27. A repeat. 28. Pauſe. 29. This character placed on any line or ſpace, ſignifies as many notes on that line or ſpace as there are doubles on the pins; if turned upwards, it implies the ſame number aſcending; if downward, that number deſcending. 30. A beat or inverted ſhake. 31. A ſhake; and where there is a dot placed over it, ſignifies a turned ſhake. Two dots placed over each other, above the notes, without this character, ſignify a turn only. 32. This character is uſed over the note to ſignify *forte;* and if a dot is placed above it, *fortiſſimo:* if the dot is placed above the note and below the character, it implies *creſcendo;* if the character is placed below the note, it ſignifies *piano;* and if a dot is placed under it, *pianiſſimo;* but if the dot is above the character, and below the note, it ſignifies *diminuendo.* In concertos, the inventor uſes the ſame character placed above the note in the ſame manner, with two dots over it to ſignify *toote;* and below the notes, with two dots under it to ſignify *ſolo:* in vocal muſic, the ſame character above the notes, with three dots over it, ſignifies *ſymphony;* and below the notes, with three dots under it, ſignifies *ſong.*" When playing concertos, or performing in *ſcore*, the blind muſt depend upon memory, and upon memory alone; but happily their retentive powers are remarkably ſtrong; and there

are few pieces in muſic which will be found either too intricate to be acquired, or too long to be remembered, by a perſon deprived of ſight. Mr Stanley performs what is ſtill more aſtoniſhing: He accompanies any leſſon with a thorough baſs, though he never has heard it before. We have never yet heard of any perſon, though bleſſed with the full uſe of ſight, who could thus anticipate harmony before the chords were ſounded, and accompany it in a manner ſuitable to its nature. When the pupil becomes a more profound theoriſt, he may be farther inſtructed by Rameau, in his principles of compoſition; by D'Alembert, and by Rouſſeau's Muſical Dictionary: (ſee MUSIC.) Or, if he be perſuaded of the neceſſity of geometry in muſic, (which ſome think frivolous,) he may peruſe Dr Smith's Philoſophical Principles of Harmony, Malcolm's Eſſay, Treydell's Theory and Practice of Muſic; or *The Principles and Power of Harmony;* an illuſtration of Tartini's theory.

(17.) BLIND, NEW FRENCH PLAN FOR IMPROVING THE. A work has been lately publiſhed at Paris which ſuperſedes every former attempt to promote or facilitate the improvement of the blind. The invention of a plan ſo arduous in its appearance and ſo practicable in its execution, demanded the higheſt exertions of the nobleſt genius to produce it, and the moſt ſtrenuous efforts of indefatigable humanity to render it effectual. It is intitled, "An Eſſay on the Education of the Blind." Its object is to teach them, by palpable characters impreſſed on paper, not only the liberal arts and ſciences, but likewiſe the principles of mechanical operation, in ſuch a manner, that thoſe who have no genius for literary improvement may yet become reſpectable, uſeful, and independent members of ſociety, in the capacity of common artiſans. By theſe tangible ſignatures they are taught to read, to write, and to print; they are likewiſe inſtructed in geometry, in algebra, geography, and, in ſhort, in every branch of natural philoſophy. Nor are their efforts circumſcribed by mere utility; a taſte for the fine arts has likewiſe been cultivated among them. They have been taught to read muſic with their fingers, as others do with their eyes; and though they cannot at once feel the notes and perform them upon an inſtrument, yet they are capable of acquiring any leſſon with, as much exactneſs and rapidity, as thoſe who enjoy all the advantages of ſight. In the firſt chapter of this work, the author points out the end propoſed by that culture which he offers to the blind; it is to enlarge their ſphere of knowledge, to increaſe their capacities and improve their powers of action, ſo that they may become happy and independent in themſelves, and uſeful and agreeable to others. The 2d chapter contains an anſwer to the objections againſt the general utility of this inſtitution. The 3d treats of reading as adapted to the practice of the blind. The 4th conſiſts of anſwers to various objections againſt the method of reading propoſed. In the 5th is ſhown the art of printing, as practiſed by the blind, for their peculiar uſe. In the 6th is deſcribed the manner of teaching the blind the art of printing for thoſe that ſee. In the 7th is preſented the manner of teaching the blind to

The 8th explains the method of teaching the blind arithmetic; the 9th, geography; the 10th, muſic. The 11th, contains an account of the mechanic arts in which the blind are employed, and of the way by which they are formed for ſuch occupations. The 12th ſhows in general the proper manner of inſtructing the blind, and draws a parallel between their education and that of the deaf and dumb. The 13th treats of the method of inſtructing them in the languages, mathematics, hiſtory, &c. The book next contains notes illuſtrating each chapter; an account of the riſe, progreſs, and preſent ſtate, of the academy for the formation of the blind; an ode on the cultivation of the blind, by one labouring under that affliction; an extract from the regiſter of the royal academy of ſciences; opinion of the printers; models of the various pieces which blind children are capable of printing; and an account of the exerciſes performed by blind children, in the preſence of the late unfortunate king, queen, and royal family, during the Chriſtmas ſolemnities in 1786. The manner in which the blind print is thus deſcribed: The blind compoſitor has a box for every alphabetical character in uſe; on the outſide of theſe boxes are palpably marked the peculiar character belonging to each; they are filled with types, which he chooſes and ſets as they are called for, inverted. He then takes a piece of the ſtrongeſt paper that can be found, which he gently moiſtens in a degree ſufficient to render it more eaſily ſuſceptible of impreſſions, without being dilacerated or worn by the ſhock which it muſt undergo. He then lays it upon the types; and by the cautious operation of the preſs, or by the eaſy ſtrokes of a little hammer, which are frequently repeated over the whole expanſe, he cauſes the impreſſion of the type to riſe on the oppoſite ſide of the paper, where, when dry, it continues not only obvious to the ſight but the touch, and is far from being eaſily effaced. On the upper ſide of the paper the letters appear in their proper poſition, and, by their ſenſible elevation above the common ſurface, render it practicable for the blind to read them with their fingers. Their manner of writing is analogous to this operation: the pupil, by repeated experiments, having familiariſed himſelf to the forms of the letters, both in their inverted and proper poſitions, gradually learns to delineate them upon paper, moiſtened as before, with the point of an iron pen, which has no ſplit, and which is juſt ſharp enough to impreſs without piercing the paper: thus, on the ſide next to the writer's hand, the letters are formed ſunk and inverted; but when the paper is turned they appear right and in relievo. Thus the blind are enabled to form and decypher, not only the characters required in common language, but alſo mathematical diagrams, arithmetical and geographical proceſſes, and all the characters uſed in writing muſic. All theſe wonders they have performed with ſucceſs, to the univerſal ſatisfaction of numberleſs ſpectators whom curioſity and compaſſion impelled to viſit the academy, to behold a ſpectacle ſo intereſting to humanity. The above quoted work is printed and bound by the blind themſelves. They exhibit at their own academy every Wedneſday and Saturday between one and two o'clock, P. M. to crowds of charitable admirers,

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the blind arithmetic; the 9th, geography; the 10th, music. The 11th, contains an account of the mechanic arts in which the blind are employed, and of the way by which they are formed to such occupations. The 12th shows in general the proper manner of instructing the blind, and draws a parallel between their education and that of the deaf and dumb. The 13th treats of the method of instructing them in the languages, mathematics, history, &c. The book next contains notes illustrating each chapter; an account of the rise, progress, and present state, of the academy for the instruction of the blind; an ode on the cultivation of the blind, by one labouring under that affliction; an extract from the register of the royal academy of sciences; opinion of the printers; models of the various pieces which blind children are capable of printing; and an account of the exercises performed by blind children, in the presence of the late unfortunate king, queen, and royal family, during the Christmas solemnities in 1786. The manner in which the blind print is thus described: The blind compositor has a box for every alphabetical character in use; on the outside of these boxes are palpably marked the peculiar characters belonging to each; they are filled with types which he chooses and sets as they are called for, inverted. He then takes a piece of the strongest paper that can be found, which he gently moistens in a degree sufficient to render it more easily susceptible of impressions, without being dilacerated or worn by the shock which it must undergo. He then lays it upon the types; and by the cautious operation of the press, or by the easy strokes of a little hammer, which are frequently repeated on the whole expanse, he causes the impression of the type to rise on the opposite side of the paper, where, when dry, it continues not only obvious to the sight but the touch, and is far from being easily effaced. On the upper side of the paper the letters appear in their proper position, and by their sensible elevation above the common surface render it practicable for the blind to read them with their fingers. Their manner of writing is analogous to this operation: the pupil, by repeated experiments, having familiarised himself with the forms of the letters, both in their inverted and proper positions, gradually learns to delineate them upon paper, moistened as before, with the point of an iron pen, which has no split, and which is just sharp enough to impress without piercing the paper: thus, on the side next to the writer's hand, the letters are formed sunk and inverted; but when the paper is turned they appear right and in relievo. Thus the blind are enabled to form and decypher, not only the characters required in common language, but also mathematical diagrams, arithmetical and geographical processes, and all the characters used in music. All these wonders they have performed with success, to the universal satisfaction of numberless spectators whom curiosity and compassion impelled to visit the academy, to behold a spectacle so interesting to humanity. The above quoted work is printed and bound by the blind themselves. They exhibit at their own academy every Wednesday and Saturday between one and two o'clock, P. M. to crowds of charitable admirers,

by whose liberal donations the institution is chiefly supported.

(vi.) BLIND, OTHER STUDIES PROPER FOR THE. In the higher parts of mathematics, such as conic sections, the same solid figures which are mediums of perception to those who see, may perform the same useful office to the blind. But, for the structure of superficial figures, bees wax, or some such matter might be used, soft enough to be easily susceptible of impressions, yet hard enough to retain them till effaced by an equal pressure.—Suppose, for instance, a table were formed, 4 feet broad, and 5 long; for the figures, that they may be the more sensible to the touch, ought to be larger than ordinary. Suppose this table had brims, or a moulding round it, rising an inch above the surface: let the whole expanse, then, be filled with bees wax, and the surface above pressed extremely even with a polished board, formed exactly to fit the space within the mouldings. This board will always be necessary to efface the figures employed in former propositions, and prepare the surface for new ones. This method of delineating geometrical truths, upon such a table, appears the best and least troublesome apparatus which a blind man can use; and general ideas of geography or topography might be conveyed to him in the same manner, by spheres composed of, or covered with the same impressible matter. The knowledge of astronomy might also be of infinite use, both by enlarging the blind person's ideas of the universe, and by giving him higher and more exalted impressions of that energy by which the stars are moved, and of that design by which their motions are regulated. But these objects are too vast; their distances, their magnitudes, their periods of revolution, are too complex to be comprehended in the mind, or impressed on the memory, without sensible mediums. For this purpose an orrery, or some machine of a similar construction, will be indispensably requisite. The science of causes and effects might likewise yield him the most sublime and rational entertainment of which an intelligent being, in his present state, is susceptible. By this he might enter into the laws, the vicissitudes, the œconomy of nature.—Nor is it absolutely necessary that he should be an actual witness of the experiments by which these laws are explained. He may safely take them for granted; and if, at any time, a particular experiment should prove faithless, he may from general principles, be able to discover its fallacy, whether in the nature of the subject, the inaptitude of the instruments, or the process of the execution. The laws of motion, the various ratios or proportions of forces, whether simple or compound, he may calculate and ascertain, by the same methods so happily used by Sanderson, (See § 15.) Philological learning is also attainable by the blind in a high degree. The acquisition of different languages adds to the treasure of our ideas, and renders those which we possess more clear and definite. The technical terms of almost every science are exotic; and without clearly understanding them, we cannot properly possess the ideas of which they are the vehicles. The paths of grammar, however, are dry and rugged; and it will be necessary for the teacher, whoever he is, to take all the opportunities that offer of polishing the asperities of the road. When therefore the intellect of the pupil begins to exert its penetration, it will be proper to show him how the nature, the forms, and arrangements, of words, flow from our ideas and their relations. Every substance must naturally be in some state; it must either act, or be acted upon. The actions which it performs or suffers must be performed or suffered in some definite manner or degree. It must likewise have some qualities, whether temporary and accidental, or natural and permanent. These qualities must likewise be susceptible of degrees. When different substances are considered in the same state, its common participation forms a connection: when regarded in different states, that difference forms an opposition. The constant repetition of the names of substances and qualities produces a disagreeable monotony in language.—They must therefore be implied in other words, which likewise in some cases serve to connect the parts of a sentence. There is a difference between such words as imply the connection of states and circumstances. Actions to be performed or suffered may be either positively affirmed of any substance, or merely attributed to them. Living and percipient substances have immediate sensations of pain or pleasure, which likewise are productive of desire and aversion. To these sentiments particular sounds are adapted, whether immediately inspired by nature, or resulting from association. Thus we have a foundation for all the different parts of speech; and from their natures and offices, their forms and arrangements may be deduced, according to the analogy of every language. The art of reasoning, the knowledge of history, and a taste for the *belles lettres*, are easily attainable by the blind; and as they are copious funds of entertainment, they should be inculcated, though at the expence of care and labour. Moral and theological knowledge he may obtain, either from books, or instructions delivered *viva voce*. The last, if communicated by one who understands and feels the subject, with a proper degree of perspicuity and sensibility, are by far the most eligible. By morals we would not merely be understood to mean a regular and inculpable series of action, but the proper exertion and habitual arrangement of the whole internal œconomy, of which external actions are no more than mere expressions, and from which the highest and most permanent happiness alone can proceed.—By theology, we mean those sublime and liberal ideas of the nature and government of a Supreme Being, whether discoverable by nature or revealed in Scripture, which enforce every moral obligation, which teach us what is the ultimate good of our nature, and determine our efforts and animate our hopes in pursuing this most important of all objects. What Cicero says of the arts and sciences may with great propriety be applied to religion: *Nam cætera neque temporum sunt*, &c. "For other studies are not suited to every time, to every age, and to every place: but these give strength in youth, and joy in old age; adorn prosperity, and are the support and consolation of adversity; at home they are delightful, and abroad they are easy; at night they are company to us;

when we travel they attend us; and in our rural retirements, they do not forſake us." To this may be added, that the joys of religion are for ever adequate to the largeſt capacity of a finite and progreſſive intelligence; and as they are boundleſs in extent, ſo they are endleſs in duration.—We have already obſerved (§ 10,) that a blind man is extremely obnoxious to melancholy and dejection. Where, therefore, can he find a more copious, intimate, permanent, and efficacious ſource of comfort than in religion? Let this then be inculcated with the utmoſt care and aſſiduity. Let the whole force of the ſoul be exerted in ſhowing him that it is reaſonable. Let all the nobleſt affections of the heart be employed in recommending it as amiable; for we will venture to aſſert, that the votary of religion alone is the man,—

"Whom, though with nature's wreck oppreſs'd,
Unmanly fears could ne'er inſeſt."

(19.) BLIND PERSONS, HINTS TO THE RELATIONS OF, AND APOSTROPHE TO THE PUBLIC RESPECTING. The relations of perſons ſubjected to this misfortune, if in eaſy circumſtances, will find it highly conducive to the improvement of their charge, to ſelect ſome one among his coevals, of a ſound underſtanding, a ſweet and patient temper, a docile mind, a warm heart, and a communicative diſpoſition. Theſe two ſhould be taught to find their intereſt and happineſs in their connection one with another. Their bed, their board, their walks, their entertainments, their leſſons, ſhould be common. Theſe are the beſt eyes with which art can endow a blind man: and if properly ſelected, they will on ſome occaſions yield very little, in utility and perfection, to thoſe of nature; nay, at ſome junctures they may be preferable. When the ſituation of the blind, and its natural effects upon their characters, are conſidered; when we reflect how exquiſite their diſtreſſes, how pungent their diſappointments, how ſenſible their regrets, how tedious and gloomy their periods of ſolitude; we muſt be wretches indeed, if we can grudge either labour or expence in procuring them every ſource of inſtruction and entertainment; which, when procured, remains in their own power, and yields what may be in ſome meaſure termed *ſelf-derived enjoyment*. Theſe are prolific of numberleſs advantages; they afford us at once entertainment and exertion; they teach us to explore a thouſand reſources for preſervation and improvement; and they render us awake and ſenſible to a thouſand notices both of external and intellectual objects, which would otherwiſe have completely eſcaped our attention.—You who are parents of ſuch unfortunate perſons, do not, by a brutal negligence and inſenſibility, render the exiſtence which you have given a curſe to its poſſeſſors. Do not give them reaſon to upbraid your memory; and to anſwer thoſe, who aſk what patrimony you have left them, that their ſole inheritance was ignorance, incapacity, and indigence. But it is not the parents and relations alone of the blind, who are culpable if they are neglected. The blind have a right to demand from ſociety, Whether it is more humane and e- , that ſuch unhappy perſons ſhould be ſuffered to languiſh out their lives in torpid obſcurity, wretched in themſelves and burdenſome to others; or to cultivate and improve their powers in ſuch a manner, that they may be qualified for internal enjoyment and public utility? Surely there is not a human being, who does not diſgrace the works of God, if he can be at any loſs to anſwer this queſtion. Have not the blind then a right to call the world to account? Have they not a right to demand, what rational being ſuſceptible of felicity in themſelves, and capable of transfuſing happineſs through the ſocieties with whom they are connected, ſhould be abandoned to a ſtate of inſignificance and miſery? Is it poſſible, that men who are every moment ſubjected to the ſame contingencies, with which they beſtold their fellow-creatures afflicted, ſhould not with all their ſouls endeavour to alleviate the misfortunes of their ſuffering brethren? Is the native and hereditary portion of human woe ſo light and ſupportable in itſelf, that we ſhould neglect and deſpiſe thoſe to whom it is embittered by accidental circumſtances of horror and diſtreſs? You men of wealth and eminence, you whom Providence has rendered conſpicuous on the theatre of nature, to whom it has given the nobleſt opportunities of participating the divine beatitude, by the exerciſe of univerſal benevolence and genuine patriotiſm; yours is the glorious province of bringing neglected merit from obſcurity, of healing the wounds inflicted by adverſe fortune, and of cultivating thoſe talents, which may be exerted for your own advantage, and the honour of your ſpecies. Thus you ſhall riſe in the heraldry of heaven, and your names diffuſe a luſtre through the extent of ſpace, and the archives of eternity. Otherwiſe the temporary glare and parade of your ſituation can produce nothing but a deſpicable mimicry of real and intrinſic greatneſs, and are no more than a ſplendid maſk to cover what in itſelf is infamous or deteſtable.

(20.) BLIND, PROBABLE EFFECTS OF LIGHT ON PERSONS BORN. Much labour has been beſtowed to inveſtigate, both from reaſon *à priori* and from experiment, what might be the primary effects of light and luminous objects upon ſuch as have been born blind, or early deprived of ſight, if at a maturer period they ſhould inſtantaneouſly recover their viſual powers. But upon this topic there is much reaſon to fear, that nothing ſatisfactory has yet been ſaid. The fallacy of hypotheſis and conjecture, when formed *à priori* with reſpect to any organ of corporeal ſenſation and its proper object, is too obvious to demand illuſtration. But from the nature of the eye, and the mediums of its perception, to attempt an inveſtigation of the various and multiform phenomena of viſion, or even of the varieties, of which every particular phenomenon is ſuſceptible, according as the circumſtances of its appearance are diverſified, would be a project worthy of philoſophy in a delirium. Nay, even the diſcoveries which are ſaid to accrue from experiment, may ſtill be held as extremely doubtful and ſuſpicious; becauſe in theſe experiments it does not appear to have been aſcertained, that the organs to which viſible objects were preſented immediately after chirurgical operations, could be in a proper ſtate to perceive them. (See ANATOMY, § 584—588.) There are, however, many deſiderata, which the perception

ceptions of a man born blind might conſiderably illuſtrate, if his inſtruments of viſion were in a right ſtate, and aſſiſted by a proper medium. Such a perſon might perhaps give a clearer account, why objects, whoſe pictures are inverted upon the retina of the eye, ſhould appear to the mind in their real poſitions; or why, though each particular object is painted upon the retina of both our eyes, it ſhould only be perceived as ſingle. Perhaps, too, this new ſpectator of viſible nature might equally amuſe our curioſity and improve our theory, by attempting to deſcribe his earlieſt ſenſations of colour, and its original effects upon his organ and his fancy. But it is far from being certain, that trials of this kind have ever been fairly made. Thoſe, who wiſh to ſee a more minute detail of theſe queſtions, may conſult M. Diderot's *Lettre ſur les aveugles, a l'uſage de ceux qui voyent:* "A letter concerning the blind, for the uſe of thoſe who ſee." To theſe may be added, *Mr Cheſelden's Anatomy*, and *Locke's Eſſay on the human underſtanding*.

(11.) BLIND, SOCIETIES FOR THE RELIEF OF THE. It is with pleaſure we can add to the above ſtructures, (§ 19.) that the care and education of the blind are now become objects of public attention, and that reſpectable ſocieties have been inſtituted within theſe few years in this country, as well as in France, to promote theſe laudable objects. That they may proſper, muſt be the wiſh of every philanthropic mind. For a particular account of that inſtituted at Edinburgh, See SOCIETY.

* *To* BLIND. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To make blind; to deprive of ſight.—

You nimble lightnings, dart your *blinding* flames
Into her ſcornful eyes! *Shakeſ.*

—Of whoſe hand have I received any bribe to *blind* mine eyes therewith? and I will reſtore it, ſaid Samuel.—A blind guide is certainly a great miſchief; but a guide that *blinds* thoſe whom he ſhould lead, is undoubtedly a much greater. *South.* 2. To darken; to obſcure the eye.—

So whirl the ſeas, ſuch darkneſs *blinds* the ſky,
That the black night receives a deeper dye.
Dryden.

3. To darken the underſtanding.—

This my long-ſuffering, and my day of grace,
They who neglect and ſcorn ſhall never taſte,
But hard be harden'd, blind be *blinded* more.
Milton.

4. To obſcure to the underſtanding.—The ſtate of the controverſy between us he endeavoured, with all his art, to *blind* and confound. *Stillingfl.*

BLINDE, among mineraliſts, a ſpecies of lead marcaſite, by miners called mock ore, mock lead, and wild lead. The German mineraliſts call it *blende*, whence our denomination *blinde*. It anſwers to what in Agricola is called *Galena inanis*. It usually lies immediately over the veins of lead ore, in the mines which produce it, for it is not found in all. When the miners ſee this, they know the vein of ore is very near.

BLINDES, or BLINDS, in the art of war, a kind of defence commonly made of oziers, or branches interwoven, and laid acroſs between two rows of ſtakes, about the height of a man, and 4 or 5 feet aſunder, uſed particularly at the heads of trenches, when they are extended in front towards the glacis; ſerving to ſhelter the workmen, and prevent their being overlooked by the enemy.

* BLINDFOLD. *adj.* [from the verb.] Having the eyes covered.—

And oft himſelf he chanc'd to hurt unwares,
Whilſt reaſon, blent through paſſion, nought deſcried,
But, as a *blindfold* bull, at random fares,
And where he hits, nought knows, and where he hurts, nought cares. *Fairy Queen.*

Who *blindfold* walks upon a rivers brim,
When he ſhould ſee, has he deſerv'd to ſwim?
Dryden.

—When lots are ſhuffled together, or a man *blindfold* caſts a dye, what reaſon can he have to preſume, that he ſhall draw a white ſtone rather than a black? *South.*—The women will look into the ſtate of the nation with their own eyes, and be no longer led *blindfold* by a male legiſlature. *Addiſon.*

* *To* BLINDFOLD. *v. a.* [from *blind* and *fold*.] To hinder from ſeeing, by blinding the eyes.—When they had *blindfold* him, they ſtruck him on the face. *Luke.*

BLIND HARRY. See HENRY, THE MINSTREL.

(1.) BLINDING was a ſpecies of puniſhment anciently inflicted on thieves, adulterers, perjurers, and others; and from which the ancient Chriſtians were not exempt. Sometimes lime and vinegar, or barely ſcalding vinegar, was poured into the eyes, till their balls were conſumed; ſometimes a rope was twiſted round the head till the eyes ſtarted out. In the middle age, they changed total blindneſs for a great darkneſs, or diminution of ſight, which they produced by holding a red hot iron diſh or baſon before the eyes, till their humours were dried, and their coats ſhrivelled up. The inhabitants of the city of Apollonia executed it on their watch when found aſleep. Nothing reflects more honour on the preſent age, than the almoſt total abolition of barbarous puniſhments, which have taken place in Britain and France; and which, it is hoped, will ſoon be univerſally adopted throughout Europe and America. No crime whatever merits torture. Whipping, however, is ſtill inflicted in the army and navy, to a degree often worſe than death. Might not ſome modes of diſgrace be ſubſtituted inſtead of ſuch horrid barbarity?

(2.) BLINDING, VOLUNTARY. Democritus, according to Plutarch, Cicero, and A. Gellius, put out his own eyes, that he might be leſs diſturbed in his mental contemplations, when thus freed from the diſtraction of the objects of ſight.

* BLINDLY. *adv.* [from *blind*.] 1. Without ſight. 2. Implicitly; without examination.—

The old king, after a long debate,
By his imperious miſtreſs *blindly* led,
Has given Cydaria to Orbellan's bed. *Dryden.*

—How ready zeal for intereſt and party, is to charge atheiſm on thoſe, who will not, without examining, ſubmit, and *blindly* ſwallow their nonſenſe. *Locke.* 3. Without judgment or direction.—

How ſeas and earth, and air, and active flame,
Fell through the mighty void; and, in their fall,
Were *blindly* gather'd in this goodly ball. *Dryd.*

* BLIND-

* BLINDMAN's BUFF. *n. ſ.* A play in which ſome one is to have his eyes covered, and hunt out the reſt of the company.—

Diſguis'd in all the maſk of night,
We left our champion on his flight;
At *blindman's buff* to grope his way,
In equal fear of night and day. *Hudibras.*

—He imagines I ſhut my eyes again; but ſurely he fancies I play at *blindman's buff* with him; for he thinks I never have my eyes open. *Stilling fleet.*

(1.) * BLINDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blind.*] 1. Want of ſight.—I will ſmite every houſe of the people with *blindneſs*. *Zechariah.* 2. Ignorance; intellectual darkneſs.—

All the reſt as born of ſavage brood,
And with baſe thoughts are into *blindneſs* led,
And kept from looking on the lightſome day. *Spenſer.*

Nor can we call it choice, when what we chuſe
Folly and *blindneſs* only could refuſe. *Denham.*

—Whenſoever we would proceed beyond theſe ſimple ideas, we fall preſently into darkneſs and difficulties, and can diſcover nothing farther but our own *blindneſs* and ignorance. *Locke.*

(2.) BLINDNESS. See BLIND, § 1—21.

(3.) BLINDNESS, in farriery, a diſeaſe incident to horſes, eſpecially thoſe of an iron-grey, or dapple-grey colour, when ridden too hard, or backed too young. It may be diſcovered by the walk, which in a blind horſe is always unequal, becauſe he dares not ſet down his feet boldly when led in one's hand; though if the ſame horſe be mounted by an expert horſeman, and the horſe of himſelf be mettled, the fear of the ſpur will make him go more freely; ſo that his blindneſs can hardly be perceived. Another mark, whereby a horſe may be known to have loſt his ſight, is, that upon hearing any body enter the ſtable, he will prick up his ears, and move them backwards and forwards, being in continual alarm by the leaſt noiſe. Dr Lower firſt ſhowed the ordinary cauſe of blindneſs in horſes, which is a ſpongy excreſcence, growing in one, ſometimes in two, or three places of the *uvea*, which being at length overgrown, covers the pupil when the horſe is brought into the light, though in a dark ſtable it dilates again. Horſes, that loſe their ſight at certain periods of the moon, are ſaid to be MOON-BLIND.

(4.) BLINDNESS, CAUSES OF, are either ordinary, or extraordinary. The former may ariſe from a decay of the optic nerve (an inſtance whereof we have in the Academy of Sciences, where upon opening the eye of a perſon long blind, the optic nerve was found extremely ſhrunk and decayed, and having no medulla in it); or from ſome external violence, vicious confirmation, growth of a cataract, *gutta ſerena*, ſmall-pox, or the like. See MEDICINE, INDEX. Extraordinary cauſes of blindneſs, are malignant ſtenches, poiſonous juices dropped into the eye, baneful vermin, long confinement in the dark, or the like. The author of the Embaſſy of D. Garcias de Sylva Figueroa into Perſia tells us, that in ſeveral parts of that kingdom there are vaſt numbers of blind people of all ages, ſexes, and conditions; owing to a ſpe- of little flies which prick the eyes and lips, and enter the noſtrils; but carrying certain blind neſs with them when they light on the eyes.

(5.) BLINDNESS, DIURNAL, or HEMERALOPIA a diſeaſe of the eyes which affects the patient chiefly, or only in day light.

(6.) BLINDNESS, NOCTURNAL, or NYCTALOPIA, that which enſues on the ſetting of the ſun in perſons who ſee perfectly in the day, but become quite blind as ſoon as night comes on. See *Philoſoph. Tranſact.* N° 159. p. 560, where an inſtance of it is given; alſo a ſingular caſe of this kind related by Dr Samuel Pye, in the *Medic. Obſerv.* and *Inquir. Vol.* I. *p.* 111.

(7.) BLINDNESS, PARTIAL, is that wherein ſome faint glimmering is left, as is always the caſe in people who have ripe cataracts, who are never ſo blind but they can diſcern day from night.

(8.) BLINDNESS, PERIODICAL, is that which comes and goes by turns, according to the ſeaſons of the moon, time of day, and the like.

(9.) BLINDNESS, PERPETUAL, is that which remains alike under all the diverſity of ſeaſons, times, ages, &c.

(10.) BLINDNESS, TOTAL, is that wherein all ſight or perception, even of light, is wanting, as is the caſe of thoſe who are ſaid to be *ſtone blind*. A blind man, by the civil law, cannot make a teſtament except under certain modifications; but in every caſe he is diſabled from being a witneſs to a teſtament, on account of his blindneſs.

(11.) BLINDNESS, TRANSIENT, is that which gives way of itſelf in due time, as that of whelps which continues for ſeveral days, ſometimes 9 rarely 12, after they are littered. The Nogai Tartars, according to father Du Ban the Jeſuit who lived among them, are born blind, and open not their eyes for ſeveral days. The ducks which breed under ground, and break out into the Zirchnitzer ſea in Carniola after great ſtorms, are blind at their firſt eruption; but in ſome time come to their ſight.

* BLINDNETTLE. *n. ſ.* [*ſcrofularia.*] A plant.

BLIND RAMPART, [*cæcum vallum,*] among the ancients, was that beſet with ſharp ſtakes, concealed by graſs or leaves growing over them.

BLINDS. See BLINDES.

* BLINDSIDE. *n. ſ.* [from *blind* and *ſide*] Weakneſs; foible; weak part.—He is too great a lover of himſelf; this is one of his *blindſides*; the beſt of men, I fear, are not without them. *Savile.*

(1.) * BLINDWORM. *n. ſ.* [*cæcilia*, from *blind* and *worm.*] A ſmall viper, called likewiſe a ſlow worm; believed not to be venomous.—

You ſpotted ſnakes, with double tongue,
Thorny hedgehogs, be not ſeen;
Newts and *blindworms*, do no wrong;
Come not near our fairy queen. *Shakeſpear*

—The greater ſlow worm, called alſo the *blind worm*, is commonly thought to be blind, becauſe of the littleneſs of his eyes. *Grew.*

(2.) BLIND WORM. See ANGUIS, N° I. § 1, and *Plate* XIV.

* *To* BLINK. *v. n.* [*blincken*, Daniſh.] 1. To wink, or twinkle with the eyes.—

So politick, as if one eye
Upon the other were a ſpy;
That to trepan the one to think
The other blind, both ſtrove to *blink*. *Hud*

2. T

2. *To see obscurely.*—

What's here! the portrait of a *blinking* ideot.
Shakespeare.

Sweet and lovely wall,
Give me thy chink, to *blink* through with mine eyne.
Shak. Midf. Night's Dream.

His figure such as might his foul proclaim;
His eye was *blinking*, and one leg was lame.
Pope.

* BLINKARD. *n. f.* [from *blink.*] 1. One that has bad eyes. 2. Something twinkling.—In some parts we see many glorious and eminent ſtars, in others few of any remarkable greatneſs, and, in ſome, none but *blinkards*, and obſcure ones. *Hakewill.*

BLINKING OF BEER ſignifies letting the wort ſtand for ſome time in the vat, till it hath acquired ſome degree of acidity, to diſpoſe it to fine, and be the ſooner ready for drinking.

(2.) BLINKS, among ancient ſportſmen, denoted boughs broken down from trees, and thrown in the way where deer were likely to paſs, to hinder their running, or rather to mark which way the deer ran, in order to guide the hunter.

(3.) BLINKS, in botany. See MONTIA.

To BLINSE, *v. n.* [*blinnan*, Sax.] To deſiſt; to ceaſe; to give over. *Chaucer.*

BLISLAND, a village in Cornwall, S. of Temple. *Chace.*

* BLISS. *n. ſ.* [*bliſſe*, Sax. from *bliſthaſian*, to rejoice.] 1. The higheſt degree of happineſs; felicity: generally uſed of the happineſs of bleſſed ſouls.—A mighty Saviour hath witneſſed of himſelf, I am the way; the way that leadeth us from miſery into *bliſs*. *Hooker.*—

Dim ſuſpects did not ſpare
That fiend celeſtial villages; yet, mix'd
With pity, violated not their *bliſs*. *Milton.*

With me
All my redeem'd may dwell, in joy and *bliſs*.
Milton.

2. Felicity in general.—

Condition, circumſtance is not the thing;
Bliſs is the ſame in ſubject or in king. *Pope.*

* BLISSFUL. *adj.* [from *bliſs* and *full.*] Full of joy; happy in the higheſt degree.—

Yet ſwimming in that ſea of *bliſsful* joy,
He nought forgot. *Fairy Queen.*

The two moſt-uſed ingredients in hell, are deprivation of the *bliſsful* vision, and confuſion of face. *Hammond.*—

Keeping immortal fruits of joy and love,
Uninterrupted joy, unrival'd love,
In endleſs ſolitude. *Milton.*

O peaceful thou ſhalt end thy *bliſsful* days,
And hoſt thyſelf from life by ſlow decays. *Pope.*

Sad in the fields I try the ſilvan ſtrains,
Now ſtudious to ſport in Windſor's *bliſsful* plains.
Pope.

* BLISSFULLY. *adv.* (from *bliſsful.*) Happily.

* BLISSFULNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bliſsful.*] Happineſs, felicity of joy.

* To BLISSOM. *v. n.* To caterwaul; to be with Dr. J.

BLISSOMING, among huſbandmen, corruptly called *bliſſoming*, the intercourſe between a ram and a ewe.

(1.) * BLISTER. *n. ſ.* [*bluyſter*, Dutch.] 1. A puſtule formed by raiſing the cuticle from the cutis, and filled with ſerous blood.—

In this ſtate the gallops, night by night,
O'er ladies lips, who ſtrait on kiſſes dream,
Which oft the angry Mab with *bliſters* plagues,
Becauſe their breaths with ſweatmeats tainted are.
Shakeſpeare.

—I found a great *bliſter* drawn by the garlick, but had it cut, which run a good deal of water, but filled again by next night. *Temple.* 2. Any ſwelling made by the ſeparation of a film or ſkin from the other parts.—Upon the leaves there riſeth a tumour like a *bliſter*. *Bacon.*

(2.) BLISTER, in medicine, a thin bladder containing a watery humour, whether occaſioned by burns, or by veſicatories applied for that purpoſe. Spaniſh flies, in the form of a plaſter, are chiefly uſed with this intention. See CANTHARIDES, and MEDICINE, INDEX.

(1.) * *To* BLISTER. *v. a.* 1. To raiſe bliſters by ſome hurt, as by a burn, or rubbing.—

Look, here comes one, a gentlewoman of mine,
Who falling in the flaws of her own youth,
Hath *bliſter'd* her report.† *Shakeſpeare.*

2. To raiſe bliſters with a medical intention.—I *bliſter'd* the legs and thighs; but was too late; he died howling. *Wiſeman.*

(2.) * *To* BLISTER. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To riſe in bliſters.—

If I prove honeymouth, let my tongue *bliſter*,
And never to my red look'd anger be
The trumpet any more. *Shakeſpeare.*

Embrace thy knees with loathing hands,
Which *bliſter* when they touch thee. *Dryden.*

BLISTERING, in farriery, is uſed in caſes of ſtrains and ſhrunk ſinews in horſes, as ſome maintain, with good effect; but others ſay, with none.

BLITE, in botany. See BLITUM.

(1.) BLITH, an extenſive parith of England, in Nottinghamſhire.

(2.) BLITH, a town in the above parith, (N. 1.) near Bawtry, on the Redford road, 23 miles N. N. W. from Newark, and 146 N. by W. of London. It has a large church, a market on Thurſday, and fairs on Aſcenſion day (noted for ſheep) and Oct. 6. Lon. 1. 10. W. Lat. 53. 22. N.

(3—5.) BLITH, or BLYTHE, the name of 3 rivers in England, viz. 1. in Northumberland: 2. in Suffolk: and, 3. in Warwickſhire.

BLITHBOROUGH, a town in Suffolk, ſeated on the Blith, between Dunwich and Halefworth, on the Yarmouth road, 97 miles from London. It has a fair April 5.

* BLITHE. *adj.* [*blithe*, Sax.] Gay; airy; merry; joyous; ſprightly; mirthful.—We have always one eye fixed upon the countenance of our enemies; and, according to the *blithe* or heavy aſpect thereof, our other eye ſheweth ſome other ſuitable token either of diſlike or approbation. *Hooker.*—

Then

† Dr. Johnſon ſeems to have been rather off his guard here, when he quoted this metaphor of Shakeſpeare's to illuſtrate the literal explanation of *bliſtering by a* burn *or* rubbing! Interdum dormitat bonus

Then ſigh not ſo, but let them go,
And be you *blithe* and bonny. *Shakeſpeare.*
For that fair female troop thou ſaw'ſt, that ſeem'd
Of goddeſſes, ſo *blithe*, ſo ſmooth, ſo gay;
Yet empty of all good. *Milton.*
To whom the wily adder, *blithe* and glad:
Empreſs! the way is ready, and not long. *Milt.*
And the milkmaid ſingeth *blithe*,
And the mower whets his ſcythe. *Milton.*
Should he return, that troop ſo *blithe* and bold,
Precipitant in fear, would wing their flight. *Pope.*

BLITHFIELD, a village in Staffordſhire, near Paget's Bromley.

BLITHFORD, in Suffolk, E. of Haleſworth.

BLITH-HALL, in Warwickſh. near Shuſtock.

* BLITHLY. *adv.* [from *blithe*.] In a blithe manner.

* BLITHNESS. BLITHSOMNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blithe*.] The quality of being blithe.

BLITH'S NEWK, a village on the coaſt of Northumberland, between Hartley and Newbigging.

* BLITHSOME. *adj.* [from *blithe*.] Gay; cheerful.—

Froſty blaſts deface
The *blithſome* year: trees of their ſhrivell'd fruits
Are widow'd. *Philips.*

* BLITHSOMNESS. See BLITHNESS.

BLITON, a town in Lincolnſhire, W. of Bliborough.

BLITUM, the BLITE, or STRAWBERRY SPINACH: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the monandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking in the 12th order, *Holoraceæ*. The calyx is trifid; no petals; the ſeed is one, included in a berry-ſhaped calyx. There are 3 ſpecies, viz.

1. BLITUM CAPITATUM, with flowers in cluſtered heads at the joints and crown of the ſtalks, is a native of Spain and Portugal, but has been long preſerved in the Britiſh gardens, for the beauty of its fruit. It is an annual plant, with leaves ſomewhat like thoſe of the Spinach; the ſtalk riſes 2½ feet high; the upper part of the ſtalk has flowers coming out in ſmall heads at every joint, and is terminated by a little cluſter of the ſame; after the flowers are paſt, the heads ſwell to the ſize of wood ſtrawberries, and when ripe have the ſame appearance, but are not eatable; they are full of purple juice, which ſtains the hands of thoſe who bruiſe them of a deep purple colour.

2. BLITUM TARTARICUM, with triangular acutely indented leaves, is a native of Tartary. Mr Miller received the ſeeds from Peterſburg. It riſes to near three feet high; the flowers come out from the ſides of the ſtalks, but are ſmaller than thoſe of the Capitatum, as is alſo the fruit.

3. BLITUM VIRGATUM, with ſmall heads growing from the ſides of the ſtalks, is a native of the S. of France and Italy. It ſeldom grows more than a foot high; the leaves are of the ſame ſhape with thoſe of the Capitatum, but ſmaller. The flowers are produced at the wings of the leaves, almoſt the length of the ſtalk; they are ſmaller, and not ſo deeply coloured as the firſt. All theſe ſpecies being annual, muſt be propagated with ſeeds; and as they are very hardy, will ſucceed in the common borders, if ſown in March or April; covering the ſeed about half an inch deep with earth, and leaving the plants 5 or 6 inches aſunder. When they come up, each muſt be ſupported with a ſmall ſtick, or they will be born down by the weight of the berries.

BLIVE, *adv. obſ.* Quickly; briſkly. *Chauc.*

* BLOAT. *adj.* Swelled with intemperance; turgid.—

The *bloat* king. *Shakeſpeare's Hamlet.*

(1.) * *To* BLOAT. *v. a.* [probably from *blow*.] To ſwell, to make turgid with wind: it has *up*, an intenſive particle.—

His rude eſſays
Encourage him, and *bloat* him *up* with praiſe,
That he may get more bulk before he dies.
Dryden.

—The ſtrutting petticoat ſmooths all diſtinctions, levels the mother with the daughter. I cannot but be troubled to ſee ſo many well-ſhaped innocent virgins, *bloated up*, and waddling up and down like bigbellied women. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * *To* BLOAT. *v. n.* To grow turgid.—If a perſon of a firm conſtitution begins to *bloat*, from being warm grows cold, his fibres grow weak. *Arbuthnot.*

BLOATED FISH, or BLOATED HERRINGS, } in our ſtatutes, are thoſe which are half dried, See Stat. 18. Car. II. c. 2. They are made by ſteeping them in a peculiar brine, and then hanging them in a chimney to dry.

* BLOATEDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bloat*.] Turgidneſs; ſwelling; tumour —Laſſitude, lazineſs, *bloatedneſs*, and ſcorbutical ſpots, are ſymptoms of weak fibres. *Arbuthnot.*

BLOATING, in medicine, a pulling up of the exterior habit of the body, lodged chiefly in the adipoſe cells. It is ſtiled by phyſicians EMPHYSEMA.

* BLOBBER. *n. ſ.* [from *blob*.] A word uſed in ſome counties for a bubble.—There ſwimmeth alſo in the ſea a round ſlimy ſubſtance, called a *blobber*, reputed noiſome to the fiſh. *Carew.*

* BLOBBERLIP. *n. ſ.* [from *blob*, or *blobber*, and *lip*.] A thick lip.—

They make a wit of their inſipid friend,
His *blobberlips*, and beetlebrows commend.
Dryden.

* BLOBBERLIPPED. } *adj.* Having ſwelled or
* BLOBLIPPED. } thick lips.—A *blobberlipped* ſhell, ſeemeth to be a kind of muſſel. *Grew.*
—His perſon deformed to the higheſt degree: flat noſed, and *blobberlipped*. *L'Eſtrange.*

(1.) BLOCK, Daniel, a portrait painter, was born at Stettin in Pomerania in 1580, and gave early proofs of a good genius; which induced his parents to place him as a diſciple with Jacob Scherer. His extraordinary merit recommended him to the Prince of Mecklenburg, who retained him in his ſervice for 44 years; during which, he painted the portraits of his whole family at full length as large as life, and in the antique habit. He alſo painted portraits of Chriſtian IV. K. of Denmark, and Guſtavus Adolphus K. of Sweden. By his agreeable manner of colouring, and the eaſy attitudes of his figures, his paintings became ſo acceptable, that before the decline of life, he had acquired a very large fortune; but unfortunately

the common borders, if sown in March
covering the seed about half
and leaving the plants
When they come up, each must be
with a small stick, or they will be
the weight of the berries.

BLIVE, *adv. obs.* Quickly; briskly.

* BLOAT. *adj.* Swelled with
turgid.—

The *bloat* king.

(1.) * To BLOAT. *v. a.* [probably
To swell, to make turgid with wind:
an intensive particle.—

His rude essays
Encourage him, and *bloat* him up with
That he may get more bulk before he

—The strutting petticoat smooths all
levels the mother with the daughter.
but be troubled to see so many well-
nocent virgins, *bloated up*, and waddling
down like hirbellied women. *Addison.*

(2.) * To BLOAT. *v. n.* To grow
a person of a firm constitution begins to
from being warm grows cold, his
weak. *Arbuthnot.*

BLOATED FISH, or } which are
BLOATED HERRINGS, } which are
See Stat. 28. Car. II. c. 2. They are
steeping them in a pickle brine, and
ing them in a chimney to dry.

* BLOATEDNESS. *n. s.* [from *bloat*]
gidness; tumour.—Laffitude,
bloatedness, and scorbutical spots, are
of weak fibres. *Arbuthnot.*

BLOATING, in medicine, a puffing up
exterior habit of the body, lodged chiefly
adipose cells. It is ſtiled by phyſicians

SEMA.

* BLOBBER. *n. s.* [from *blob.*] A word
in some counties for a bubble.—There
also in the sea a round slimy substance,
blobber, reputed noisome to the fish.

* BLOBBERLIP. *n. s.* [from *blob*, or
and *lip.*] A thick lip.—

They make a wit of their insipid friend,
His *blobberlips*, and beetlebrows

* BLOBBERLIPPED. } *adj.* Having
* BLOBLIPPED. } thick lips.—
* BLOBLIPPED, ſeemeth to be a kind of
lipped ſhell, ſeemeth to the higheſt
—His perſon deformed to the
noſed, and *blobberlipped*. *L'Eſtrange.*

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artificial ſides of his
acceptable, that before the
acquired a very large fortune; but

he left it all, in a few hours, by a plundering
ny, and with great difficulty his own life was
ſerved. He died in 1661.

(1.) * BLOCK. *n. ſ.* (*block*, Dutch; *bloc*, Fr.)
1. A heavy piece of timber, rather thick than
long. 2. A maſs of matter.—Homer's apotheoſis
conſiſts of a groupe of figures, cut in the ſame
block of marble, and riſing one above another.
Addiſon. 3. A maſſy body.—Small cauſes are
ſufficient to make a man uneaſy, when great ones
are not in the way; for want of a *block*, he will
ſtumble at a straw. *Souiſh.* 4. A rude piece of
matter; in contempt.—When, by the help of
wedges and beetles, an image is cleft out of the
rude trunk of ſome tree, yet after the ſkill of ſome
artiſt to ſet forth ſuch a divine *block*, it cannot
on account ſecure itſelf from being eaten by
worms. *Stillingfleet.* 5. The piece of wood on
which hats are formed. Some old writers uſe
block for the hat itſelf.—He wears his faith but as
the faſhion of his hat; it ever changes with the
next *block*. *Shakeſpeare.* 6. The wood on which
criminals are beheaded.—

Some guard the traitors to the *block* of death,
Traitors true bed, and yielder-up of breath.
Shakeſpeare.

—A fox wiſhed of his death, having a long beard,
that his head was upon the *block*, he gently drew
out a hair, and ſaid, this hath not offended
the king. *Bacon.*—

I'll drag him thence,
Even from the holy altar to the *block*. *Dryden.*

2. A reſtriction; a ſtop.—Can he never dream,
on the ſuffering for righteouſneſs ſake is our ſe-
curity, when he ſees us run ſo far from it, that no
thing a *block* enough in our way to ſtop our flight?
Duke of Buck. 3. A ſea term for a pully. 9. A
blockhead; a fellow remarkable for ſtupidity.—

The country is a deſert, where the good
ſtock inhabits not; born's not underſtood:
Dares own barbarous locutis, and prone to all e-
vils;
Scythes, *blocks*. *Donne.*
What tongue-ſick *blocks* were they, would they
not ſpeak? *Shakeſpeare's Richard III.*

(2.) BLOCK, in architecture, ſtatuary, &c. a
piece of marble from the quarry, before it has re-
ceived any form.

(3.) BLOCK, in bowling, the ſame with JACK.

(4.) BLOCK, in carving of wood, is a form made
of box-tree, box, or other hard and cloſe-grained
wood, free from knots on which figures are cut
in relief, with knives, chiſſels, &c.

(5.) BLOCK, in falconry, the perch whereon
a hawk or gerfalcon is kept. It is covered with cloth.

(6.) BLOCK, in geography, a ſmall iſland of
the United States, belonging to Rhode-Iſland, ly-
ing in N. lat. 41. W. of Newport. It was incor-
porated in 1672, by the name of New-Shoreham
township. It is a diviſion of Newport county,
and the moſt ſoutherly land in the ſtate. In
1782 it contained 635 free inhabitants, and 147
ſlaves. They are noted for making excellent cheeſe.
The iſland abounds with great variety of fiſh.

(7.) BLOCK, in mechanic arts, a large piece of
hard wood whereon to faſten work, or to faſhion
it; ſtrength and ſtability being the requiſite pro-

perties. In this ſenſe, we ſay a *clopping block*; a *ſugar-ſiner's block*; a *ſmith's block*, &c.

(9.) BLOCK, MOUNTING, an eminence uſually of ſtone, but in ſteps or notches, ſerving as a help to mount on horſeback. Theſe were much in uſe among the ancients, who were unacquainted with ſtirrups. The Romans erected them at proper ſtations all along their great roads. See ANABATHRA.

(10.) BLOCKS, in ſea language, pieces of wood belonging to ſhips, in which the ſhivers or pulleys are placed, and wherein the running ropes go. Of theſe ſome are ſingle, ſome double; and ſome have 3, 4, or 5 ſhivers in them. They are named and diſtinguiſhed by the ropes they carry, and the uſes they ſerve for. See PULLEY; and Plate XXII.

(11.) BLOCK, SPRING, an invention of Mr Hopkinſon of Philadelphia, to aſſiſt a veſſel in ſailing. The principles of it are thus explained, in his paper publiſhed in the *Tranſactions of the American Philoſophical Society*. "The maſts, yards, and rigging of a ſhip receive the firſt impulſes of the wind. All theſe are in ſome degree elaſtic. Every twiſted rope is a ſpiral ſpring, and every ſpar capable of being a little bent. But let us ſuppoſe that the ropes were all compoſed of ſtraight ſtrands; that the maſts and yards were inflexible, and the ſails made of thin light wood; in ſuch a caſe, I ſuppoſe that the veſſel, in ſailing by the wind, would make but little head-way, whatever the ſhape of her bottom might be, but would expend the force of the wind in heeling, and ſlipping to leeward. If this is true, her ſailing muſt be conſiderably aſſiſted by any means that ſhall increaſe the acting ſpring of her rigging. For this purpoſe I have contrived what I call a *ſpring block*, to be applied to ſuch parts of the rigging as will admit of it with ſafety and convenience, and where its operations will be moſt advantageous; but particularly to the ſheet-ropes, and if practicable to the dead-eyes, in lieu of what are called the chains. In Plate XXXIX. A. fig. 5. is a block made in the uſual manner, having a ring or eye B, at one end, C, is a ſpiral ſpring, linked at one end to the hook D E, and at the other to the ring F, which is to be annexed by a ſtaple to the timber-head, or by ſome other means, to the place where it is to be applied. The ſpring C muſt be of well tempered ſteel, and proportioned in ſtrength to the ſervice it is to perform. Within the cavity or pipe, formed by the ſpiral ſpring, there muſt be a chain of ſuitable ſtrength, called a *check chain* (repreſented ſeparate at G,) connected by links to the hook D E, and ring F. When the ſpring is not in action, this chain is ſlack; but when the ſpiral ſpring is extended by the force of the wind, as far as it can be without danger of injury, the check-chain muſt then begin to bear, to prevent its farther extenſion, and, if ſtrong enough, will be an effectual ſecurity againſt failure. Fig. 6. repreſents part of the gun-wale of a ſloop, with the ſpring blocks in action, one of them hooked to a ſtaple in the timber head, and the other to the corner of the jib. My expectation is, that a veſſel thus furniſhed will be leſs liable to heel, that ſhe will receive the impulſes of the wind to better advan-

tage, and ſail with a more lively and equable motion, than if rigged in the common way."

(12.) BLOCK, VOYAL. See VOYAL.

* *To* BLOCK. *v. a.* [*bloquer*, Fr.] 1. To ſhut up; to incloſe, ſo as to hinder egreſs; to obſtruct. —The ſtates about them ſhould neither by encreaſe of dominion, nor by *blocking* of trade, have it in their power to hurt or annoy. *Clarendon.*—

They *block* the caſtle kept by Bertram;
But now they cry, down with the palace, fire it. *Dryden.*

2. It has often *up*, to note cauſure.—Recommend it to the governor of Abingdon, to ſend ſome troops to *block* it *up*, from infeſting the great road. *Clarendon.*—The abbot raiſes an army, and *blocks up* the town on the ſide that faces his dominions. *Addiſon.*

(1.) * BLOCKADE. *n. ſ.* [from *block*.] A ſiege carried on by ſhutting up the place.—The enemy was neceſſitated wholly to abandon the *blockade* of Olivenza. *Tatler.*—

Round the goddeſs roll
Broad hats and hoods, and caps, a ſable ſhoal;
Thick, and more thick, the black *blockade* extends. *Pope.*

(2.) BLOCKADE, in the art of war, the blocking up a place, by poſting troops at all the avenues leading to it, to keep ſupplies of men and proviſions from getting into it; and by theſe means propoſing to ſtarve it out, without making any regular attacks.

(3.) BLOCKADE, TO RAISE A, is to force the troops that keep the place blocked up from their poſts.

* *To* BLOCKADE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſhut up by obſtruction.—

Huge bales of Britiſh cloth *blockade* the door,
A hundred oxen at your levee roar. *Pope.*

BLOCK AND BLOCK, in ſea language, is a phraſe uſed, when on hauling any tackle, haulyard, or the like, to which two *blocks* belong, the two meet and touch; ſo that they can haul no farther.

BLOCK-BATTERY, in the military art, denotes a wooden battery on 4 wheels, moveable from place to place, whereby to fire *en barbe*, or over the parapet; ſometimes alſo uſed in galleries and caſemates, where room is wanted.

BLOCKFIELD, a village in the county of Surry, near E. Grinſted.

* BLOCKHEAD. *n. ſ.* [from *block* and *head*.] A ſtupid fellow; a dolt; a man without parts.—Your wit will not ſo ſoon out as another man's will; it is ſtrongly wedged up in a *blockhead*. *Shakeſpeare.*—

We idly ſit like ſtupid *blockheads*,
Our hands committed to our pockets. *Hudibras.*
A *blockhead* rubs his thoughtleſs ſkull,
And thanks his ſtars he was not born a fool. *Pope.*

* BLOCKHEADED. *adj.* [from *blockhead*.] Stupid; dull.—Says a *blockheaded* boy, theſe are villainous creatures. *L'Eſtrange.*

(1.) * BLOCK-HOUSE. *n. ſ.* [from *block* and *houſe*.] A fortreſs built to obſtruct or block up a paſs, commonly to defend a harbour.—His entrance is guarded, with *block-houſes*, and that on the town's ſide fortified with ordnance. *Carew.*—Rocheſter water reacheth far within the land, and is under the protection of ſome *block-houſes*. *Raleigh.*

(2.) BLOCK-HOUSES are made of wood, mounted on rollers, or on a veſſel, and ſerve either on the water, or in counter-ſcraps and counter-approaches. The name is alſo applied to a brick or ſtone fort built on a bridge, or the brink of a river, ſerving not only for its defence, but for the command of the river above and below.

BLOCKING, in middle age writers, a kind of burial uſed for perſons who died excommunicated.

* BLOCKISH. *adj.* [from *block*.] Stupid; dull.—

Make a lott'ry,
And, by decree, let *blockiſh* Ajax draw
The ſort to fight with Hector. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BLOCKISHLY. *adv.* [from *blockiſh*.] In a ſtupid manner.

* BLOCKISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blockiſh*.] Stupidity; dulneſs.

BLOCKLAND, Anthony, hiſtory and portrait painter, was of a noble family, and born at Montford in 1532. He learned painting under Francis Floris, whoſe manner he always followed; and became an artiſt of great diſtinction, by imitating the taſte of the Roman ſchool. His genius was beſt adapted to grand compoſitions, of which he deſigned many at Delft and Utrecht. The airs of his heads were noble, and the profiles of his female figures approached near to the taſte of Parmigiano. Several of his works are in excellent guſto, particularly a Venus, and the hiſtory of Joſeph and his Brethren. He died in 1583.

(1.) BLOCKLEY, a pariſh of England, in Worceſterſhire, ſurrounded by Glouceſterſhire; where the biſhops of Worceſter had a park and an elegant palace, before the reformation.

(2, 3.) BLOCKLEY, two Engliſh villages, viz. 1. in Glouceſterſhire between Camden and Stow; and, 2. in Worceſterſhire, in the above pariſh, (No. 1.) 7 m. S. E. of Eveſham. It has fairs on the 2d Tueſ. after Eaſter and O. Michaelmas.

* BLOCK-TIN. *n. ſ.* [from *block* and *tin*.] So the tradeſmen call that which is pure and unmixed, and yet unwrought. *Boyle.*

BLOCK-WOOD, a name ſometimes given in our laws to LOGWOOD. 23. Eliz. c. 9.

BLOCKY, among jewellers, an epithet given to a diamond when its ſides are too upright, by its TABLE and COLLET being too large.

BLOCZIL, or } a fortreſs of Over-yſſel in
BLOCZIL, } the United Provinces, ſeated on the river Aa, where it falls into the Zuider Zee. It has a port ſufficient to contain 200 veſſels, and ſerves to defend thoſe ſhips that croſs the ſea. It has ſix good baſtions, and ſeveral other regular fortifications. It is 8 m. N. W. of Stenwick. Lon. 5. 39. E. Lat. 52. 44. N.

BLODERIT, *adj. Obſ.* blubbered. *Chaue.*

BLODWALL, a village in Shropſhire, S. of Oſweſtry.

BLODWORTH, a village in Nottinghamſhire, S. of Sherwood Foreſt.

BLODWYTA. See BLOODWIT, § 2.

(1.) BLOEMART, Abraham, painter of landſcape, cattle, hiſtory, and portraits, was born at Gorcum in 1564, according to Houbraken, but according

graceful attitudes, and an expreſſion full of life. His landſcapes are enriched with elegant architecture, with baſſo-relievos, and mutilated ſtatues, in a fine taſte; and rendered ſtill more pleaſing by a good colour, by animals of different kinds, and excellent figures.—His beſt works are admired in all parts of Europe, and afford large prices: but ſome of his pictures ſeem rather too much laboured, and theſe are proportionably leſs valued.

BLOIS, a town of France, in the department of Loire and Cher, and ci-devant province of Blaiſois, ſeated on the Loire, partly on a plain, and partly on an eminence, in one of the moſt agreeable countries in France. The caſtle is the ornament of this city. At the firſt view, it ſeems to be two diſtinct buildings; but it is joined by a paſſage cut out of the rock. Joining to this, on the W. ſide, is the tower of *Château Regnaud*, which may be ſeen 20 miles diſtant. At the E. end of this is another ſmall tower, partly ancient and partly modern. That part of the caſtle which was built by the Duke of Orleans, in 1632, is a ſuperb edifice, but unfiniſhed. The court, before it, where the church of St Saviour is built, is very large, and was formerly uſed for tournaments. The moſt remarkable thing in this caſtle is a fine long gallery, adorned with many curious pieces; it is in the midſt of two gardens, one of which is full of fruit trees, and the other of parterres, fountains, caſcades, and marble ſtatues brought from Italy. On all the gates of the city there is the image of the Virgin Mary, who it was believed, freed the natives from the plague in 1631. There are ſeveral churches, of which that of St Solenne, the cathedral, is the handſomeſt. The font of the Jeſuits church is decorated with the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian orders. The town-houſe ſtands in a ſtreet which terminates at the quay, where there is a public walk, that has a fine proſpect on the Loire, over which there is an elegant bridge that leads to Vienne. There are a few houſes on the bridge, and a tower at each end. About ½ of a mile from the city, the water runs down the clefts of a rock into a large aqueduct, by which it is conveyed into a reſervoir near the walls, and thence diſtributed by leaden pipes through the city. The trade of Blois is chiefly in wine and brandy; but the inhabitants alſo make ſome ſerges and ſtuffs, and they are noted for making fine watches. The city has the appearance of an amphitheatre, the ſtreets being laid out like rows of ſeats above each other upon the hill. It was anciently a place of royal reſidence, and Lewis XII. was born in it. The French language is ſaid to be ſpoken in its greateſt purity at Blois. It is ſituated 80 m. S. W. of Verſailles, 47 N. E. of Tours, and 100 S. W. of Paris. Lon. 1. 25. E. Lat. 47. 35. N.

BLOIS, BOLE OF. See BLESENSIS BOLUS.

* BLOMARY. *n. ſ.* The firſt forge in the iron mills, through which the metal paſſes, after it has been firſt melted from the mine. *Dict.*

BLOMBERG, Barbara, a young lady of quality in Ratiſbon, who was doubtleſs miſtreſs of the emperor Charles V. as ſhe conſented to paſs for the mother of his natural ſon, the celebrated Don JOHN of Auſtria; who died in the belief that ſhe was his mother, and recommended her and

her ſon Pyramus Conrad, whom ſhe afterwards had by her huſband, to the patronage of Philip II. in the belief that ſhe was ſo, and that he was his uterine brother. Accordingly Philip, to keep up the deception, patroniſed them both; for he ſent for Barbara into Spain, and ſettled her with a handſome equipage at Marote, in the royal monaſtery; and gave a penſion of 30 crowns per month to Pyramus, whom he placed under the D. of Parma, to learn the art of war. Some authors have doubted whether ſhe had any connection with the emperor; but Mr Bayle juſtly obſerves, "is is very unlikely that the lady was leſs complying as to the *being*, than as to the *ſeeming* to be; for commonly the latter is more dreaded than the former, and a woman would think herſelf very unhappy to go through the *laſt*, without the *firſt*." A humorous dialogue of the dead has been wrote in the characters of Barbara and Lucretia.

BLOMIE, *adj. Obſ.* blooming. *Chauc.*

BLOND, Chriſtopher LE, painter of portraits in miniature, and all ſubjects on paper, was born in 1670. Few circumſtances relative to his education or life are mentioned, till he became known at Rome in 1716, as painter to Count Martinetz, ambaſſador at that court. At the ſolicitation of Overbeke he went to Amſterdam, where he was employed to paint ſmall portraits for bracelets, rings, and ſnuff-boxes; of which, although they were painted in water-colours, yet the colouring was as lively and natural, as if they had been painted in oil. However, finding his ſight much impaired by the minuteneſs of his work, he diſcontinued it, and attempted the uſe of oil with ſucceſs. After ſpending ſome years in the Low Countries, he went to England, and ſet up a new method of painting mezzotinto plates in colours, ſo as to imitate the pictures of which they were copies. In this manner he executed ſeveral large plates, from pictures of the greateſt maſters, and diſpoſed of the prints by lottery. But thoſe who obtained the prizes, (Mr Strutt ſays,) appear not to have held them in great eſtimation. "The prints (he adds) poſſeſs merit, excluſive of their novelty; but, in general, the colours are flat and dirty; and the drawing is frequently very incorrect." But Mr Pilkington ſays, "The artiſt imitated his models with ſuch exact reſemblance, ſuch correctneſs of outline, ſuch ſimilarity of colour and expreſſion, that at firſt they amazed every beholder who viewed them at a proper diſtance; and many of thoſe prints are ſtill extant, which are much eſteemed by perſons of good taſte." And Mr Walpole obſerves, that ſome heads, coloured progreſſively, according to their ſeveral gradations, bear witneſs to the ſucceſs and beauty of his invention. He had another merit with which few inventers begin; for he communicated his ſecret in a thin quarto, intitled "*Coloritto*, or the harmony of colouring in painting reduced to mechanical practice, under eaſy precepts and infallible rules." His method was performed by ſeveral mezzotinto plates for one piece, each expreſſing different ſhades and parts of the piece in different colours. He was not, however, it is ſaid, the original inventor of that method, but took it from Laſtman and others, who, with much greater regularity of morals, and equal capacities, had before undertaken it without ſucceſs. Le Blond next ſet on foot a project for copying the cartoons of Raphael in tapeſtry, and made drawings from the pictures for that purpoſe. Houſes were built and looms erected at the Mulberry Ground at Chelſea; but the expences being too great, or the contributions not equal to the firſt expectations, the ſcheme was ſuddenly defeated, and Le Blond diſappeared, to the no ſmall diſſatisfaction of thoſe who engaged him. From hence he went to Paris, where he died, in 1740, in an hoſpital. He was author of a treatiſe, in French, on Ideal Beauty. It was publiſhed in 1732, and has ſince been tranſlated into Engliſh.

(1.) BLONDEL, David, a proteſtant miniſter, diſtinguiſhed by his ſkill in eccleſiaſtical and civil hiſtory, was born at Chalons ſur Marne, and admitted miniſter at a ſynod of the iſle of France, in 1614. He was afterwards made an honorary profeſſor with a ſuitable penſion, by the national ſynod of Charenton. On the death of Voſſius, he was choſen profeſſor of hiſtory in Amſterdam, whither he went in 1650. He wrote, 1. A defence of the reformed churches of France. This was in anſwer to the biſhop of Luſſon, afterwards the celebrated cardinal Richelieu. 2. A work againſt the decretal epiſtles. 3. *De Epiſcopis et Preſbyteris*: 4. *Pſeudo-Iſidorus*: 5. A Treatiſe of *the Sybils*, wherein he proves their oracles falſe: 6. *A Treatiſe concerning Pope Joan*, wherein he offended ſome of his proteſtant friends, by diſcrediting the ſtory of the female pope: 7. *De Formula Regante Chriſto*: 8. *Conſiderations religieuſes et politiques*; on the war between the republics of England and Holland: and ſome other pieces. Bayle informs us that "he had a ſingular way of ſtudying; he lay on the floor, and had round about him the neceſſary books for the work he had in hand." He died in 1655, aged 64.

(2.) BLONDEL, Francis, M. D. profeſſor of phyſic in the Univerſity of Paris, was a very learned man, but of a peculiarly bigotted, litigious temper, and full of prejudices in favour of old ſyſtems. He was a great enemy to chemiſtry, and oppoſed the uſe of antimony and the Peruvian bark. The cures performed by the bark he aſcribed to magic; and is ſaid to have aſſerted that "thoſe who uſed it committed a mortal ſin, and made an implicit pact with the devil." He wrote a book upon Emetics; and a treatiſe *De Pleuritide*; and died in 1682.

(3.) BLONDEL, Francis, M. D. was another French phyſician, who flouriſhed about the ſame time with the preceding. (N. 2.) and wrote a treatiſe on the baths of Aix La Chapelle, intitled *Thermarum Aquiſgranenſium et Forcheanarum Deſcriptio: Congruorum quoque ac ſalubrium uſuum Balneationis et potationis elucidatio:* printed at Aix in 12mo, in 1671.

(4.) BLONDEL, Francis, regius profeſſor of mathematics and architecture, was employed in ſeveral negociations, arrived at the dignity of marſhal de camp and counſellor of ſtate, and was appointed to teach the dauphin mathematics; he was alſo made member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, and director of the Academy of Architecture. He died at Paris in 1686, aged 68.

He wrote, 1. Notes on Savot's architecture: 2. A courſe of architecture: 3. A courſe of mathematics: 4. The art of throwing bombs: 5. A new manner of fortifying places: 6. A compariſon between Pindar and Horace: 7. A hiſtory of the Roman Calendar, &c.

(5.) BLONDEL, Moſes, an elder brother of David, (N. 1.) was a Calviniſt miniſter, firſt at Meaux, and afterwards at London. He publiſhed a book of controverſy, entitled, *Jeruſalem au Secours de Geneve:* printed at Sedan, in 1624.—In this work, he juſtifies the opinion of the proteſtants concerning the Apocryphal writings, by the teſtimonies of the Jews, as well as of the fathers.

To BLONDRIN. *v. n. Obſ.* to toil; to buſtle, or blunder. *Chaue.*

BLONDUS, Flavius, an hiſtorian born at Forli, in Italy, in 1388, was ſecretary to Eugenius IV. and other popes. He compoſed a great many books; and, among others, a Hiſtory from the year 400 to 1440. He died in 1463; and left all he had to his daughters, becauſe his ſons could provide for themſelves.

BLONEIZ, or BLONIEZ, a town of Poland, in Warſovia, 20 m. W. of Warſaw. Lon. 20. 35. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

BLONKET. *n. ſ.* [I ſuppoſe for *blanket.*]—

Our *blonket* livery's been all too ſad
For thilke ſame reaſon, when all is yclad
With pleaſance. *Spenſer.*

BLONT, *adj. Obſ.* blunt; dull. *Chauc.*

(1.) BLOOD. *n. ſ.* [*blod*, Saxon.] 1. The red liquor that circulates in the bodies of animals.—But fleſh, with the life thereof, which is the *blood* thereof, ſhall you not eat. *Geneſis.* 2. Child; progeny.—

We'll no more meet, no more ſee one another:
But yet thou art my fleſh, my *blood*, my daughter.
Shakeſpeare.

3. Family; kindred.—

As many and as well born *bloods* as thoſe,
Stand in his face, to contradict his claim. *Shak.*

O! what an happineſs is it to find
A friend of our own *blood*, a brother kind. *Waller.*

—According to the common law of England, in adminiſtrations, the whole *blood* is preferred to the half *blood*. *Ayliffe.* 4. Deſcent; lineage.—Epithets of flattery, deſerved by few of them; and not running in a *blood*, like the perpetual gentleneſs of the Ormond family. *Dryden.* 5. Blood royal; royal lineage.—

They will almoſt
Give us a prince o' th' *blood*, a ſon of Priam,
In change of him. *Shakeſpeare.*

6. Heat; high extraction.—

I am a gentleman of *blood* and breeding. *Shak.*

7. Murder; violent death.—

It will have *blood*; they ſay, *blood* will have *blood*. *Shakeſpeare.*

—The voice of thy brother's *blood* crieth unto me from the ground. *Geneſis*, iv. 10. 8. Life.—When wicked men have ſlain a righteous perſon in his own houſe, upon his bed, ſhall I not therefore now require his *blood* at your hand? 2 *Sam.* iv. 11. 9. *For blood.* Though his blood or life was at ſtake: A low phraſe.—A crow lay battering upon a muſcle, and could not, *for his blood*, break the ſhell to come at the fiſh. *L'Eſtrange.* 10. The carnal part of man.—Fleſh and *blood* hath not revealed it unto thee, but my Father which is in heaven. *Matthew*, xvi. 17. 11. Temper of mind; ſtate of the paſſions.—

Will you, great ſir, that glory blot,
In cold *blood*, which you gain'd in hot? *Hudib.*

12. Hot ſpark; man of fire.—The news put divers young *bloods* into ſuch a fury, as the ambaſſadors were, not without peril, to be outraged. *Bacon.* 13. The juice of any thing.—He waſhed his garments in wine, and his cloaths in the *blood* of grapes. *Geneſis*, xlix. 11.

(2.) BLOOD appears ſo immediately and eſſentially neceſſary to the preſervation of animal life, that in Scripture it is expreſsly ſtiled *the life* of the animal. (Gen. ix. 4.) Though there is no living creature as yet known, whoſe life does not immediately depend upon the circulation of ſome kind of fluid through its veſſels, yet unleſs ſuch fluid is of a red colour, it does not obtain the name of *blood*; and therefore ſuch creatures as have a colourleſs or milky liquor circulating through their veſſels, are called *exſanguious animals.*

(3.) BLOOD, ACCOUNT OF THE DENSITY, &c. OF. Blood has a different degree of thickneſs in different animals, and even in the ſame animal at different times. Though it is in all caſes endowed with a conſiderable degree of tenacity, yet in ſtrong animals that tenacity is remarkably greater than in weak ones; and hence the blood of bulls was made uſe of by the ancients as a poiſon, its extreme viſcidity rendering it totally indigeſtible by the powers of the human ſtomach. There are alſo ſome ſtates of the human body, in which the blood becomes vaſtly tenacious, ſo as in a great meaſure to refuſe any intimate connection with water; and others, in which its craſis is almoſt totally diſſolved, ſo as to appear, when drawn out of the body, like a fluid and half putrid maſs. See MEDICINE, INDEX. The common appearance of the blood, when drawn from a vein in the human body, is well known. It firſt ſeems an homogeneous red liquor; then it conſolidates into one uniform maſs; in a little time, a yellowiſh watery liquor begins to ſeparate from it, which is more or leſs in quantity according to the ſtate in which the blood happens to be; the red maſs, in the mean time, contracts greatly in its dimenſions, and increaſes in ſolidity. But this increaſe of ſolidity is likewiſe proportional to the ſtate of the blood at the time: in ſtrong people, if attacked with a violent inflammatory diſeaſe, the ſolid part is exceedingly tough, inſomuch that Dr Huxham ſays he has ſometimes found it almoſt like a piece of fleſh itſelf; whereas, in other diſeaſes, the ſolid part is very ſoft and tender, breaking in pieces with the ſlighteſt touch. The ſpontaneous ſeparation of the blood into craſſamentum, ſerum, and coagulable lymph, has been already taken notice of. See ANATOMY, INDEX. It has been a general opinion, that blood, as it exiſts in the bodies of animals, contains a conſiderable quantity of common air; and indeed it is certain, that blood, after it has been drawn from the veins of any animal, and placed under the receiver of an air-pump, yields a very conſiderable quantity of air upon exhauſting the receiver: but if a portion of any blood-veſſel is tied up, ſo as to prevent the

the eſcape of its contents, and then cut out of the body and placed under a receiver, it will not ſwell, or ſhew the leaſt ſign of its containing any quantity of air whatever. Of this and every other part of the ſubject a very comprehenſive view is taken in Mr Hunter's work, publiſhed ſince his death, intitled *A Treatiſe on Inflammation*, &c.

(4.) BLOOD, ANALYSES OF THE. The attention of phyſiologiſts has been very much engaged by inquiries into the nature and compoſition of the blood, and accordingly it has been examined in all poſſible ways. By a chemical analyſis, it diſcovers the ſame principles with other animal ſubſtances; giving in diſtillation a great quantity of phlegm, a volatile ſpirit, and much fetid oil; after which, there remains a charred matter, which, when burnt in an open fire, leaves a white earth ſimilar to calcined hartſhorn. Some eminent chemiſts, Mr Homberg particularly, have aſſerted that blood contains an acid as well as an alkali, but that the former does not ariſe till towards the end of the diſtillation: but what throws no ſmall ſuſpicion on this account, is, that the acid and alkali, notwithſtanding their great tendency on all other occaſions to unite with each other, do here remain ſeparate, ſo that the liquor may be even rediſtilled without their forming any neutral compound. An experiment in confirmation of this is recorded in the memoirs of the Royal Academy for 1712. Six pounds of human blood diſtilled to dryneſs with a gentle heat, were reduced to 1½ pound; after which, the maſs was urged with a gradual fire, till the retort at laſt became red hot. The produce was 17 ounces of liquor; 12 of which were a red and very empyreumatic volatile ſpirit; the other 5 were oil. The caput mortuum was a light coal weighing 4½ ounces. On rectifying the volatile ſpirit in a ſmall retort, about an ounce of a red fetid liquor remained, which had a very acid ſmell, and turned the juice of turnſole red. Mr Homberg now imagined, that the acid contained in the blood of animals could not diſengage itſelf perfectly by theſe diſtillations without addition. He therefore determined to diſtil human blood with an admixture of ſome other ſubſtance; but as earths contain a ſalt, which might render the operation uncertain, he determined to uſe only the caput mortuum of a former diſtillation of the ſame ſubſtance. For this purpoſe, 4lb. of the coagulum of human blood being well mixed with a large quantity of this reſiduum, and the whole dried in the ſun, it was put into a retort, and diſtilled with a fire raiſed, towards the end of the operation, to the utmoſt violence. The oil being ſeparated from the volatile ſpirit, the latter was rectified; and the conſequence was, that there came over 4lb. of a red acid liquor, that turned the tincture of turnſole very red. All the diſtillations of the aqueous liquors already mentioned, obtained by ſimilar proceſſes, being mixed together, and ſeparated from their yet remaining oil, by careful dilution with water and filtration, they were at length diſtilled together; the liquor that came over was clear as water, and its firſt quantities contained a great deal of volatile ſalt, but the laſt two ounces were found to be as ſour as diſtilled vinegar. The ſame products were obtained from the blood of carnivorous animals, as well as from that of animals feeding ſolely upon vegetables. In Dr Lewis's notes on Newman's Chemiſtry we have the following account of the blood, and the parts into which it may be reſolved. "Recent blood is equally fluid, and in taſte ſomewhat ſaline. Viewed by a microſcope, it appears compoſed of numerous red globules ſwimming in a tranſparent fluid. On ſtanding for a little time, it ſeparates into a thin craſſamentum and fluid ſerum. By agitation, it continues fluid: A conſiſtent polypous matter adheres to the ſtirrer which, by repeated ablution with water, becomes white. Received from the vein in warm water, it depoſites a quantity of tranſparent filamentous matter, the red portion continuing diſſolved in the water. On evaporating the fluid, a red powdery ſubſtance is left. It congeals by froſt, and becomes fluid again by warmth; after liquefaction it quickly putrefies. Fluid and florid blood expoſed to a temperate air, putrefies ſooner than ſuch as is more denſe. Inſpiſſated to dryneſs, it leaves a dark-coloured maſs, amounting, at a medium to about one fourth of the weight of the blood of a bitter ſaline taſte, eaſily inflammable, burning with a bluiſh flame. The exſiccated blood is no ſoluble in acid or alkaline liquors; but gives ſome tincture to water and to ſpirit of wine, and is more powerfully acted upon by dulcified ſpirit of nitre. Recent blood is coagulated by the mineral acids, and by moſt of the combinations of them with earthy and metallic bodies. With vegetable acids, and with ſolutions of neutral ſalts, it mingles equably without coagulation. Alkalis, both fixed and volatile, render it more fluid, and preſerve it from coagulating. The ſerum of blood is more ſaline than the craſſamentum, and does not ſo ſpeedily putrefy. It freezes ſomewhat more difficultly than pure water; and its aqueous part evaporates, by a gentle warmth, ſomewhat more readily, leaving about one twelfth of the weight of the ſerum of a ſolid yellowiſh pellucid matter. Expoſed to heat a little greater than that of the human body, it coagulates into a ſolid maſs, without any conſiderable evaporation. Both this coagulum and the inſpiſſated ſerum are readily inflammable in the fire, not diſſoluble in water, or in ſpirit of wine, in acid or in alkaline liquors."

(5.) BLOOD, CIRCULATION OF THE. See § 11 and ANATOMY, INDEX.

(6.) BLOOD, ERRONEOUS OPINIONS CONCERNING THE. The texture of the blood diſcovered by a microſcope, hath engaged the attention of the learned much more than the chemical analyſis ever did. Lewenhoeck was the firſt who diſcovered, or fancied he diſcovered, that the blood as it exiſts in the body of an animal, conſiſts of a quantity of red globular particles ſwimming in a large quantity of tranſparent liquor. Each of theſe globules, he imagined, was compoſed of ſix ſmaller ones packed together. While the ſix continued to adhere, their colour was red; but when ſeparated, they became yellow, and thus formed what is called the *ſerum*. He even pretended to have diſcovered, that each of the ſerous globules conſiſted of ſix ſmaller ones, and that theſe when broken down conſtituted ſome more ſubtile and penetrating liquor than the ſerum, &c. This was for a long time received almoſt univerſally as an undoubted

undoubted fact; and many theories were built upon it, and elaborate calculations made, of which (we hope) no account needs now be given, as the falſity of theſe pretended diſcoveries is generally allowed. Father De Torre, with microſcopes which he pretended were capable of magnifying to an incredible degree, found that the red particles of the blood were of an annular figure, with a perforation in the middle; and that the ring itſelf was formed of ſeveral joints. Some of theſe extraordinary magnifiers, however, being ſent over to England, thoſe who were appointed by the Royal Society to make trial of them, found them totally uſeleſs, ſo that the credit of Father De Torre's diſcoveries muſt have reſted principally on his own evidence. The falſity of his hypotheſis, as well as that of Lewenhoeck, was detected by the late Mr Hewſon, of whoſe microſcopical experiments on the blood, we inſert the following account given by himſelf in a letter to Dr Haygarth phyſician in Cheſter. See § 7.

(7.) BLOOD, EXPERIMENTS OF MR HEWSON RESPECTING THE. "The red particles of the blood, improperly called *globules*, are flat in all animals, and of various ſizes in different animals. In man they are ſmall, as flat as a ſhilling, and appear to have a dark ſpot in the middle. In order to ſee them diſtinctly, I dilute the blood with freſh ſerum. My predeceſſors, not having thought of this, could not ſee them diſtinctly.—And Lewenhoeck in particular, imagining a round figure fitteſt for motion, concluded they muſt be round in the human body; though he and others allowed that in frogs, &c. where they viewed them diſtinctly from the blood being thinner, they were flat. Now I prove that they are flat in all animals. In the human blood, where theſe particles are ſmall, it is difficult to determine what that black ſpot is, which appears in the centre of each. Some have concluded that it was a perforation; but in a frog, where it is ſix times as large as in a man, it is eaſy to ſhow that it is not a perforation, but on the contrary a little ſolid, which is contained in the middle of a veſicle. Inſtead, therefore, of calling this part of the blood red *globules*, I ſhould call it red *veſicles*; for each particle is a flat veſicle, with a little ſolid ſphere in its centre. I find that the blood of all animals contains veſicles of this ſort. In human blood there are millions of them; and they give it the red colour. But in inſects they are white, and leſs numerous in proportion than in man and quadrupeds. As they are flat in all animals, I ſuſpect that ſhape is a circumſtance of importance, but can be altered by a mixture with different fluids. And I find that it is by a determinate quantity of neutral ſalt contained in the ſerum, that this fluid is adapted to preſerving theſe veſicles in their flat ſhape: for, if they be mixed with water, they become round, and diſſolve perfectly; but add a little of any neutral ſalt to the water, and they remain in it, without any alteration in their ſhape, and without diſſolving. Now, when it is conſidered, that the blood of all animals is filled with theſe particles, we muſt believe that they ſerve ſome very important purpoſe in the animal œconomy; and ſince they are ſo complicated in their ſtructure, it is improbable they ſhould be made by mechanical agitation in the lungs or blood-veſſels, as has been ſuſpected, but probably have ſome organs ſet apart for their formation. This I ſhall endeavour to prove, when I have explained their ſtructure a little more particularly, and mentioned the manner in which I exhibit it. I take the blood of a toad or frog, in which they are very large; I mix it with the ſerum of human blood to dilute it; I find them appear all flat; ſo they do in the blood-veſſels of this animal, as I have diſtinctly ſeen in the web between its toes, whilſt the animal was alive and fixed in the microſcope. Their appearance in theſe animals is not unlike ſlices of cucumber. I next mix a little of the blood with water, which immediately makes them all round, and then begins to diſſolve them whilſt they are round. I incline the ſtage of the microſcope, ſo as to make them roll down it; and then I can diſtinctly ſee the ſolid in the middle fall from ſide to ſide like a pea in a bladder. A neutral ſalt added to them at this time brings them back to their flat ſhape; but if the ſalt be not added, the water gradually diſſolves away the veſicle; and then the little ſphere is left naked.—Such is the compoſition of theſe particles. I have exhibited theſe experiments to a conſiderable number of my acquaintance, who all agree in their being ſatisfactory. The microſcope I uſe is a ſingle lens, and therefore as little likely to deceive us as a pair of ſpectacles, which, as is allowed by all who uſe them, do not diſfigure objects, but only repreſent them larger. From farther experiments, I am convinced, that the uſe of the thymus and lymphatic glands is to make the middle ſolid pieces: and I can prove it in as ſatisfactory a manner as you can do the uſe of any viſcus in the human body; that is, by opening theſe glands and examining the fluid contained in their cells, which I find to be full of theſe little ſolids. I moreover find, that the lymphatic veſſels take them up from thoſe glands, and convey them into the blood-veſſels which carry them to the ſpleen, in whoſe cells they have the veſicles laid over them; ſo that the thymus and lymphatic glands make the central particles, and the ſpleen makes the veſicles that ſurround them. That this is the uſe of the ſpleen appears from examining the lymph which is returned from its lymphatic veſſels; for that lymph, contrary to what is obſerved in other parts of the body, is extremely red. But beſides having theſe glands ſet apart for making the red veſicles of the blood, I find that they are alſo made in the lymphatic veſſels in different parts of the body, whoſe coats have blood-veſſels properly conſtructed for this ſecretion. So that the thymus and lymphatic glands are no more than appendages of the lymphatic ſyſtem, for making the middle particles; and the ſpleen an appendage to the lymphatic veſſels, for making the veſicles which contain theſe middle particles. I conjecture that it is the coagulable lymph which is converted into this red part of the blood, from a curious fact that has long been known; namely that the blood in the ſplenic vein does not coagulate when expoſed to the air, as the blood of other veins does; ſo that it ſeems to be robbed of its coagulable lymph in paſſing through the ſpleen.—It is very remarkable, that the ſpleen can be cut

out

out of an animal, and the animal do well without it. I made the experiment on a dog, and kept him a year and a half without obſerving his health to be in the leaſt impaired. From this ſome have concluded the ſpleen to be an uſeleſs weight; which is abſurd, when we conſider that all animals with red blood have it. Therefore it is more conſiſtent with what we know of the animal œconomy, to conclude, that ſince an animal can do well without it, there is probably ſome part of the body that can ſupply its place. Inſects have veſicles conſtructed in a ſimilar way to ours, but differing in colour. But inſects have neither ſpleen, thymus, nor lymphatic glands; and therefore in them probably theſe veſicles are entirely fabricated in the lymphatic veſſels. But to us, and others of the more perfect animals, beſides the lymphatic veſſels, nature has given thoſe glands, that a proper quantity of thoſe important veſicles might be the better ſecured to us; juſt as ſhe has given us two ears, the better to ſecure us hearing through life, though we can hear perfectly well with one." On this hypotheſis, we ſhall only remark, that if the red globules are prepared in the manner above mentioned, and the lymphatic veſſels are excretories of thoſe glands where the red particles are formed; then if there is any veſſel where all theſe excretories unite, in that veſſel the lymph ought to appear very red, on account of the accumulated quantity of red globules brought thither from all parts of the body. But no ſuch redneſs ſeems ever to have been taken notice of by any anatomiſt; which affords an objection to Mr Hewſon's hypotheſis, perhaps, not eaſily removed.

(8.) BLOOD, HYPOTHESES CONCERNING THE FORMATION AND COLOUR OF. Many other hypotheſes have been invented concerning the formation of the red blood, and various opinions delivered concerning its red colour. In a lecture delivered at Newcaſtle in 1773, by Dr Wilſon of that place, he aſſerts "that it is ſelf-evidently the office of the veins to elaborate the fluids into that form and compoſition which we know by the name of *red blood*." The ſelf-evidence here, however, is by no means apparent, nor doth he at all point it out in an intelligible manner.—Dr Cullen, in his phyſiological part of The Inſtitutions of Medicine, acknowledges that we know but little of the formation of any of the animal fluids; and concerning the microſcopical obſervations, &c. on the blood, gives his opinion in the following words, § ccliv. "The red globules have been conſidered as an oily matter, and from thence their diſtinct and globular appearance has been accounted for: but there is no direct proof of their oily nature; and their ready union with, and diffuſibility in, water, renders it very improbable. As being microſcopical objects only, they have been repreſented by different perſons very differently. Some have thought them ſpherical bodies, but diviſible into ſix parts, (See § 6.) each of which in their ſeparate ſtate were alſo ſpherical; but other perſons have not obſerved them to be thus diviſible. To many obſervers they have appeared as perfectly ſpherical; while others judge them to be oblate ſpheriods, or lenticular. To ſome they have appeared as annular, and to others as containing a hollow veſicle. All this, with ſeveral other circumſtances relating to them, very variouſly repreſented, ſhow ſome uncertainty in microſcopical obſervations; and it leaves me, who am not converſant in ſuch obſervations, altogether uncertain with reſpect to the preciſe nature of this part of the blood. The chemical hiſtory of it is equally precarious; and therefore what has been hitherto ſaid of the production and changes happening to theſe red globules, we chuſe to leave untouched.—We ſuppoſe that the red globules, when viewed ſingly, have very little colour; and that it is only when a certain number of them are laid upon one another, that the colour appears of a bright red: but this alſo has its limits; ſo that when the number of globules laid on one another is conſiderable, the colour becomes of a darker red. Upon this ſuppoſition, the colour of the maſs of blood will be brighter or darker, as the colouring part is more or leſs diffuſed among the other parts of the maſs; and we think this appears to be truly the caſe, from every circumſtance that attends the changes which have been at any time obſerved in the colour of the blood." Concerning the uncertainty of microſcopical, as well as chemical experiments, we ſhall not diſpute; though the concluſion againſt them ſeems carried too far. But with regard to the colour of the blood, it has been known, almoſt ſince the diſcovery of the circulation, that the florid or dark colour depends on the preſence or abſence of air, and not upon any number of globules.—Thus the blood returning from the veins is of a dark colour. Though diluted with the freſh chyle from the ſubclavian vein, it continues of the ſame dark colour till it paſſes through the lungs, upon which it inſtantly aſſumes a very florid red; but it can never be proved, that the globules in the pulmonary vein are at all leſs numerous than in the pulmonary artery.—That this change of colour may be effected by the air through membranes much thicker than we can ſuppoſe the veſſels of the lungs to be, has been demonſtrated by Dr Prieſtly's experiments. (See DEPHLOGISTICATED AIR.) But whether the change is occaſioned by the mere ſeparation of phlogiſton from the blood, or by the abſorption of ſome other principle in its ſtead, is not yet determined, though the latter is indeed acknowledged by Dr Prieſtley himſelf to be the more probable opinion. He even ſuppoſes the redneſs to be owing to a portion of dephlogiſticated air abſorbed in the lungs; but under the above article, it will appear that this fluid cannot be abſorbed by any liquid without decompoſition. It muſt therefore be the elaſtic principle of this air which is abſorbed, while the other combined with part of the phlogiſton emitted by the blood is converted into fixed air. Upon this principle, Dr Beddoes and others have of late inſiſted much on the advantages of what they ſtile PNEUMATIC MEDICINE, or the application of factitious airs to the lungs by a ſuitable apparatus.

(9.) BLOOD, INFLAMMABILITY OF THE.—Mr Boyle having held a piece of human blood, dried till it was almoſt pulverable, in the flame of a candle, found it would take fire, and afford a flame burning with a crackling noiſe, and here and there melting. But this inflammability appeared much better, when putting together 4 or 5 thoroughly kindle

other circumstances relating to them, very
ously represented, show some uncertainty as
croscopical observations; and it leaves us,
am not conversant in such observations, altogether
uncertain with respect to the precise nature of a
part of the blood. The chemical history of it
hitherto said of the production and changes
pening to these red globules, we chuse to leave
untouched.—We suppose that the red globules,
when viewed singly, have very little colour;
that it is only when a certain number of them
laid upon one another, that the colour appears;
of a bright red: but this also has its limits; it is
when the number of globules laid on one another
is considerable, the colour becomes of a dark
red. Upon this supposition, the colour of the
mass of blood will be brighter or darker, without
louring part is more or less diffused among the
other parts of the mass; and we think this appears to be truly the case, from every circumstance
that attends the changes which have been observed in the colour of the blood." Concerning the uncertainty of microscopical, as well
as chemical experiments, we shall not dispute;
though the conclusion against them seems carried
too far. But with regard to the colour of the
blood, it has been known, almost since the discovery of the circulation, that the florid colour depends on the presence or absence of air,
and not upon any number of globules.—That
blood returning from the veins is of a dark red.
Though diluted with the fresh chyle from the
clavian vein, it continues of the same darkness
till it passes through the lungs, upon which it
instantly assumes a very florid red; but it cannot
be proved, that the globules in the pulmonary
vein are at all less numerous than in the pulmonary artery.—That this change of colour is
effected by the air through membranes much
thicker than we can suppose the vesicles of the
lungs to be, has been demonstrated by Dr Priestley's experiments. (See DEPHLOGISTICATED AIR.)
But whether the change is occasioned by the
separation of phlogiston from the blood, or by
the absorption of some other principle in the air,
is not yet determined, though the latter is now
acknowledged by Dr Priestley himself to be the
more probable opinion. He even supposes the
redness to be owing to a portion of dephlogisticated air absorbed in the lungs; but under this
article, it will appear that this fluid cannot be
forbed by any liquid without decomposition.
must therefore be the elastic principle of fire
which is absorbed, while the other combines with
part of the phlogiston emitted by the blood in the
Bedoes and others have of late inflicted many
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(9.) BLOOD, INFLAMMABILITY OF THE. Mr
Boyle having held a piece of human blood, or
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[illegible] together 4 or 5 [illegible]

fluffed must be left on them a piece of citron
blood of the bigness of a small nutmeg; for this
would a large and yellow flame, and when exhaled
from time to time, as the effluvia
blown from time to time, as the effluvia
continued to break, it continued to yield clear
and yellow flames. Having reduced some blood to
dryness till it was reducible to fine powder, he
put part of the powder, which had passed a fine
sieve, and rolling it on the flame of a good candle, and rolling it on the flame of a good candle,
the grains, to their quick passage through it,
they fell; and the powder flashed with a noise, as
if it had been nitre.

(10.) BLOOD, QUANTITY OF, IN THE HUMAN
BODY, has been variously estimated. Dr Lower
supposes it is in ordinary man, at about 20 lb.
Dr Hales, by observing the proportion of the
weight of several animals to their blood, estimates
it at about one 20th of the weight of the whole
mass, which may amount to only 8 or 10 lb. Dr
Keil, from a calculation founded on the proportion of the ends to the diameters of the vessels,
finds, that in a body weighing 160 lb. 100 lb.
would be blood; but then under blood he includes the lymph and other juices secreted from
the blood. It is, indeed, very difficult to determine the quantity of blood in the body. Bleeding animals to death, the method used by Doctor
Keill and others, can never give the ultimate of
their quantity; because no animal can bleed
to death while the great artery is full, the contents of which will be longer or shorter as the
external artery is smaller or greater; and the artery and always be the first vessel that empties.
In a certain way, in Dr Keil's opinion, by
knowing what proportion the cavities of the vessels, in which the whole body is composed, bear
to the thickness of the coat. This, in the veins
and arteries, may be exactly found; but, in other
cases we can only know the quantity of fluid
by evaporation, by carefully evaporating as much as
possible. Some think that at least two thirds of
the quantity of blood contained in an animal, is
constantly passing the capillaries and small vessels
of the glandular and muscular parts, which can
never be drawn off by any thick discharge from
any of the large vessels; since, in that case, the
large vessels being emptied much faster than they
can be supplied from the capillaries, a defect of
blood will soon ensue at the heart; upon which
syncope falls into convulsions, and the circulation stops, while far the greater part of the blood
remains in the smaller and remoter vessels.

(11.) BLOOD, THEORIES RESPECTING THE CIRCULATION OF THE. Various opinions have been
entertained respecting the means by which the
motion of the blood is carried on in the living
body. From the time of Harvey till very lately,
it was supposed to be chiefly the muscular power
of the heart and arteries, which by some physiologists has been thought to be prodigiously great;
and accordingly many calculations have been made
of the force requisite to perform this circulation.
Other philosophers, however, have thought proper to add several auxiliary helps, as the motion of the muscles, respiration, &c. and from Dr
Hales's experiment, (see § 13.) it appears that respiration has a considerable influence. It cannot, however, be the sole cause, seeing the circulation is carried on in animals which do not respire. In 1773, Dr Wilson, (in the lecture, quoted in § 8.) suggested a new principle of motion, which we believe was never used before to account for the circulation of animal fluids. It is this: "As the fluids of the human body do all of them suffer a continual waste, and consequently require a constant supply in proportion, we must look upon their going out of the body to be the end of their motion, and on their entering into the body to be the beginning of it; and hence we are to look for the origin of all the motions of the fluids, in that part of the system where the new supplies are taken in. This is the *prima via*, where the lacteals absorb a fluid from the digested aliment, and convey it into the blood. The power by which this is accomplished, is necessarily independent of the heart, as having not the least connection with it. It has been said to be the same with that which causes fluids rise in capillary tubes; but though very probably the powers in both cases may be the same, there is this remarkable difference between them, that in the capillary tubes the fluids only rise to a certain height, and will not rise at all unless the tubes are empty. In the lacteals they rise in vessels already full, and continue to do so. Neither is the force whereby this absorption is performed to be accounted little; seeing the supply by the chyle must constantly be equal to the waste, which is continually taking place in the fluids already contained in the vessels. We see also, with what force an absorption of this kind sometimes takes place in other cases; thus ropes will absorb water with such strength as to raise immense weights fastened to them, and which no mechanical injection of water into small tubes could possibly accomplish. What is already said of the lacteals applies also to the lymphatics; and from thence we are almost tempted to conclude, that the case is the same with the sanguiferous veins also; that though there may be a continuation of some arteries into the veins corresponding with them, yet that for the most part these vessels extravasate the blood into small cavities, which is then taken up by the absorbent power of the veins, and returned to the heart. If, however, the vessels continued absolutely full, it would be impossible that any motion could be carried on in them; and to continue and regulate the circulation, the heart with its cavities is provided. Let us suppose, that by the above-mentioned power the veins are all full, and the auricles or chambers into which the veins empty themselves are full also: where is the collected stream in the veins to go next? There is no room for more in the auricles. What must be done? The auricle contracts and empties itself. The consequence is a sudden vacuum equal to what the auricle could contain; the turgid veins, urged by the absorbing power above-mentioned, rush their contents into the auricle to fill up the vacuum again, and all behind moving in the venous direction advances forward with so much force, that the veins near the heart sustain a pulsation from the regurgitation of this impetuous stream, when the auricle shuts upon it to empty itself. In short, the full auricle occupies

a determinate quantity of ſpace in the breaſt: when it is emptied, there is a nonreſiſting vacuum of ſo much ſpace as was full before, and thither there is a mechanical niſus from the remoteſt filament of a vein over the whole body, which becomes conſpicuous in the torrent that ruſhes every other moment from the mouth of the vena cava into this vacuum." This is a ſhort abſtract of Dr Wilſon's new theory of the circulation. According to him, this abſorbing power of the veins is the principle agent, while the heart and arteries only empty themſelves of the blood with which they are filled by the veins. Even this cauſe, however, he ſays, would not be ſufficient to carry on the circulation for a ſingle moment, without the preſence of another, which he calls *life*, and does not conſider as abſolutely unmechanical, though we cannot reduce it either to mechanical rules or ideas. But as all ſpeculations concerning ſuch cauſes ſeem to be arbitrary and without foundation, we forbear to quote the Doctor's opinions farther on this ſubject.

(12.) BLOOD, VITALITY OF THE. The uſes to which the blood is ſubſervient in the animal œconomy, are ſo various, and of ſuch an important nature, that ſome have affirmed the blood to be actually poſſeſſed of a living principle, and that the life of the whole body is derived from it. This opinion was firſt broached by the celebrated Harvey, the diſcoverer of the circulation: but in this he was never much followed; and the hypotheſis itſelf, indeed, had been pretty much laid aſide and neglected, till within theſe few years, that it was revived by Mr J. Hunter, late profeſſor of anatomy in London; and adopted by Dr Corrie and others. Mr Hunter ſupports his opinion by the following arguments: 1. The blood unites living parts, in ſome circumſtances, as certainly, as the yet recent juices of the branch of one tree unite it with that of another. Were either of theſe fluids to be conſidered as extraneous or dead matters, he thinks they would act as ſtimuli, and no union would take place in the animal or vegetable kingdom. This argument, Mr Hunter imagines, is ſtill farther eſtabliſhed by the following experiment. Having taken off the teſticle from a living cock, he introduced it into the belly of a living hen. Many weeks afterwards upon injecting the liver of the hen, he injected the teſticle of the cock; which had come in contact with the liver, and adhered to it. He alledges, that in the nature of things, there is not a more intimate connection between life and a ſolid, than between life and a fluid. For although we are more accuſtomed to connect it with the one than the other, yet the only real difference which can be ſhown between a ſolid and a fluid is, that the particles of the one are leſs moveable among themſelves than thoſe of the other. Beſides, we often ſee the ſame body fluid in one caſe and ſolid in another. 2. The blood becomes vaſcular like other living parts. Mr Hunter affirms, that, after amputations, the coagula in the extremities of arteries may be injected by injecting theſe arteries; and he had a preparation in which he demonſtrated veſſels riſing from the centre of what had been a coagulum of blood, and opening into the ſtream of the circulating blood. 3. Blood taken from the arm in the moſt intenſe cold which the human body can bear raiſes the thermometer to the ſame height as blood taken in the moſt ſultry heat. This he conſiders as a ſtrong proof of the blood being alive; as living bodies alone have the power of reſiſting great degrees both of heat and cold, and of maintaining in almoſt every ſituation, while in health, that temperature which we diſtinguiſh by the name of *animal heat*. 4. Blood is capable of being acted upon by a ſtimulus. In proof of this, he obſerves that it coagulates from expoſure, as certainly as the cavities of the abdomen and thorax inflamed from the ſame cauſe. The more it is alive, that is, the more the animal is in health, it coagulates the ſooner on expoſure; and the more it has loſt of its living principle, as in the caſe of violent inflammations, the leſs it is ſenſible to the ſtimulus produced from its being expoſed, and it coagulates the later. 5. The blood preſerves life in different parts of the body. When the nerves going to a part are tied or cut, the part becomes paralytic, and loſes all power of motion; but it does not mortify. If the artery be cut, the part dies and mortification enſues. What keeps it alive in the firſt caſe? Mr Hunter ſays it is the living principle which alone can keep it alive; and he thinks that this phenomenon is inexplicable on any other ſuppoſition, than that life is ſupported by the blood. 6. Another argument he draws from a caſe of a fractured os humeri he had occaſion to obſerve. A man was brought into St George's hoſpital for a ſimple fracture of the os humeri and died about a month after the accident. As the bones had not united, Mr Hunter injected the arm after death. He found that the cavity between the extremities of the bones was filled up with blood which had coagulated. This blood was become vaſcular. In ſome places it was very much ſo. He does not maintain that all coagulated blood becomes vaſcular: and indeed the reaſon is obvious; for it is often thrown out and coagulated in parts where its becoming vaſcular could anſwer no end in the ſyſtem: as, for example, in the cavities of aneuriſmal ſacs. If it be ſuppoſed, that, in ſuch caſes as that juſt now mentioned, the veſſels are not formed in the coagulum, but come from the neighbouring arteries he thinks it equally an argument that the blood is alive; for the ſubſtance into which veſſels ſhoot muſt be ſo. The very idea, that ſuch a quantity of dead matter, as the whole maſs of blood, circulates in a living body, appears abſurd. The ſyſtem, which at preſent ſtands oppoſed to that of Mr Hunter, conſiders the brain and nervous ſyſtem as the fountain of life; and that, ſo far from receiving its life from the blood, the nervous ſyſtem is capable of inſtantaneouſly changing the craſis of the blood, or any other animal fluid; and though the nervous ſyſtem cannot continue its actions for any length of time, if the action of the blood-veſſels is ſuſpended, yet the heart and blood-veſſels cannot act for a ſingle moment without the influence of the nervous fluid. Hence ſay they, it is plain we muſt ſuppoſe the nervous ſyſtem, and not the blood, to contain properly the life of the animal, and conſequently to be the principal vital organ. The ſecretion of the vital fluid from the blood by means of the brain, is, by

the ſupporters of this hypotheſis, denied. They ſay, that any fluid ſecreted from the blood muſt be aqueous, inelaſtic, and inactive; whereas the nervous fluid is full of vigour, elaſtic, and volatile in the higheſt degree. The great neceſſity for the circulation of the blood through all parts of the body, notwithſtanding the preſence of the nervous fluid in the ſame parts, they ſay is, becauſe ſome degree of tenſion is neceſſary to be given to the fibres, in order to fit them for the influx of the nervous fluid; and this tenſion they receive from the repletion of the blood-veſſels, which are every where diſperſed along with the nerves. To follow this diſpute through every argument uſed by both parties, would prove tedious, and in a great meaſure unneceſſary, as the following ſhort conſideration ſeems to decide the matter abſolutely againſt the patrons of the nervous ſyſtem. In the firſt place, if we can prove the life of the human body to have exiſted in, or to have been communicated from a fluid to the nervous ſyſtem, the analogical argument will be very ſtrongly in favour of the ſuppoſition, that the caſe is ſo ſtill. Now, that the caſe once was ſo, is evident; for the human body, as well as the body of every other living creature, in its firſt ſtate, is a gelatinous maſs, without muſcles, nerves, or blood-veſſels. Nevertheleſs, this gelatinous matter, even at that time, contained the nervous fluid. Of this there can be no doubt, becauſe the nerves were formed out of it, and had their power originally from it; and what is remarkable, the brain is obſerved to be that part of the animal which is firſt formed. Of this gelatinous fluid we can give no other account, than that it was the nutritious matter from which the whole body appears to be formed. At the original formation of man, and other animals, therefore, the nutritious matter was the ſubſtratum of the whole body, conſiſting of muſcles, nerves, blood-veſſels, &c. nay more, it was the immediate efficient cauſe of the nervous power itſelf. Why ſhould it not be ſo now as well as then? Again, in the formation of the embryo, we ſee a vital principle exiſting as it were at large, and forming to itſelf a kind of regulator to its own motions, or a habitation in which it chooſes to reſide, rather than to act at random in the fluid. This habitation, or regulator, was undoubtedly the nervous ſyſtem, and continues ſo to this moment; but at the ſame time, it is no leſs evident, that a nutritious fluid was the immediate origin of theſe ſame nerves, and of that very nervous fluid. Now the fluid, which in the womb nouriſhes the bodies of all embryo animals, is neceſſarily equivalent to the blood which nouriſhes the bodies of adult ones; and conſequently, as ſoon as the blood became the only nutritious juice of the body, at that inſtant the vital or nervous fluid took up its reſidence there, and from the blood diffuſed itſelf along the nerves, where it was regulated exactly according to the model originally formed in the embryo. Perhaps it may be ſaid, that the vital power, when once it has taken poſſeſſion of the human or any other body, requires no addition or ſupply, but continues there in the ſame quantity from firſt to laſt. If we ſuppoſe the nervous power to be immaterial, this will indeed be the caſe, and there is an end of reaſoning upon the ſubject; but if we call this power a volatile and elaſtic fluid, it is plain that there will be more occaſion for recruits to ſuch a power, than to any other fluid of the body, as its volatility and elaſticity will promote its eſcape in great quantities through every part of the body. It may alſo be objected, that it is abſurd to ſuppoſe any fluid, or mechanical cauſe, capable of putting matter in ſuch a form as to direct its own motions in a particular way: but even of this we have a poſitive proof in the caſe of the electric fluid. For if any quantity of this matter has a tendency to go from one place to another where it meets with difficulty, through the air, for inſtance, it will throw ſmall conducting ſubſtances before it, in order to facilitate its progreſs. Alſo, if a number of ſmall and light conducting ſubſtances are laid between two metallic bodies, ſo as to form a circle, for example; a ſhock of electricity will deſtroy that circle, and place the ſmall conducting ſubſtances nearer to a ſtraight line between the two metals, as if the fluid knew there was a ſhorter paſſage, and reſolved to take that, if it ſhould have occaſion to return. (See ELECTRICITY.) Laſtly, it is univerſally allowed, that the brain is a ſecretory organ, made up of an infinite number of ſmall glands, which have no other excretories than the medullary fibres and nerves. As a conſiderable quantity of blood is carried to the brain, and the minute arteries end in theſe ſmall glands, it follows, that the fluid, whatever it is, muſt come from the blood. Now, there is no gland whatever, in the human, or any other body, but will diſcharge the fluid it is appointed to ſecrete, in very conſiderable quantity, if its excretory is cut. Upon the cutting of a nerve, therefore, the fluid ſecreted by the brain ought to be diſcharged; but no ſuch diſcharge is viſible. A ſmall quantity of glairy matter is indeed diſcharged from the large nerves; but this can be no other than the nutritious juice neceſſary for their ſupport. This makes it plain even to demonſtration, that the fluid ſecreted in the brain is *inviſible* in its nature; and as we know the nervous fluid hath its reſidence in the brain, it is very probable, to uſe no ſtronger expreſſion, that it is the peculiar province of the brain to ſecrete this fluid from the blood, and conſequently that the blood originally contains the vital principle.

(13.) BLOOD, VIVIFYING PRINCIPLE OF THE. When it is allowed that the blood contains the vital principle, (§ 12.) it becomes another queſtion not very eaſily ſolved, Whence is this vital principle derived?—For this we can only diſcover two ſources; namely, the chyle or aliment from which the blood is prepared, and reſpiration. The latter hath been commonly held as the principal ſource of the vital principle; and, for a long time, it was generally thought that there was a kind of vivifying ſpirit in the air, which being abſorbed by the blood at each inſpiration, communicated to that fluid the quality neceſſary for preſerving animal life. As a proof of this it was urged, that life cannot be ſupported without reſpiration, and that air which hath been often breathed ceaſes to be capable of ſupporting life; becauſe when once it has been totally deprived of its vivifying ſpirit, it can communicate none to the blood, in any

subſequent reſpirations. This doctrine, however, has been denied. Dr Hales brings ſeveral experiments againſt it; of which the following may ſerve for a ſpecimen. "I tied a middle-ſized dog alive on a table, and, having laid bare his wind-pipe, I cut it aſunder juſt below the larynx, and fixed faſt to it the ſmall end of a common foſſet: the other end of the foſſet had a large bladder tied to it, which contained 162 cubic inches; and to the other end of the bladder was tied the great end of another foſſet, whoſe orifice was covered with a valve which opened inwards, ſo as to admit any air that was blown into the bladder, but none could return that way; yet, for further ſecurity, that paſſage was alſo ſtopped by a ſpigot. As ſoon as the firſt foſſet was tied faſt to the wind-pipe, the bladder was blown full of air through the other foſſet: when the dog had breathed the air in the bladder to and fro for a minute or two, he then breathed very faſt, and ſhowed great uneaſineſs, as being almoſt ſuffocated. Then with my hand I preſſed the bladder hard, ſo as to drive the air into his lungs with ſome force; and thereby make his abdomen riſe by the preſſure of the diaphragm, as in natural breathings; then taking alternately my hand off the bladder, the lungs with the abdomen ſubſided: I continued in this manner to make the dog breathe for an hour; during which time, I was obliged to blow freſh air into the bladder every five minutes, 3 parts in 4 of that air being either abſorbed by the vapours in the lungs, or eſcaping through the ligatures upon my preſſing hard on the bladder. During this hour, the dog was frequently near expiring, whenever I preſſed the air but weakly into his lungs; as I found by his pulſe, which was very plain to be felt in the great crural artery near the groin, which place an aſſiſtant held his finger on moſt part of the time: but the languid pulſe was accelerated ſo as to beat faſt, ſoon after I dilated the lungs much by preſſing hard upon the bladder; eſpecially when the motion of the lungs was promoted by preſſing alternately the abdomen and the bladder, whereby both the contraction and dilatation of the lungs were increaſed. And I could by this means rouſe the languid pulſe whenever I pleaſed, not only at the end of every 5 minutes, when more air was blown into the bladder from a man's lungs, but alſo towards the end of the 5 minutes, when the air was fulleſt of fumes. At the end of the hour, I intended to try whether I could have by the ſame means kept the dog alive ſome time longer, when the bladder was filled with the fumes of burning brimſtone; but being obliged to ceaſe for a little time from preſſing the air into his lungs, while matters were preparing for this additional experiment, in the mean time the dog died, which might otherwiſe have lived longer, if I had continued to force the air into the lungs. Now, though this experiment was ſo frequently diſturbed, by being obliged to blow more air into the bladder 12 times during the hour; yet ſince he was almoſt ſuffocated in leſs than two minutes, breathing of himſelf to and fro the firſt air in bladder, he would have died in leſs than two utes when one fourth of the old air remained e bladder, immediately to taint the new air admitted from a man's lungs; ſo that his continuing to live through the whole hour, muſt be owing to the forcible dilatation of the lungs by compreſſing the bladder, and not to the vivifying ſpirit of the air." Dr Prieſtley at firſt concluded from his own obſervations, and no doubt very juſtly, that air which hath been often breathed becomes pernicious by its accumulated phlogiſton, ſtimulating the lungs, and making the animal fall into convulſions. Reſpiration, therefore, he ſuppoſed to be a phlogiſtic proceſs, in which the blood parts with its ſuperfluous phlogiſton. He did not ſay, that the blood receives nothing in exchange; but rather that it may receive ſome nitrous principle, which gives it the red colour: but as to a vivifying ſpirit, he doth not appear to have had the leaſt idea of any ſuch thing being received at that time. Nay, in his firſt volume, p. 277. he expreſsly adopts the other hypotheſis, namely, that the vital principle is received from the chyle. "My conjecture (ſays he) is, that animals have a power of converting phlogiſton, from the ſtate in which they receive it in their nutriment, into that ſtate in which it is called the *electrical fluid*; that the brain, beſides its other proper uſes, is the great laboratory and repoſitory for this purpoſe; that by means of the nerves this great principle, thus exalted, is directed into the muſcles, and forces them to act in the ſame manner as they are forced into action, when the electric fluid is thrown into them *ab extra*." With regard to Dr Hales's opinion, that the want of elaſticity, or preſſure, is the reaſon why phlogiſticated air cannot ſupport animal life, we apprehend it to be totally inconcluſive, becauſe it does not appear that phlogiſticated air wants elaſticity; on the contrary, from Dr Prieſtley's experiments it appears to be more elaſtic than common air. Beſides, the elaſticity of every fluid muſt always be in proportion to the preſſure upon it, as reaction is always equal to action. Suppoſing therefore the elaſticity of any portion of air to be deſtroyed, the preſſure of the ſuperincumbent atmoſphere will reduce it into a proportionably leſs bulk, and then it is equally elaſtic with the reſt; for if it is not, it would behove it ſtill to yield under the preſſure. Hence we may ſee, that as the bladder made uſe of in Dr Hales's experiment was by no means ſufficient to keep off the preſſure of the external atmoſphere, the death of the dog could not be fairly aſcribed to want of elaſticity in the tainted air. When he applied more force than the natural elaſticity of the air, he kept the dog *alive*, as he calls it, for an hour; but we can by no means allow a mechanical circulation of the blood to be *life*, any more than we can allow a dead body to be alive on account of the motion of its arm, or any other member, by mechanical means. This experiment, however ſhows, that reſpiration is one of the immediate mechanical agents by which the circulation of the blood is carried on; but in order to prove that the dog was really kept alive by this means, he ought to have recovered from the effects of the experiment. Had Dr Hales tried a ſimilar experiment on himſelf, by taking the foſſet in his mouth, cloſing his noſtrils, and cauſing another perſon compreſs the bladder, we have not the leaſt doub

doubt that he would have felt ſuch a method of breathing, not to be a way of preſerving life, but of deſtroying it. As to Dr Prieſtley's concluſions, it has been argued, that "though he found air diminiſhed by admitting phlogiſton to it, Dr Prieſtley finds the mere acceſſion of any material ſubſtance can never diminiſh, but muſt increaſe, its bulk. The diminution, therefore, on the acceſſion of phlogiſton, is an evident proof that ſome part of the air is actually taken away. That the phlogiſton received is not incorporated with the air, is likewiſe evident, as well as that it takes up ſpace in the tainted air, becauſe, by agitation in water, the phlogiſtic matter ſeparates from the air, and enters into the water. The conſequence of this is, that the air is ſtill farther diminiſhed in bulk; and what remains is pure air, fit for ſupporting animal life, and of being farther diminiſhed by phlogiſton as before. It appears alſo certain, that phlogiſton is not endowed with any inherent power by which it can expand itſelf; otherwiſe it would fly off *in vacuo*, which it is never known to do. Another circumſtance we muſt alſo attend to is, that the action of phlogiſton ſeems to be entirely confined to a particular part of the atmoſphere; namely, that which is now ſo well known by the name of *fixed air*. This it entirely deprives of its elaſtic principle, ſo that it is actually no longer air, but becomes a ſolid ſubſtance, making a part, and that no inconſiderable one, of innumerable terreſtrial ſubſtances, as chalk, limeſtone, &c." That the juſtneſs of the concluſion to be drawn from Dr Prieſtley's experiments may be more apparent, the phenomena were ſummed up in the two following propoſitions. "1. Phlogiſton cannot act by itſelf without the aſſiſtance of air. 2. The emiſſion of phlogiſton is attended with the total deſtruction of the elaſticity of a certain quantity of fixed air, which then ceaſes to be fixed. Hence we affirm, that it is not the phlogiſtic ſubſtance which acts upon the air, but the elaſtic principle in the fixed air contained in the common atmoſphere, that acts on the phlogiſtic ſubſtance. This elaſtic principle, entering the phlogiſtic body, diſplaces a quantity of phlogiſton equivalent to its own quantity, and takes its place; and hence proceeds the firſt diminution of the air, not from an acceſſion of phlogiſton, but from an eſcape of the elaſtic principle belonging to fixed air. The phlogiſton and fixed particles of the air now hang looſe like ſmoke or vapour, and are ready to be attracted by any thing capable of imbibing them; and hence proceeds the ſecond diminution by agitation in water. Now to apply this reaſoning, The blood is found to emit phlogiſton from the lungs at every exſpiration; therefore we affirm it has received a proportional quantity of elaſtic vapour which it had not before. Again: The air expelled from the lungs is found to contain much of the fixable part floating looſe, and incapable of being attracted by lime-water, &c. therefore we ſay, this elaſtic principle hath come from that part of the atmoſphere. But, to put the matter beyond doubt, the very inſpection of arterial and venous blood ſhows, that the firſt has a quantity of elaſtic matter in it which the laſt wants: and as the brain as well as all other parts of the body are ſupplied with arterial blood, we think it abundantly evident, that this elaſtic principle is abſolutely and eſſentially neceſſary to life; that it is continually expended thereon; and that it may be ſaid with the utmoſt propriety, that every time we draw the air into our lungs, we receive a portion of vivifying or vital ſpirit from it into our blood. Add to all this, that many ſubſtances, which are commonly obſerved to phlogiſticate air, appear to receive an elaſtic ſpirit by ſo doing. Putrefying bodies ſwell: they would not do ſo *in vacuo*; and therefore we muſt conclude, that they receive this elaſtic principle which ſwells them from the external air, and experience ſhows that it is communicated by this fixable part of the atmoſphere. The foregoing reaſoning leads to a very important diſcovery in natural philoſophy, *viz.* That it is to the atmoſphere, and to that particular part of it which goes by the name of *fixed air*, that we are every moment indebted for that vital ſpirit which animates our bodies, and is the immediate bond of union betwixt our immaterial ſpirit and this viſible world. It may be aſked indeed, If fixed air is capable of ſupplying this ſpirit in ſuch plenty, how comes it to be ſo inſtantaneouſly fatal when breathed? The reply to this, however, is obvious: it communicates too great a degree of elaſticity to the blood; whence the circulation is ſtopped, and inſtant death enſues. That this is really the caſe, appears from the following account of the ſymptoms obſerved on the diſſection of perſons who have been ſuffocated by this kind of air. 1. The veſſels of the brain are gorged with blood, and the ventricles of that viſcus are filled ſometimes with a frothy, ſometimes with a bloody ſerofity. 2. The trunk of the pulmonary artery is much diſtended, and the lungs appear nearly in a natural ſtate. 3. The right ventricle and auricle of the heart, the venæ cavæ, and jugular veins, are full of frothy blood. 4. Bloody ſerofity is often found in the bronchiæ. 5. The trunk of the pulmonary veins, and the left auricle, are either empty, or almoſt empty, of blood. 6. The blood found in the places that have been mentioned is generally fluid, and as it were in a diſſolved ſtate. It is eaſily extravaſated into the cellular texture of the head particularly, becauſe it is in this part that it abounds moſt. 7. The epiglottis in ſuffocated perſons is raiſed, and the glottis open and free. 8. The tongue is much ſwelled, and can hardly be contained within the mouth. 9. The eyes protrude, and preſerve their luſtre to the ſecond or third day. They are often even brighter than natural. 10. The body preſerves its heat for a long time. Nay the heat is ſometimes greater than it is during life, or at leaſt conſiſtently with health. 11. The limbs are flexible for a long time after death. 12. The face is more ſwelled, and often more red than uſual. 13. The neck and upper extremities are ſometimes ſo much ſwelled, that they appear to be inflamed. Theſe ſwellings, however, do not, like œdematous ones, preſerve the impreſſions of the finger. This theory ſeemed much in favour of what had been advanced concerning the action of fixed air: and it was obſerved, that this elaſtic principle would ſeem to be the cauſe of animal heat; for as the blood evidently received a vaſt quantity of elaſtic fluid, it alſo received a mu-

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greater proportion of heat than uſual. Such was the mode of reaſoning adopted ſome years ago, derived from the diſcoveries which had then been made in AEROLOGY. Succeeding diſcoveries, however, have made it evident, that fixed air is not one of the natural component parts of our atmoſphere, but that it conſiſts of two different fluids; one of which is commonly called PHLOGISTICATED, the other DEPHLOGISTICATED, AIR. It is the latter which ſupplies the vital principle; and the above reaſoning ſtill holds good, only ſubſtituting the words *dephlogiſticated air* for *fixed air*. The poiſonous quality of the latter ſeems alſo ſtill to depend on its too eaſy decompoſition; by which means the elaſtic principle is diſcharged into the blood in ſuch quantity as to burſt the ſmall veſſels, as has been obſerved. This is ſhown indeed by the remedies moſt proper for the recovery of thoſe who have ſuffered from the noxious qualities of fixed air. Theſe conſiſt in evacuation, and eſpecially ſprinkling the body with cold water, in order to take off the ſuperfluous heat, and produce an univerſal contraction of the veſſels.

(14.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN ANTIQUITY. Among the ancients blood was uſed for the ſealing and ratifying covenants and alliances, which was done by the contracting parties drinking a little of each other's blood; and for appeaſing the manes of the dead, in order to which, blood was offered on their tombs as part of the funeral ceremony.

(15.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN ARTS. The principal uſe of blood in the arts is for making Pruſſian blue, or ſometimes for clarifying certain liquors; it is alſo recommended in agriculture as an excellent manure for fruit trees. A mixture of blood with lime makes an exceedingly ſtrong cement; and hence it is of uſe in the preparation of ſome chemical lutes, the making floors, &c. See ARCHITECTURE, § 242.

(16.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN DIET. As a food, it hath been diſputed whether blood really affords any nouriſhment or not. The beſt judges now, however, are generally agreed that it is very nutritious; and though out of the body, like the white of an egg, it is very inſoluble, yet, like that too, *in* the body it is commonly of eaſy digeſtion. It is, however, highly alkaleſcent in hot climates; on which account the prohibition of it to the Iſraelites was very proper. Even in this country, when blood was uſed as food in great quantity, the ſcurvy was more frequent than at other times; but to a moderate uſe of it here no ſuch objection takes place. In ſome countries we are told, that the barbarians were accuſtomed to intoxicate themſelves by drinking the warm blood of animals; and as it has been ſhown (§ 12.) that this fluid is the immediate reſervoir of the vital principle, it ſeems by no means improbable, that it may be poſſeſſed of an inebriating quality. Some expreſſions in Scripture ſeem to countenance this hypotheſis. The eating of blood is ſuppoſed to have been prohibited to the Jews, principally with a view to the uſe of ſacrifices in divine worſhip, and as a token of reſpect to the altar, at which the blood of every victim was preſented before God. The prohibition was repeated by the apoſtles at the council of Jeruſalem, confirmed and defended by all the fathers, except St Auguſtin, and the univerſal practice, both of the eaſtern and weſtern churches, till his time; and, in many churches, even of the weſt, much longer, as low as the middle of the 10th, ſome ſay of the 11th century. The queſtion is, whether the apoſtolic precept to abſtain from blood, was only a temporary ſort of accommodation to the weakneſs of the Jewiſh converts; or a perpetual precept founded on moral principles, and conſequently ſtill obligatory? The former opinion ſeems the more probable; though the advocates for the latter urge, that blood is prohibited, becauſe it tends to make men ſavage; that the prohibition is joined with that of fornication, which is an immorality; that on theſe accounts it was prohibited to Noah, and that God has enjoined abſtinence from blood on all Chriſtians, to manifeſt his ſupreme power over all their enjoyments. See BAPTISTS, § 13. x.

(17.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN MEDICINE. Blood was formerly held in great eſteem as a medicine for ſome particular diſeaſes. Baths of the blood of infants have been recommended as an infallible remedy for the elephantiaſis, &c. and the blood of goats and ſome other animals was uſed by the Galeniſts, and is recommended by Dr Mead in pleuriſies: but the firſt inhuman medicine, as well as the other, is now deſervedly exploded.

(18.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN RELIGION. The blood of victims was anciently the portion of the gods; and accordingly was poured or ſprinkled on the altar in oblation to them. The prieſts made another uſe of blood, viz. for divination: the ſtreaming of blood from the earth, fire, and the like, was held a prodigy or omen of evil. The Roman prieſts were not unacquainted with the uſe of blood in miracles; they had the fluxes of blood from images, ready to ſerve a turn; witneſs that ſaid to have ſtreamed from the ſtatue of Minerva at Modena, before the battle at that place. But we know not whether in this their ſucceſſors have not gone beyond them. How many relations in eccleſiaſtical writers of Madonas, crucifixes, and wafers, bleeding? The liquefaction of the blood of St Januarius at Naples, repeated annually for ſo many ages, ſeems to tranſcend by far all the frauds of the Grecian or Roman prieſthood. But the chemiſts at laſt got into the ſecret; and we find M. Neumann at Berlin, performed the miracle of the liquefaction of dried blood, with all the circumſtances of the Neapolitan miracle. Among the ſchoolmen, we find a famous diſpute, under Pope Pius II. whether the blood of Chriſt which fell from him in the three days paſſion, retained or loſt by the hypoſtatic union; and conſequently whether it was the proper object of adoration. The Dominicans maintained the former, the Franciſcans the latter. The dominican doctrine gained the aſcendant, as being fitteſt to favour the profits of the monks; who becoming poſſeſſed of a few drops of this precious liquor, were ſecured of ample offerings from the deluded laity who flocked to pay their homage to the ſacred relic. Joſeph of Arimathea is ſaid to have firſt brought into Britain two ſilver veſſels filled with the blood of Chriſt, which by his order was buried in his tomb. King Henry III. had a cryſtal bottle containing a portion of the ſame blood, ſent him by

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the maſter of the temple at Jeruſalem, atteſted by the ſeals of the patriarch; which treaſure the king committed to the church of St Peter's Weſtminſter, and obtained from the biſhops an indulgence of ſix years and 116 days to all that ſhould viſit it. Mat. Paris even aſſures us, that the king's ſummoning his nobles and prelates to celebrate the feaſt of St Edward in St Peter's church, was chiefly *pro veneratione ſanctæ ſanguinis Chriſti nuper adepti*, "in veneration of the holy blood of Chriſt lately acquired." Divers others of our monaſteries were poſſeſſed of this profitable relic; as the college of Bons Hommes at Aſhridge, and the abbey of Hales, to whom it was given by Henry, ſon of Richard duke of Cornwall, and king of the Romans. To it reſorted a great concourſe of people for devotion and adoration; till in 1538, as the reformation took place, it was perceived to be only honey clarified and coloured with ſaffron, as was ſhown at St Paul's croſs by the biſhop of Rocheſter. The like diſcovery was made of the blood of Chriſt, found among the relics in the abbey of Feſcamp in Normandy, pretended to have been preſerved by Nicodemus, when he took the body from the croſs, and given to that abbey by William duke of Normandy: it was buried by his ſon Richard, and again diſcovered in 1171, and attended with different miracles; but the cheat, which had been long winked at, was at length expoſed, the relation of which is given by Speed.

(II.) BLOOD, in alchemy and chemiſtry, is a denomination given to ſeveral artificial compoſitions, on account of their red colour. Alchemiſts chiefly apply it to tinctures.

(III.) BLOOD, in farriery, denotes a diſtemper in the back of a horſe, which makes him in going draw his head aſide, or after him: the cure is by cutting the length of two joints under the tail, and thus letting the beaſt bleed plentifully.

(IV.) BLOOD, in law, (See § I. 1. *Def.* 3.) is diſtinguiſhed, as either HALF BLOOD, or WHOLE BLOOD.

1. BLOOD, HALF, is app'ied to perſons deſcended from one common anceſtor, either on the father's or mother's ſide, by two different marriages.

2. BLOOD, WHOLE, is applied to perſons deſcended from the ſame couple of anceſtors.

(V.) BLOOD, in pharmacy, is applied to ſome vegetable juices; ſuch as DRAGON'S BLOOD, &c.

(VI.) BLOOD, Thomas, commonly called *Colonel Blood*; was a diſbanded officer of Oliver Cromwell's, famous for his daring crimes and his good fortune. He was firſt diſtinguiſhed by engaging in a conſpiracy to ſurpriſe the caſtle of Dublin; which was defeated by the vigilance of the D. of Ormond, and ſome of his accomplices were executed. Eſcaping to England, he meditated revenge againſt Ormond; and actually ſeized him one night in his coach at St James's Street, where he might have finiſhed his purpoſe if he had not ſtudied refinements in his vengeance. He bound him on horſeback behind one of his aſſociates, reſolving to hang him at Tyburn, with a paper pinned on his breaſt: but when they got into the fields, the duke threw himſelf and the aſſaſſin, to whom he was faſtened, to the ground; and while they were ſtruggling in the mire, he was reſcued by his ſervants; but the authors of this attempt were not then diſcovered. After living a conſiderable time among the malcontents in Ireland, he went to Holland; where he became intimate with ſome of the principal perſons of the republic, particularly the famous admiral De Ruyter. He returned thence to England, with recommendations to the republican party; whence he went to Scotland, where he contributed much to the breaking out of the inſurrection; and was preſent in the action of Pentland Hills, on the 27th Nov. 1666; in which the inſurgents were routed, and about 500 killed. He returned to England, where he reſcued his friend Captain Maſon from a party of ſoldiers, who were conducting him to his trial. In 1671, Blood formed a deſign of carrying off the crown and regalia from the tower; a deſign, to which he was prompted, as well by the ſurpriſing boldneſs of the enterprize, as by the views of profit. He was very near ſucceeding. He had bound and wounded Edwards the keeper of the jewel office, and had got out of the tower with his prey; but was overtaken and ſeized, with ſome of his aſſociates. One of them was known to have been concerned in the attempt upon Ormond; and Blood was immediately concluded to be the ringleader. When queſtioned, he frankly avowed the enterprize; but refuſed to diſcover his acomplices. "The fear of death, he ſaid, ſhould never engage him either to deny a guilt, or betray a friend." All theſe extraordinary circumſtances made him the general ſubject of converſation; and the king was moved with an idle curioſity to ſee and ſpeak with a perſon ſo noted for his courage and his crimes. Blood wanted not addreſs to improve this opportunity of obtaining a pardon. He told Charles, that he had been engaged, with others, in a deſign to kill him with a carabine above Butterſea, where his majeſty often went to bathe: that the cauſe of this reſolution was the ſeverity exerciſed over the conſciences of the godly, in reſtraining the liberty of their religious aſſemblies: that when he had taken his ſtand among the reeds, full of theſe bloody reſolutions, he found his heart checked with an *awe of majeſty*; and he not only relented himſelf, but diverted his aſſociates from their purpoſe: that he had long ago brought himſelf to an entire indifference about life, which he now gave for loſt; yet could he not forbear warning the king of the danger which might attend his execution; that his aſſociates had bound themſelves by the ſtricteſt oaths to revenge the death of any of their confederacy; and that no precaution nor power could ſecure any one from the effects of their deſperate reſolutions. Whether theſe conſiderations excited fear or admiration in the king, they confirmed his reſolution of granting a pardon to Blood; but he thought it a requiſite point of decency firſt to obtain the D. of Ormond's conſent. Arlington came to Ormond in the king's name, and deſired that he would not proſecute Blood, for reaſons which he was commanded to give him. The duke replied, that his majeſty's commands were the only reaſon that could be given; and being ſufficient, he might therefore ſpare the reſt. Charles carried his kind-

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nels to Blood ſtill farther; he granted him an eſtate of L. 500 a year in Ireland; he encouraged his attendance about his perſon; he ſhowed him great countenance; and many applied to him for promoting their pretenſions at court. And while old Edwards, who had bravely ventured his life, and had been wounded, in defending the crown and regalia, was forgotten and neglected, this man, who deſerved to be hanged, became a kind of favourite. Blood enjoyed his penſion about 10 years, till being charged with fixing an imputation of a ſcandalous nature on the D. of Buckingham, he was thrown into priſon; yet, though the damages were laid at L. 10,000, Blood found bail. He died however ſoon after, on the 24th Aug. 1680. But the public had now got ſuch a notion of the reſtleſs ſpirit of Blood, that they would not believe he could reſt even in the grave. Nor did they indeed permit him to do ſo; for a ſtory being circulated that his death and burial was only a new trick, preparatory to ſome extraordinary exploit, it gained credit to ſuch a degree, that the body was obliged to be taken up and the coroner's inqueſt to ſit upon it, and to call witneſſes to prove the identity of the Colonel's corpſe, before the public could be fully perſuaded, that ſo extraordinary a genius was actually dead.

* *To* BLOOD. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſtain with blood.—

Then all approach the ſlain with vaſt ſurpriſe,
And, ſcarce ſecure, reach out their ſpears afar,
And *blood* their points, to prove their partnerſhip in war. *Dryden's Fables.*

—He was *blooded* up to his elbows by a couple of Moors, whom he butchered with his own imperial hands. *Addiſon.* 2. To enter; to enure to blood, as a hound.—

Fairer than faireſt, let none ever ſay,
That ye were *blooded* in a yielded prey.
Spenſer's Sonnets.

3. To *blood*, is ſometimes to let blood medically. 4. To heat; to exaſperate.—When the faculties intellectual are in vigour, not drenched, or, as it were, *blooded* by the affections. *Bacon's Apophthegms.*—By this means, matters grew more exaſperate; the auxiliary forces of French and Engliſh were much *blooded* one againſt another. *Bacon's Henry* VII.

BLOOD, AVENGER OF, among the Jews, was the next of kin to the perſon murdered, who was to purſue the murderer.

* BLOOD-BOLTERED. *adj.* [from *blood* and *bolter*] Blood ſprinkled.—

The *blood-bolter'd* Banquo ſmiles upon me.
Macbeth.

(1.) BLOOD, DRAGON'S, [*ſanguis draconis,*] is uſed by the Arabs for the juice of the ANCHUSA.

(2.) BLOOD, DRAGON'S. See DRAGON'S BLOOD.

BLOOD, EFFUSION OF, in canon law, is ſuppoſed to pollute all concerned with it, however innocently; and therefore eccleſiaſtical judges retire, when judgment is to be given in *caſes of blood*, by reaſon the church is ſuppoſed to abhor blood. It condemns no perſon to death; and its members become irregular, or diſabled from their functions, by the effuſion of blood.

BLOOD, FIELD OF. See ACELDAMA. It ſtill ſerves for a burial-ground, in which all pilgrims who die in their pilgrimage at Jeruſalem, are interred.

(1.) * BLOODFLOWER. *n. ſ.* [*hæmanthus* Lat.] A plant.

(2.) BLOOD-FLOWER. See HÆMANTHUS.

* BLOODGUILTINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blood* and *guilty.*] Murder; the crime of ſhedding blood.—

And were there rightful cauſe of difference,
Yet wer't not better, fair it to accord,
Than with *bloodguiltineſs* to heap offence,
And mortal vengeance join to crime abhorr'd
Fairy Queen.

* BLOOD-HOT. *adj.* [from *blood* and *hot.* Hot in the ſame degree with blood.—A good piece of bread firſt to be eaten, will gain time to warm the beer *blood-hot*, which then he may drink ſafely *Locke.*

* BLOODHOUND. *n. ſ.* [from *blood* and *hound* A hound that follows by the ſcent, and ſeizes with great fierceneſs.—

Hear this, hear this, thou tribune of the people
Thou zealous, publick *bloodhound*, hear and melt
Dryden

Where are theſe rav'ning *bloodhounds*, that purſue
In a full cry, gaping to ſwallow me? *Southern*

—A *bloodhound* will follow the track of the perſon he purſues, and all hounds the particular game they have in chace. *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*—

And though the villain 'ſcape a while, he feels
Slow vengeance, like a *bloodhound*, at his heels
Savifi

(2.) BLOOD-HOUND, in zoology, the CANIS SAGAX of Linnæus (ſee CANIS), *le chien courant* of Buffon, the *ſlow hound* of the Scots: The hound or dog, with long, ſmooth, and pendulous ears. It was a dog of great uſe, and in high eſteem with our anceſtors: its employ was to recover any game that had eſcaped wounded from the hunter, or been killed and ſtole out of the foreſt. It was remarkable for the acuteneſs of its ſmell, tracing the loſt beaſt by the blood it had ſpilt; from whence the name is derived. This ſpecies could, with the utmoſt certainty, diſcover the thief by following his footſteps, let the diſtance of his flight be ever ſo great, and through the moſt ſecret and thickeſt coverts: nor would it ceaſe its purſuit till it had taken the felon. They were likewiſe uſed by Wallace and Bruce during the civil wars. The poetical hiſtorians of the two heroes frequently relate very curious paſſages on this ſubject; of the ſervice theſe dogs were to their maſters, and the eſcapes they had from thoſe of the enemy. The blood-hound was in great requeſt on the confines of England and Scotland; where the borderers were continually preying on the herds and flocks of their neighbours. The true blood-hound was large, ſtrong, muſcular, broad breaſted, of a ſtern countenance, of a deep tan-colour, and generally marked with a black ſpot above each eye.

* BLOODILY. *adv.* [from *bloody.*] With diſpoſition to ſhed blood; cruelly.—

I told the purſuivant,
As too triumphing, how mine enemies,
To-day at Pomfret, *bloodily* were butcher'd.
Shakeſp. Rich. III

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This day, the poet, *bloodily* inclin'd,
Has made me die, full ſore againſt my mind.
Dryden.

* BLOODINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bloody*.] The ſtate of being bloody.—It will manifeſt itſelf by its *bloodineſs*; yet ſometimes the ſcull is ſo thin as not to admit of any. *Sharp's Surgery.*

* BLOODLESS. *adj.* [from *blood*.] 1. Without blood; dead.—

He cheer'd my ſorrows, and, for ſums of gold,
The *bloodleſs* carcaſe of my Hector ſold. *Dryd.*

2. Without ſlaughter.—

War brings ruin where it ſhould amend;
But beauty, with a *bloodleſs* conqueſt, finds
A welcome ſov'reignty in rudeſt minds. *Waller.*

* *To* BLOOD-LET. † *v. n.* [from *blood* and *let*.] To bleed; to open a vein medicinally.—The chyle is not perfectly aſſimilated into blood, by its circulation through the lungs, as is known by experiments in *blood-letting*. *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*

* BLOOD-LETTER. *n. ſ.* [from *blood-let*.] A phlebotomiſt; one that takes away blood medically.—This miſchief in aneuriſms, proceedeth from the ignorance of the *blood-letter*, who, not conſidering the errour, committed in letting blood, binds up the arm careleſsly. *Wiſeman.*

BLOOD-LETTING, *n. ſ.* The operation of bleeding, or letting blood.

(1.) BLOOD OF CHRIST, a pretended relic. See BLOOD, § 18.

(2.) BLOOD OF CHRIST, the name of a military order inſtituted at Mantua in 1608. The number of knights was reſtricted to 20, beſides the grand maſter. Their device was, *Domine, probaſti me*; Lord, thou haſt proved me: or, *Nihil hoc triſte recepto*; Fortified by this, no evil can prevail.

BLOOD OF MERCURY, in alchemy, the tincture of mercury.

BLOOD OF ST JANUARIUS. See BLOOD, § 18.

BLOOD OF SULPHUR, [*ſanguis ſulphuris*,] a preparation of liver of ſulphur, ground with oil of tartar *per deliquium*, and digeſted with dulcified ſpirit of nitre. It was reputed a good pectoral and diuretic, but is ſeldom preſcribed.

BLOOD, PRECIOUS, a denomination given to a reformed congregation of Bernardine nuns at Paris, firſt eſtabliſhed under that name in 1661.

BLOOD-RED HOT, the laſt degree of heat given by ſmiths to iron in the forge.

BLOOD-RUNNING ITCH, in farriery, a diſeaſe in a horſe, proceeding from an inflammation of the blood by over-heating, hard riding, or other ſevere labour; which, getting between the ſkin and fleſh, makes the beaſt rub and bite himſelf; and, if not cured, ſometimes turns to a grievous mange, highly infectious to all nigh him.

BLOOD, SALAMANDER'S, the redneſs remaining in the receiver, after diſtilling the ſpirit of nitre.

BLOOD, SATYRION, a ruddy liquor produced from the roots of ſatyrium, baked with bread; and liquified, as it were, into blood, by a long digeſtion.

* BLOODSHED. *n. ſ.* [from *blood* and *ſhed*.] 1. The crime of blood, or murder.—

Full many miſchiefs follow cruel wrath;
Abhorred *bloodſhed*, and tumultuous ſtrife,
Unmanly murder, and unthrifty ſcath. *F. Queene.*

All murders paſt do ſtand excus'd in this;
And this ſo ſole, and ſo unmatchable,
Shall prove a deadly *bloodſhed* but a jeſt,
Exampl'd by this heinous ſpectacle. *Shak. K. J.*

—A man, under the tranſports of a vehement rage, paſſes a different judgment upon murder and *bloodſhed*, from what he does when his revenge is over. *South.* 2. Slaughter; waſte of life.—

So by him Cæſar got the victory,
Through great *bloodſhed*, and many a ſad aſſay.
Fairy Queen.

Of wars and *bloodſhed*, and of dire events,
I could with greater certainty foretel. *Dryden.*

* BLOODSHEDDER. *n. ſ.* [from *bloodſhed*.] Murderer.—He that taketh away his neighbour's living, ſlayeth him; and he that defraudeth the labourer of his hire, is a *bloodſhedder*. *Eccluſ.* xxxiv. 22.

(1.) * BLOODSHOT. } *adj.* [from *blood* and
* BLOODSHOTTEN. } *ſhot*.] Filled with blood burſting from its proper veſſels.—

And that the winds their bellowing throats would try,
When redd'ning clouds reflect his *bloodſhot* eye.
Garth.

(2.) BLOOD-SHOTTEN. See OPHTHALMIA.

BLOOD-SNAKE, the Engliſh name of the HÆMORRHUS.

BLOOD-SPAVIN. See FARRIERY.

BLOOD, SPITTING OF, or HÆMOPTOE. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

(1.) * BLOOD-STONE. *n. ſ.* [*hæmatites*; from *blood* and *ſtone*.] The name of a ſtone.—There is a ſtone, which they call the *blood-ſtone*, which, worn, is thought to be good for them that bleed at the noſe; which, no doubt, is by aſtriction, and cooling of the ſpirits. *Bacon.*—The *blood-ſtone* is green, ſpotted with a light blood red. *Woodward on foſſils.*

(2.) BLOOD-STONE. See HÆMATITES.

* BLOODSUCKER. *n. ſ.* [from *blood* and *ſuck*.] 1. A leech; a fly; any thing that ſucks blood. 2. A cruel man; a murderer.—

God keep the prince from all the pack of you;
A knot you are of damned *bloodſuckers!*
Shakeſp. Rich. III.

The nobility cried out upon him, that he was a *bloodſucker*, a murderer, and a parricide. *Hayward.*

* BLOOD-THIRSTY. *adj.* [from *blood* and *thirſt*.] Deſirous to ſhed blood.—

And high advancing his *blood-thirſty* blade,
Struck one of thoſe deformed heads. *Fairy Q.*

† *Dr* JOHNSON *appears to have no authority for inſerting* To BLOOD-LET *as an* Engliſh verb. *In his quotation from Dr* ARBUTHNOT, Blood-letting *is not a* participle, *but a* ſubſtantive noun, *expreſſing a branch of ſurgery*. Participles *always imply* time. *We have not met with the verb* blood-let *in any medical or ſurgical work whatever. Neither do we find it in any other dictionary, except that of Dr* ASH, *who ſays it is* "not much uſed." *We are perſuaded he might have ſaid, it is* never *uſed. Phyſicians and ſurgeons often mention* BLOOD-LETTING, *but they do not ſpeak of* having blood-letted *a patient, or of ordering one* to be blood-letted. *The verbs* To BLEED *and* To BLOOD, *and the expreſſions* To draw blood, To let blood, *and* To loſe blood, *entirely ſuperſede the neceſſity of ſuch a verb as* To BLOOD.

—The image of God the *blood-thirſty* have not; for God is charity and mercy itſelf. *Raleigh's Hiſt.*

(1.) * BLOOD-VESSEL. *n. ſ.* [from *blood* and *veſſel*.] A veſſel appropriated by nature to the conveyance of the blood.—The ſkins of the forehead were extremely tough and thick, and had not in them any *blood-veſſel*, that we were able to diſcover. *Addiſon's Spectator.*

(2.) BLOOD-VESSELS. See ANATOMY, INDEX; and *Plates* VII, VIII and IX.

(1.) * BLOODWIT. *n. ſ.* A fine anciently paid as a compoſition for blood.

(2.) BLOOD-WIT, or BLOOD-WITE } [from *blud*, Sax. blood, and *wite*, a fine,] denotes an exemption from the penalty (N. 1.) granted by the king to certain perſons and communities as a ſpecial favour. K. Henry II. granted to all tenants within the honour of Wallingford—*Ut quieti ſint de hidagio et bloodwite et bredwite.* The word is alſo written *blodwite*, *blodwita*, *blodwyta*, *bloudwit*, and *bluidweit*.

BLOOD-WOOD, Log-wood. See HÆMATOXYLON.

(1.) * BLOODWORT. *n. ſ.* A plant.

(2.) BLOODWORT, in botany. See RUMEX.

* BLOODY. *adj.* [from *blood*.] 1. Stained with blood. 2. Cruel; murderous: applied either to men or facts.—By continual martial exerciſes, without blood, ſhe made them perfect in that *bloody* art. *Sidney.*—

Falſe of heart, light of ear, *bloody* of hand.
Shakeſp. K. Lear.

I grant him *bloody*,
Luxurious, avaricious, falſe, deceitful.
Shakeſp. Macbeth.

Thou *bloodier* villain,
Than terms can give thee out. *Shakeſ. Mach.*

Alas! why gnaw you ſo your nether lip?
Some *bloody* paſſion ſhakes your very frame;
Theſe are portents: but yet I hope, I hope,
They do not point on me. *Shakeſp. Othello.*

The *bloody* fact
Will be aveng'd; and th' other's faith approv'd,
Loſe no reward; tho' here thou ſee him die,
Rolling in duſt and gore. *Milton's Par. Loſt.*

The *bloodieſt* vengeance which ſhe could purſue,
Would be a trifle to my loſs of you.
Dryden's Indian Emp.

Proud Nimrod firſt the *bloody* chace began,
A mighty hunter, and his prey was man.
Pope's W. Foreſt.

BLOODY BAY, a harbour on the Sound of the iſle of Mull, on the coaſt of Argyllſhire.

BLOODY CRIME, [*ſanguineum crimen*,] in writers of the middle age, that which is puniſhed with the blood or life of the offender.

(1.) * BLOODY-FLUX. *n. ſ.* The dyſentery; a diſeaſe in which the excrements are mixed with blood.—Cold, by retarding the motion of the blood, and ſuppreſſing perſpiration, produces giddineſs, ſleepineſs, pains in the bowels, looſeneſs, *bloody-fluxes*. *Arbuthnot on Air.*

(2.) BLOODY FLUX. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

BLOODY HAND, in law, a treſpaſſer apprehended in a foreſt with his hands or other parts bloody; which is a circumſtantial proof of his having killed a deer, though he be not found hunting them.

BLOODY-LAWS, a ſmall hill of Scotland, in Roxburghſhire, in the pariſh of Oxnam, ſo named from its having been anciently a ſcene of frequent and bloody feuds between the Scots and Engliſh borderers.

* BLOODY-MINDED. *adj.* [from *bloody* and *mind*.] Cruel; inclined to bloodſhed.—I think you'll make me mad: truth has been at my tongue's end this half hour, and I have not the power to bring it out, for fear of this *bloody-minded* colonel. *Dryden's Spaniſh Fryar.*

BLOODY RAIN. See RAIN.

BLOODY SWEAT. Many inſtances of this are recorded, owing either to bodily diſorder, or extreme mental agitation and agony. See particularly *Ariſtotle's Hiſt. Animal. lib.* iii. *cap.* 19. *apud Oper. tom.* i. *Thuanus Hiſt. Temp. &c. lib.* ii. *apud Oper. tom.* i. *Melanges d'Hiſtoire et de Literature*, &c. *par M. V. Marville*, *tom.* iii. *p.* 149. *Acta Phyſico Med. Norimbergæ*, *vol.* i. *p.* 84. and *vol.* viii. *p.* 428.

BLOODY URINE. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

(1.) * BLOOM. *n. ſ.* [*blum*, Germ. *bloem*, Dutch.] 1. A bloſſom; the flower which precedes the fruit.—

How nature paints her colours, how the bee
Sits on her *bloom*, extracting liquid ſweet.
Paradiſe Loſt.

A medlar tree was planted by;
The ſpreading branches made a goodly ſhow,
And full of opening *blooms* was ev'ry bough.
Dryden.

Haſte to yonder woodbine bow'rs;
The turf with rural dainties ſhall be crown'd,
While opening *blooms* diffuſe their ſweets around.
Pope.

2. The ſtate of immaturity; the ſtate of any thing improving, and ripening to higher perfection.—

Were I no queen, did you my beauty weigh,
My youth in *bloom*, your age in its decay.
Dryden's Aurengz.

3. The blue colour upon plums and grapes newly gathered. 4. [In the iron works.] A piece of iron wrought into a maſs, two feet ſquare.

(2.) BLOOM, in the iron works, (§ 1. *def.* 4.) has yet to undergo many hammerings before it become iron fit for the ſmith's uſe, and be made what they call the *ancony*. See ANCONY.

(3.) BLOOM, HALF, a round maſs of metal, which comes out of the finery of an iron work. See BLOMARY.

* *To* BLOOM. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To bring or yield bloſſoms.—The rod of Aaron for the houſe of Levi was budded, and brought forth buds, and *bloomed* bloſſoms, and yielded almonds. *Numbers* xvii. 8.—It is a common experience, that if you do not pull off ſome bloſſoms the firſt time a tree *bloometh*, it will bloſſom itſelf to death. *Bacon's Natural Hiſtory.* 2. To produce, as bloſſoms.—Rites and cuſtoms, now ſuperſtitious, when the ſtrength of virtuous, devout or charitable affection *bloomed* them, no man could juſtly have condemned as evil. *Hooker.* 3. To be in a ſtate of youth and improvement.—

Beauty, frail flow'r, that every ſeaſon fears,
Blooms in thy colours for a thouſand years.
Pope's Epiſtles.

O greath

O greatly bleſs'd with every *blooming* grace!
With equal ſteps the paths of glory trace.
Pope's Odyſſey.

BLOOMARY. See BLOMARY.

* BLOOMY. *adj.* [from *bloom.*] Full of blooms; flowery.—

O nightingale! that on yon *bloomy* ſpray
Warbleſt at eve, when all the woods are ſtill.
Milton.

Departing ſpring could only ſtay to ſhed
Her *bloomy* beauties on the genial bed,
But let the manly ſummer in her ſtead.
Dryden.

Hear how the birds, on ev'ry *bloomy* ſpray,
With joyous muſick wake the dawning day.
Pope.

BLOOSM, *n. ſ. obſ.* bloſſom. *Spenſer.*

BLOOT, Peter, a Flemiſh painter, whoſe works are ſeldom ſeen in Britain: nor are they eaſily purchaſed in Holland, being highly eſteemed and carefully preſerved in private collections. The ſubjects he painted were boors drinking, feaſting, dancing, or quarrelling; ſhepherds piping, the marriages of villagers, &c. He was a faithful but too ſervile imitator of nature; never departing from the attitudes, or draperies of his models. He underſtood the chiaroſcuro, and perſpective; he had a delicate manner of penciling, and his colouring was mellow; but he had no idea of elegance: yet his pictures have in many reſpects great merit, and his defects ſeem rather imputable to the taſte of his country, than to want of genius; ſome of his works being, for the lightneſs of the touch, the neatneſs of handling, and tranſparence of colour, equal to the beſt of his time. He died in 1667.

BLOOTELING. See BLOTELING.

* BLORE. *n. ſ.* [from *blow.*] Act of blowing; blaſt: an expreſſive word, but not uſed.—

Out ruſht, with an unmeaſur'd roar,
Thoſe two winds, tumbling clouds in heaps;
uſhers to either's *blore.* *Chapman's Iliad.*

BLORE-HALL, a village in Staffordſhire, near Oterver.

BLORE-HEATH, a village in Staffordſhire, near Shropſhire.

(1.) * BLOSSOM. *n. ſ.* [*bloſme*, Sax.] The flower that grows on any plant, previous to the ſeed or fruit. We generally call theſe flowers *bloſſoms*, which are not much regarded in themſelves, but as a token of ſome following production.—

Cold news for me:
Thus are my *bloſſoms* blaſted in the bud,
And caterpillars eat my leaves away.
Shakeſp. Henry IV.

Merrily, merrily, ſhall I live now,
Under the *bloſſom* that hangs on the bough.
Shakeſp. Tempeſt.

—The pulling off many of the *bloſſoms* of a fruit tree, doth make the fruit fairer.
Bacon's Natural Hiſtory.

To his green ears your cenſure you would ſuit,
Not blaſt the *bloſſom*, but expect the fruit.
Dryden.

(2.) BLOSSOM, in a particular ſenſe, is reſtrained to the flowers of trees, which they put forth in the ſpring as the forerunners of their fruit, otherwiſe called their BLOOM. The office of the bloſſom is partly to protect, and partly to draw nouriſhment to the embryo, fruit, or ſeed. ee FLOWER.

(3.) BLOSSOM, or PEACH-COLOURED, in the manege, a term applied to a horſe that has his hair white, but intermixed all over with ſorrel and bay hairs. Such horſes are ſo inſenſible and hard both in the mouth and the flanks, that they are ſcarce valued; beſides they are apt to turn blind.

* *To* BLOSSOM. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To put forth bloſſoms.—

This is the ſtate of man: to-day he puts forth
The tender leaves of hope; to-morrow, *bloſſoms*,
And bears his bluſhing honours thick upon him.
Shakeſp. Henry VIII.

—Although the fig-tree ſhall not *bloſſom*, neither ſhall fruit be in the vines, yet will I rejoice in the Lord. *Habb.* iii 17.—The want of rain at *bloſſoming* time, often occaſions the dropping off of the *bloſſoms*, for want of ſap. *Mortimer.*

(1.) BLOSSOMING, MIRACULOUS, OF PLANTS. The *pious* bloſſoming of the Glaſtenbury thorn on Chriſtmas morning, is a vulgar error. The fact is, that the plant, beſides its uſual bloſſoming in the ſpring, ſometimes puts forth a few white tranſient bloſſoms in the middle of winter. The bloſſoming of the roſe of Jericho on the ſame day, as it is ſaid in England, or in the time of midnight maſs, as it was believed in France, during the prevalence of prieſtcraft, is ſomewhat more than an error, being really a fraud on one ſide, and a ſuperſtition on the other. This roſe, whoſe leaves are only cloſed in winter, will, at any time, upon ſetting its pedicle in water, expand and bloſſom anew; becauſe the pedicle being ſpongy imbibes the fluid apace, and thus fills and ſwells out the ſhrivelled leaves: which property ſome monks have turned to good account.

(2.) BLOSSOMING. See BLTSSOMING.

BLOSTENHIM, a village in Cornwall, N. W. of Saltaſh.

* BLOT. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. An obliteration of ſomething written.—

Let flames on your unlucky papers prey,
Your wars, your loves, your praiſes, be forgot,
And make of all an univerſal *blot.*
Dryd. Juv.

2. A blur; a ſpot upon paper. 3. A ſpot in reputation; a ſtain; a diſgrace; a reproach.—

Make known,
It is no vicious *blot*, murder, or foulneſs,
That hath depriv'd me. *Shakeſp. K. Lear.*

—A lie is a foul *blot* in a man; yet it is continually in the mouth of the untaught. *Eccluſ.* xx. 24.—A diſappointed hope, a *blot* of honour, a ſtrain of conſcience, an unfortunate love, will ſerve the turn. *Temple.* 4. [At Backgammon.] When a ſingle man lies open to be taken up; whence *to hit a* blot.—He is too great a maſter of his art to make a *blot* which may ſo eaſily be hit. *Dryden's Dedication, Æneid.*

* *To* BLOT. *v. a.* [from *blottir*, Fr. to hide.] 1. To obliterate; to make writing inviſible by covering it with ink.—

You that are king
Have caus'd him by new act of parliament,
To *blot* out me, and put his own ſon in.
Shakeſp. Henry V.

Ev'n copious Dryden wanted, or forgot,
The laſt and greateſt art, the art to *blot*. *Pope.*

—A man of the moſt underſtanding will find it impoſſible to make the beſt uſe of it, while he writes in conſtraint, perpetually ſoftening, correcting, or *blotting* out expreſſions. *Swift.* 2. To efface; to eraſe.—

O Bertram, oh! no more my foe, but brother;
One act like this *blots* out a thouſand crimes.
Dryden.

—Theſe ſimple ideas, offered to the mind, the underſtanding can no more refuſe, nor alter, nor *blot* out, than a mirrour can refuſe, alter or obliterate, the images which the objects produce. *Locke.* 3. To make black ſpots on a paper; to blur.—Heads overfull of matter, be like pens overfull of ink, which will ſooner *blot*, than make any fair letter. *Aſcham.*—

O ſweet Portia!
Here are a few of the unpleaſanteſt words
That ever *blotted* paper. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*

4. To diſgrace; to diſfigure.—

Unknit that threat'ning unkind brow;
It *blots* thy beauty, as froſt bites the meads,
Confounds thy fame. *Shak. Tam. of the Shrew.*

My guilt thy growing virtues did defame;
My blackneſs *blotted* thy unblemiſh'd name.
Dryden's Æn.

For mercy's ſake, reſtrain thy hand,
Blot not thy innocence with guiltleſs blood.
Rowe.

5. To darken.—

He ſung how earth *blots* the moon's gilded wane,
Whilſt fooliſh men beat ſounding braſs in vain.
Cowley.

* BLOTCH. *n. ſ.* [from *blot.*] A ſpot or puſtule upon the ſkin.—Spots and *blotches*, of ſeveral colours and figures, ſtraggling over the body; ſome are red, others yellow, or black. *Harvey.*

* *To* BLOTE. *v. a.* To ſmoke, or dry by the ſmoke; as *bloted* herrings or red herrings.

BLOTED CHINA WARE, a ſort of china, loaded with colours in an irregular manner. This pleaſes ſome, but it is a defective ſort of ware, the large blotches of colours having been only laid on to cover the blemiſhes in the firſt baking.

BLOTELING, or BLOOTELING, Abraham, a deſigner and engraver of Amſterdam, flouriſhed about 1670. From the ſtyle of his etchings, which have great merit, he is ſuppoſed to have frequented the ſchool of the Viſſchers. He came into England about 1672, or 1673, at the time the French invaded Holland; but he did not reſide long. He both etched and ſcraped ſeveral mezzotintos, which were much eſteemed. Vertue informs us, that whilſt he was in England, he received 30 guineas for an etching of the duke of Norfolk.—From hence he returned to Amſterdam, where, in all probability, he died. In 1685, he publiſhed at Amſterdam, the *gems* of Leonardo Auguſtino, and etched the plates himſelf.

BLOTTING PAPER, a ſpecies of paper made without ſize or ſtiffening, ſerving to imbibe the wet ink in books of account, &c. and prevent its blotting the oppoſite page.

BLOUDWIT. See BLOODWIT.

(1.) BLOUNT, Charles, younger brother of Thomas (N. 3.) had an excellent capacity, and was an eminent writer. His *Anima Mundi*, or, *An hiſtorical narration of the opinions of the ancients, concerning man's ſoul after this life, according to unenlightened nature*, gave great offence, and was complained of to the biſhop of London. But the work which rendered him moſt known, was his tranſlation of Philoſtratus's *Life of Apollonius Tyanæus*, publiſhed in 1680; which was ſoon ſuppreſſed, as an attack on revealed religion. Another work of the ſame complexion he publiſhed the ſame year, called *Great is Diana of the Epheſians*, &c. in which under colour of expoſing ſuperſtition, he ſtruck at revelation. In 1684, he printed a kind of *Introduction to Polite Literature*. In the warmth of his zeal for the Revolution, he wrote a pamphlet to prove K. William and queen Mary *conquerors*; which was condemned to be burnt by both houſes of parliament. The cloſe of his life was very unhappy. For, after the death of his wife, he became enamoured of her ſiſter, whoſe only objection was their prior connection by the marriage; on which he writ a letter on the ſubject, as the caſe of a third perſon, with great learning and addreſs. But the Abp. of Canterbury and other divines deciding againſt him, and the lady on this growing inflexible, it threw him into a phrenzy in which he ſhot himſelf, in 1693.—After his death, his miſcellaneous pieces were collected and publiſhed.

(2.) BLOUNT, Sir Henry, an Engliſh writer, born at Tittenhanger, in Hertfordſhire, in 1602. After a regular education, he ſet out on his travels in 1634; and getting acquainted with a janizary at Venice, he accompanied him into the Turkiſh dominions. Having been abroad two years, he returned and publiſhed a relation of his travels in the Levant, which went through ſeveral editions. He was knighted by Charles I. and was at the battle of Edge-hill; but after the king's death, was employed by the parliament, and by Cromwell. Yet after the reſtoration, he was appointed high ſheriff of Hertfordſhire, and from that time lived as a private gentleman above 20 years. He publiſhed, 1. An account of his travels. 2. Six comedies written by John Lilly, under the title of *Court Comedies*. 3. The exchange walk, a ſatire; and 4. An epiſtle in praiſe of tobacco. He died October 9th, 1682.

(3.) BLOUNT, Sir Thomas Pope, bart. an eminent writer, and the eldeſt ſon of Sir Henry (N. 2.) was born at Upper Holloway, in Middleſex, Sept. 12th, 1649. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a lover of liberty, a ſincere friend to his country, and a true patron of learning. He was made a baronet by Charles II. in whoſe reign he was elected burgeſs for St Alban's in two parliaments, and was knight of the ſhire in 3 parliaments after the revolution. He wrote in Latin, 1. A critique on the moſt celebrated writers. 2. Eſſays on ſeveral ſubjects. 3. A natural hiſtory, extracted out of the beſt modern writers; and 4. Remarks upon poetry, with characters and cenſures of the moſt conſiderable poets, whether ancient or modern. He died June 30th, 1697.

(4.) BLOUNT, Thomas, a learned Engliſh writer of the 17th century, born at Bordeſley in Worceſterſhire. He had not an univerſity education; but by ſtrength of genius and great application, made

made a conſiderable progreſs in literature. Upon the breaking out of the popiſh plot in the reign of Charles II. being much alarmed on account of his being a zealous Roman-catholic, he contracted a palſy; and died in December 1679, aged 61. He wrote, 1. The academy of eloquence, containing a complete Engliſh rhetoric. 2. Gloſſographica, or a dictionary interpreting ſuch hard words, whether Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Italian, &c. as are now uſed in our refined Engliſh tongue, &c. 3. Boſcobel; or the hiſtory of his majeſty's eſcape after the battle of Worceſter. 4. A law Dictionary. 5. Animadverſions upon Sir Richard Baker's chronicle. 6. *Fragmenta Antiquitatis*; and other works.

BLOUNTSVILLE, a poſt town of the United States, in N. Carolina. It is 30 m. S. S. E. of Halifax, and 413 from Philadelphia.

(1.) BLOW, Dr John, a famous muſician and compoſer, was a native of N. Collingham in Nottingham; and was one of the firſt ſet of chapel boys after the Reſtoration. He was bred up under Capt. Henry Cook, and alſo a pupil of Hingeſton, and Dr Chriſtopher Gibbons. Upon the death of Purcell in 1695, he became organiſt of Weſtminſter Abbey, and in 1699, compoſer to the king. Dr Blow was a compoſer of anthems while a chapel boy, and was diſtinguiſhed by Charles II. for his merit. He ſet to muſic an ode for St Cecilia's day, in 1684, the words by Mr Oldham, publiſhed with one of Purcell. In imitation of Purcell's *Orpheus Britannicus*, he publiſhed a work entitled *Amphion Anglicus*, in 1700, containing compoſitions for 1, 2, 3, and 4 voices, with a thorough baſs for the organ, harpſichord, or the orpharion. He likewiſe publiſhed a collection of leſſons for the harpſichord, and Mr Dryden's ode on the death of Purcell. There are alſo extant of his compoſition ſundry hymns printed in the *Harmonia Sacra*, and a great number of catches in the latter editions of the *Muſical Companion*.—He died in 1708.

(2.) BLOW. *n. ſ.* [*blowe*, Dutch.] 1. The act of ſtriking. 2. A ſtroke.—

A moſt poor man, made tame to fortune's *blows*,
Who, by the art of known and feeling ſorrows,
Am pregnant to good pity. *Shakeſ. King Lear.*

A woman's tongue,
That gives not half ſo great a *blow* to th' ear,
As will a cheſtnut. *Shakeſ. Taming of the Shrew.*

—Words of great contempt, commonly finding a return of equal ſcorn, *blows* were faſtened upon the moſt pragmatical of the crew. *Clarendon.* 3. The fatal ſtroke; the ſtroke of death.—

Aſſuage your thirſt of blood, and ſtrike the *blow*. *Dryden.*

4. An act of hoſtility; *blows* are uſed for combat in war.—

Be moſt abated captives to ſome nation
That won you without *blows*. *Shakeſ.*

Unarm'd if I ſhould go,
What hope of mercy from this dreadful foe,
But woman-like to fall, and fall without a *blow*.
Pope.

5. A ſudden calamity; an unexpected evil.—People is broken with a grievous *blow*. *Jeremiah.*—

To all but thee in fits he ſeem'd to go,
And 'twas my miniſtry to deal the *blow*. *Parnel.*

6. A ſingle action; a ſudden event.—Every year they gain a victory, and a town; but if they are once defeated, they loſe a province at a *blow*. *Dryden.* 7. The act of a fly, by which ſhe lodges eggs in fleſh.—

I muſt fear, leſt with the *blows* of flies,
His braſs inflicted wounds are fill'd.
Chapman's Iliad.

(3.) BLOW, in fencing, differs from a thruſt, as the former is given by ſtriking, the latter by puſhing.

(4.) BLOW, in law. See BATTERY, § I. & III.

(5.) BLOW, MILITARY, [*alapa militaris*,] that given with a ſword on the neck or ſhoulder of a candidate for knighthood, in the ceremony of dubbing him. It ſeems to have taken its riſe from the ancient ceremony of manumiſſion. In giving the blow, the prince uſed the formula, *Eſto bonus miles*, "Be a valiant ſoldier;" upon which the party roſe a complete knight, and qualified to bear arms in his own right.

(1.) * *To* BLOW. *v. a.* 1. To drive by the force of the wind; with a particle to fix the meaning.—

Though you unite the winds,
Though bladed corn be lodg'd, and trees *blown down*,
Though caſtles topple on their warders heads.
Macbeth.

Fair daughter, *blow away* thoſe miſts and clouds,
And let thy eyes ſhine forth in their full luſtre.
Denham.

—Theſe primitive heirs of the chriſtian church could not ſo eaſily *blow off* the doctrine of paſſive obedience. *South.* 2. To inflame with wind.—I have created the ſmith that *bloweth* the coals. *Iſaiah.*—A fire not *blown* ſhall conſume him. *Job.* 3. To ſwell; to puff into ſize.—

No *blown* ambition doth our arms incite,
But love, dear love, and our ag'd father's right.
K. Lear.

4. To form into ſhape by the breath.—Spherical bubbles, that boys ſometimes *blow* with water, to which ſoap hath given a tenacity. *Boyle.* 5. To ſound an inſtrument of wind muſick.—*Blow* the trumpet among the nations. *Jeremiah.*—

Where the bright ſeraphim, in burning row,
Their loud uplifted angel trumpets *blow*. *Milt.*

6. To warm with the breath.—

When iſicles hang by the wall,
And Dick the ſhepherd *blows* his nail,
And Tom bears logs into the hall,
And milk comes frozen home in pail. *Shakeſ.*

7. To ſpread by report.—

But never was there man of his degree,
So much eſteem'd, ſo well belov'd as he:
So gentle of condition was he known,
That through the court his courteſy was *blown*
Dryden.

8. *To blow out.* To extinguiſh by wind or the breath.—

Your breath firſt kindled the dead coal of war,
And brought in matter, that ſhould feed this fire:
And now 'tis far too huge to be *blown out*,
With that ſame weak wind which enkindled it.

Moon, ſlip behind ſome cloud, ſome tempeſt riſe,
And *blow out* all the ſtars that light the ſkies. *Dryd.*

9. *To blow up.* To raiſe or ſwell with breath.—A plague of ſighing and grief! it *blows* a man *up* like a bladder. *Shakeſpeare.*—Before we had exhauſted the receiver, the bladder appeared as full as if *blown up* with a quill. *Boyle.*—

It was my breath that *blew* this tempeſt *up*,
Upon your ſtubborn uſage of the pope. *Shakeſ.*

—An empty bladder gravitates no more than when *blown up*, but ſome leſs; yet deſcends more eaſily, becauſe with leſs reſiſtance. *Grew.* 10. *To blow up.* To inflate with pride.—*Blown up* with the conceit of his merit, he did not think he had received good meaſure from the king. *Bacon.* 11. *To blow up.* To kindle.—

His preſence ſoon *blows up* th' unkindly fight,
And his loud guns ſpeak thick like angry men.
Dryden.

12. To move by *afflatus*.—When the mind finds herſelf very much inflamed with devotion, ſhe is too much inclined to think that it is *blown up* with ſomething divine within herſelf. *Addiſon.* 13. *To blow up.* To burſt with gunpowder; to raiſe into the air.—The captains hoping, by a mine, to gain the city, approached with ſoldiers ready to enter upon *blowing up* of the mine. *Knolles's Hiſt. of the Turks.*—

Their chief *blown up* in air, not waves expir'd,
To which his pride preſum'd to give the law.
Dryden.

—Not far from the ſaid well, *blowing up* a rock, he formerly obſerved ſome of theſe. *Woodward.* 14. To infect with the eggs of flies. I know not how this ſenſe belongs to the word.—

I would no longer endure
This wooden ſlavery, than I would ſuffer
The fleſh-fly *blow* my mouth. *Shakeſ.*
Rather at Nilus' mud
Let me ſtark naked, and let the water-flies
Blow me into abhorring. *Shakeſ.*

15. *To blow upon.* To make ſtale.—I am wonderfully pleaſed, when I meet with any paſſage in an old Greek or Latin author, that is not *blown upon*, and which I have never met with in any quotation. *Addiſon.*—He will whiſper an intrigue that is not yet *blown upon* by common fame. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * *To* BLOW. *v. n.* pret. *blew*; particip. paſſ. *blown.* [*blawan*, Sax.] 1. To make a current of air.—At his fight the mountains are ſhaken, and at his will the ſouth wind *bloweth*. *Eccluſ.* xliii. 16.—Fruits, for long keeping, gather before they are full ripe, and in a dry day, towards noon, and when the wind *bloweth* not ſouth; and when the moon is in decreaſe. *Bacon's Nat. Hiſt.*

By the fragrant winds that *blow*
O'er the Elyſiad flow'rs. *Pope's St Cæcilia.*

2. This word is ſometimes impersonally with *it*.—*It blew* a terrible tempeſt at ſea once, and there was one ſeaman praying. *L'Eſtrange.*—If *it blows* a happy gale, we muſt ſet up all our ſails, though it ſometimes happens, that our natural heat is more powerful than our care and correctneſs. *Dryden.* 3. To pant; to puff; to be breathleſs. Here's Mrs Page at the door, ſweating and *blowing*, and looking wildly. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Each aking nerve refuſe the lance to throw,
And each ſpent courſer at the chariot *blow*. *Pope.*

4. To breathe.—Says the ſatyr, if you have gotten a trick of *blowing* hot and cold out of the ſame mouth, I've e'en done with ye. *L'Eſtrange.*

5. To ſound with being blown.—

Nor with leſs dread the loud
Ethereal trumpet from on high 'gan *blow*.
Paradiſe Loſt.

There let the prating organ *blow*,
To the full-voic'd quire below. *Milton.*

6. To ſound, or play muſically by wind.—The prieſts ſhall *blow* with the trumpet. *Joſhua.*—When ye *blow* an alarm, then the camps that lie on the eaſt parts ſhall go forward. *Numbers.* 7. *To blow over.* To paſs away without effect.—Storms, though they *blow over* divers times, yet may fall at laſt. *Bacon's Eſſays.*—

When the ſtorm is *blown over*,
How bleſt is the ſwain,
Who begins to diſcover
An end of his pain. *Granville.*

—But thoſe clouds being now happily *blown over*, and our ſun clearly ſhining out again, I have recovered the relapſe. *Denham.* 8. *To blow up.* To fly into the air by force of gunpowder.—On the next day, ſome of the enemy's magazines *blew up*; and it is thought they were deſtroyed on purpoſe by ſome of their men. *Tatler.*

(3.) * *To* BLOW. *v. n.* [*blowan*, Saxon.] To bloom; to bloſſom.—

We loſe the prime to mark how ſpring
Our tender plants, how *blows* the citron grove,
What drops the myrrh, and what the balmy reed. *Milton.*

This royal fair
Shall, when the bloſſom of her beauty's *blown*
See her great brother on the Britiſh throne. *Waller.*
Fair is the king cup that in meadow *blows*,
Fair as the daiſy that beſide her grows. *Gay.*
For thee Idume's ſpicy foreſt *blow*,
And ſeeds of gold in Ophir's mountains glow.
Pope.

(1.) * BLOWER. *n. ſ.* [from *blow*.] A melter of tin.—Add his care and coaſt in buying wood and in fetching the ſame to the blowing-houſe together with the *blowers*, two or three months extreme and increaſing labour. *Carew.*

(2.) BLOWER, [*ſouffleur*,] an appellation of contempt ſometimes given to an alchemiſt.

BLOWFIELD, a village 4 m. N. E. of Norwich.

(1.) BLOWING, [*exſufflatio*,] a ceremony in the ancient adminiſtration of baptiſm, whereby the *catechumen*, upon rehearſing the renunciation blew 3 blaſts with his mouth, to ſignify that he rejected the devil. Something like this is ſtill retained in the Ruſſian church. In the ſacrament ary of St Gregory, the prieſt who adminiſters baptiſm, is enjoined to blow thrice on the child's face, making the ſign of the croſs and pronouncing the words, *exi ab eo ſatan*. Juſtin Martyr, Tertullian, St Cyril, and St Auguſtin ſpeaks of this ceremony as uſed in their times.

(2.) BLOWING, in gardening, the action of flowers, whereby they open and diſplay their leaves. The regular blowing ſeaſon is in the ſpring; though ſome plants have other extraordinary times and manners of blowing, as the Gla-

tenbu-

tenbury thorn. See BLOSSOMING, § 1. Some flowers alſo, as the tulip, cloſe every evening, and blow again in the morning. Annual plants blow ſooner or later as their ſeeds are put in the ground; whence the curious in gardening ſow ſome every month in ſummer, and have a conſtant ſucceſſion of flowers. The blowing of roſes may be retarded by ſhearing off the buds as they put forth.

(3.) BLOWING AIR INTO FURNACES. See FURNACE.

(4.) BLOWING OF GLASS, one of the methods of forming various kinds of works in the glaſs manufacture. It is performed by dipping the point of an iron blowing pipe into melted glaſs, and blowing through it with the mouth, according to the circumſtances of the glaſs to be blown. See GLASS.

(5.) BLOWING OF TIN denotes the melting its ore, after being firſt burnt, to deſtroy the mundic.

6.) BLOWING SNAKE, in zoology, a name given in Virginia to a ſpecies of ſerpent, reſembling the European viper, but conſiderably larger, and remarkable for inflating and extending the ſurface of its head before it bites. Its wound is fatal.

* BLOWN. The *participle paſſive* of *blow*.—
—All the ſparks of virtue, which nature had kindled in them, were ſo *blown* to give forth their uttermoſt heat, and juſtly it may be affirmed, they inflamed the affections of all that knew them. *Sidney.*—

The trumpets ſleep, while cheerful hours are *blown*,
And arms employ'd on birds and beaſts alone
Pope.

(1.) BLOWN, in heraldry, [*eſpanoui*,] is applied to a *fleur de lys* when its leaves are opened, ſo that buds appear among the *fleurons*.

BLOW-NORTON, a village in Norfolkſhire, N. E. of Harling.

(1.) BLOW-PIPE, in chemiſtry and mineralogy, an inſtrument by which the blaſt of the breath may be directed upon the flame of a lamp or candle, in ſuch a manner as to vitrify any ſmall portion of mineral ſubſtance; and thus the proceſs of aſſaying in the dry way may be performed in a very ſhort time, where either want of inſtruments, or of opportunity, prevent other methods from being uſed.

(2.) BLOW-PIPE, ADVANTAGES OF THE. The late Sir Torbern Bergman obſerved that this inſtrument is extremely uſeful to chemiſts, as many experiments are daily neglected, either becauſe they require furnaces and a large apparatus of veſſels; from the want of time to examine them in the ordinary way; or from the quantity required in the common way for examination, when the matter may be too ſcarce or too dear. In all theſe caſes the blow-pipe may be advantageouſly uſed; 1. Moſt of the experiments which can be performed in the large way may alſo be done with the blow-pipe. 2. The experiments which in the large way require many hours, may in this method be finiſhed in a few minutes; and, 3. The ſmalleſt particle is ſufficient. The only defect is, that the proportions cannot be determined with any preciſion; and therefore where the experiments can be tried on a large ſcale, it is always preferred. "But the firſt inquiry to be made," ſays Sir Torbern, "is, *what* a ſubſtance contains, not *how much*; and I have learned by the experience of many years, that theſe trials in ſmall quantities ſuggeſt the proper methods of inſtituting experiments in large. Theſe experiments beſides have ſome advantage over thoſe conducted in crucibles, *viz.* we can ſee all the phenomena from beginning to end, which wonderfully illuſtrates the ſeries of operations and their cauſes. Experiments made in crucibles are often fallacious, as the ſubſtance of the veſſel itſelf is corroded. We ſuppoſe that lime or magneſia melted with fixed alkali are united with it in the way of ſolution; but the globule, when well fuſed in the ſpoon, by its tranſparency permits us plainly to ſee that, except the ſiliceous part, it is only mechanically mixed. The moſt intenſe degree of heat may in this way be obtained in a few minutes, which can ſcarcely be done in a crucible in many hours."

(3.) BLOW-PIPE, IMPROVEMENTS OF THE. The blow-pipe was firſt introduced into the chemical apparatus about 50 years ago, by the celebrated Swediſh metallurgiſt, Dr Andreas Swab; and was afterwards greatly improved by Meſſrs Cronſtedt, Rinman, &c. Dr Engeſtroem has an expreſs treatiſe upon the ſubject. Bergman propoſes that the tube ſhould be made of pure ſilver, to prevent it from being injured by ruſt; with the addition of a ſmall quantity of platina, to give a neceſſary hardneſs. It conſiſts of 3 parts, which may be occaſionally joined: An handle, fig. 3. PLATE XXIII. terminating in a truncated conical apex *a a*, which may, by twiſting, be ſo adapted to the aperture *b*, fig. 4. as to ſhut it more cloſely than can be done by a ſcrew. It was an improvement of former chemiſts to have a hollow ball on the tube, to collect the moiſture of the breath, which, if ſuffered to accumulate, would greatly diminiſh the intenſity of the flame. Inſtead of this, Mr Berman made uſe of the little box, fig. 4. formed of an elliptical plate, ſo bended through the centre that the oppoſite ſides become parallel, and are joined round by a plate equal in breadth to *c c*. Such a box collects the moiſture of the breath as well as the ſphere, and is beſides attended with the advantage of a compreſſed figure and ſmaller circumference. The aperture *b* is ſomewhat conical, and hollowed out of the ſolid piece; and has no margin turned inward, leſt the efflux of the fluid collected after long blowing, or the cleanſing of the internal parts, ſhould in any degree be prevented. The tube, fig. 5. is very ſmall, and its ſhorter conical end *e e* exactly fitted to the aperture *f*, ſo that no air can eſcape except through the orifice *g*. Many of thoſe tubes ſhould be provided with orifices of different diameters, to be applied on different occaſions: the orifice *g* itſelf ought to be ſmooth and circular, otherwiſe the cone of flame hereafter to be mentioned will be divided. The bands *b b*, fig. 3, and *i i*, fig 5. prevent the conical apices, *aa*, *ee*, from being thruſt in too far, and alſo ſerve another purpoſe; for when theſe apices are, by repeated attrition, at laſt ſo much diminiſhed as to fall out ſpontaneouſly, by filing away a little of the bands they may again be made tight.

(4.)

(4.) BLOW-PIPE, METHOD OF USING THE. The greateſt difficulty in the uſe of the blow-pipe is the ſupplying it with a conſtant ſtream of air by the breath; for to ſuch as are unaccuſtomed to it, it appears a contradiction to think of blowing a ſtream of air out by the mouth, at the ſame time that we are drawing it in by the noſtrils to ſupply the neceſſary functions of reſpiration. An uninterrupted ſtream of air, however, is abſolutely neceſſary; and "to ſucceed in this operation, (ſays Sir Forbern) without inconvenience, ſome labour and practice are neceſſary." The whole art, however, conſiſts in this, that while the air is inſpired through the noſtrils, that which is contained in the mouth be forced out through the tube by the compreſſion of the cheeks. To ſome perſons this is extremely difficult; but frequent trials will eſtabliſh the habit; ſo that a continual ſtream of air can be ſupplied for a quarter of an hour or more, without any other inconvenience than the laſſitude of the lips compreſſing the tube. A very great and obvious improvement, however, is ſtill ſuggeſted by Dr Berkenhout, viz. to apply the tube to the wind-bag of a bagpipe; which being firſt blown full, may eaſily be kept ſo; and being compreſſed by the arm, will produce a blaſt either ſtrong or weak as we have a mind. It will be a ſtill farther improvement to ſupply this bag by means of a ſmall bellows inſtead of blowing into it with the mouth: for thus the air will be more free from moiſture, and alſo fitter for the ſupport of flame, in other reſpects; as there is always a conſiderable quantity, of fixed air produced at every reſpiration, which, according to that quantity, muſt unfit the air for keeping up the flame, and conſequently render the heat leſs intenſe. With regard to the flame proper to be choſen, Mr Bergman directs a ſlender candle, either of wax or tallow, fig. 6. with a cotton wick, *k l*. The burned top muſt be cut at ſuch a length, that the remainder may be bent a little, *l m*. The orifice, *g* fig. 5. is to be held above and near to this arch, perpendicular to, *l m* fig. 6. and the air equally expreſſed. The flame being forced to one ſide by the violence of the blaſt, exhibits two diſtinct figures; the internal figure, *l n*, conical, blue, and well defined; at the apex of this, *n*, the moſt violent heat is excited; the external flame, *l o*, browniſh, vague, and indetermined; which is ſpoiled of its phlogiſton by the ſurrounding atmoſphere, and occaſions much leſs heat at its extremity, *o*, than the interior flame does.

(5.) BLOW-PIPES, CONSTRUCTION, &c. OF. Dr Black and all other eminent chemiſts greatly recommend the uſe of the blow-pipe for chemical experiments on minerals. The conſtruction recommended by him differs not from that already deſcribed; only he ſays, that it may be made of tin, a cheaper material than ſilver; though formerly they were made of glaſs. The ſmall ſtream of air iſſuing from the extremity of the tube, being more intimately mixed with the flame, and agitated with it, occaſions a more complete conſumption of the vapour ariſing from the candle, and makes it produce much more heat; ſo that any ſmall body expoſed to the extremity of the flame is heated to a ſurpriſing degree. Several artiſts who work in metals, as the goldſmiths, &c. find this inſtrument uſeful in ſoldering pieces of metal together; and it is alſo uſed by the chemiſts in examining the effects of violent heat upon ſmall bodies. Some of the artiſts who uſe it much, ſupply the ſtream of air with a pair of bellows placed under the table, with a pipe riſing up through it, and to which the blow-pipe is fixed. In the examination of ores, the more ſimple inſtrument is preferred; and by a little practice it is eaſy to blow a continued ſtream of air with the mouth, by keeping it always full, and drawing in the air by the noſtrils, which anſwers the ſame purpoſe as the upper part of a double bellows. Mr Cronſtedt uſed the blow-pipe much in making the experiments on which his ſyſtem of mineralogy is founded, blowing air through a bit of charcoal; and though the ſpecimens are ſmall, we can ſee the changes they undergo as well as if they were larger; and the eye can be aſſiſted by a magnifying glaſs. The reaſon of the intenſe heat produced by the blow-pipe is, that in the ordinary way of burning, the air acts only upon the external ſurface of the fuel, ſo that it is not completely inflamed. The blow-pipe uſed by Mr Cronſtedt is compoſed of two parts; and this for the facility both of making, carrying it along, and cleaning it in the inſide when neceſſary. The two parts are repreſented ſeparate, fig. 1. and 2; the figure of the inſtrument, when theſe are put together, may be eaſily conceived. The globe *a*, fig. 2. is hollow, and made on purpoſe to condenſe the vapours, which are always in the blow-pipe when it has been uſed ſome time: if this globe was not there, the vapours would go directly with the wind out into the flame, and thereby cool the aſſay. The hole in the ſmall end *b*, through which the wind comes out, ought not to be larger than the ſize of the fineſt wire. This hole may now and then happen to be ſtopped up by ſomething coming into it, ſo as to hinder the force of the wind: one ought therefore to have a piece of the fineſt wire, to clear it with when required; and in order to have this wire the better at hand, it may be faſtened round the blow-pipe, in ſuch manner as is repreſented in fig. 1.: *c* is the wire faſtened round the blow-pipe, and afterward drawn through a ſmall hole at *e*, made in the ring *f*, to keep it more ſteady. This inſtrument ſhould neither be made ſo large as to require too much wind, nor ſo ſmall as to be too ſoon filled with it. The canal throughout the pipe, but particularly the hole at the ſmall end, muſt be made very ſmooth, ſo that there be no inequalities in it; else the wind will be divided, and conſequently the flame made double. That blow-pipe is to be reckoned the beſt, through which can be formed the longeſt and moſt pointed flame from off a common ſized candle. Theſe blow-pipes are commonly made of braſs or ſilver. There are two different kinds of matter made uſe of for the ſupport of thoſe ſubſtances uſually examined by the blow-pipe: the one is charcoal of fir, or beech, cut to the form of a parallelopiped; the other a ſilver or, which is better, a golden ſpoon, fitted with a wooden handle. The former is generally uſed excepting where phlogiſton is to be avoided, or the ſubject of examination is apt to be abſorbed

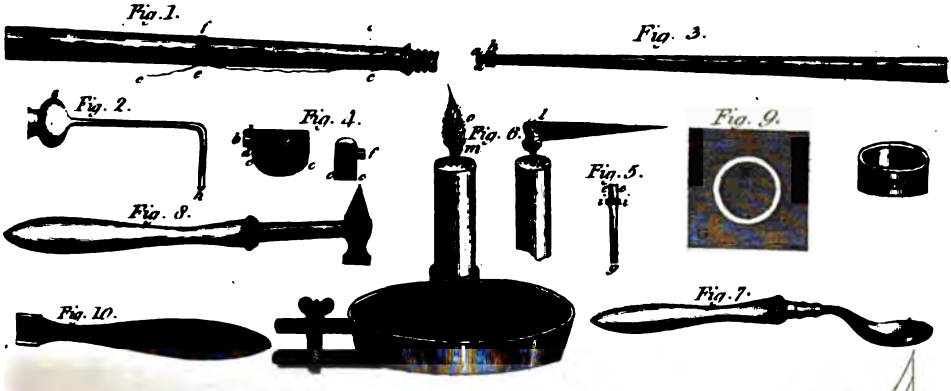
Fig. 1.
Fig. 3.
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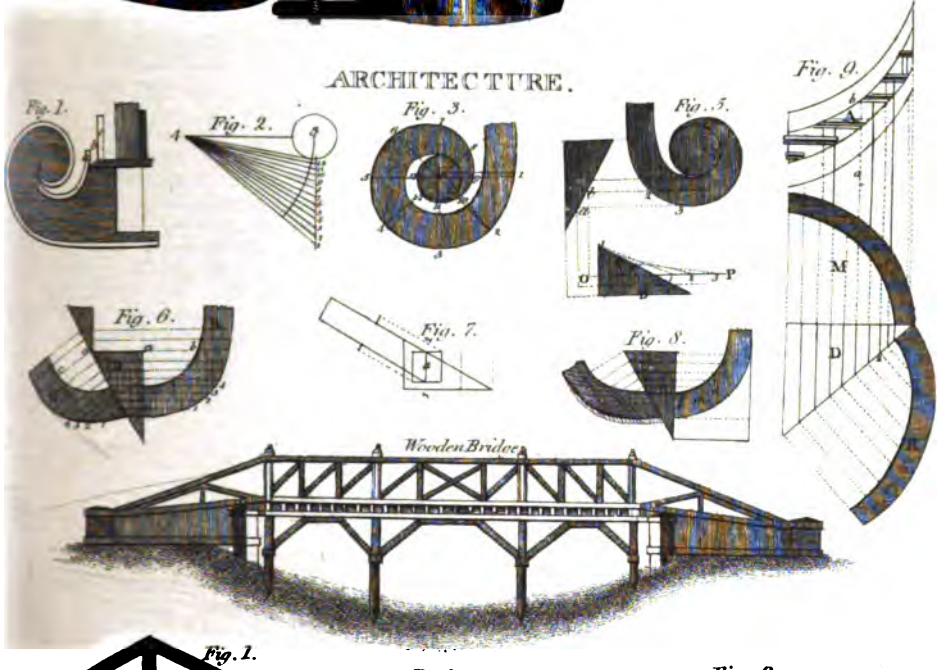
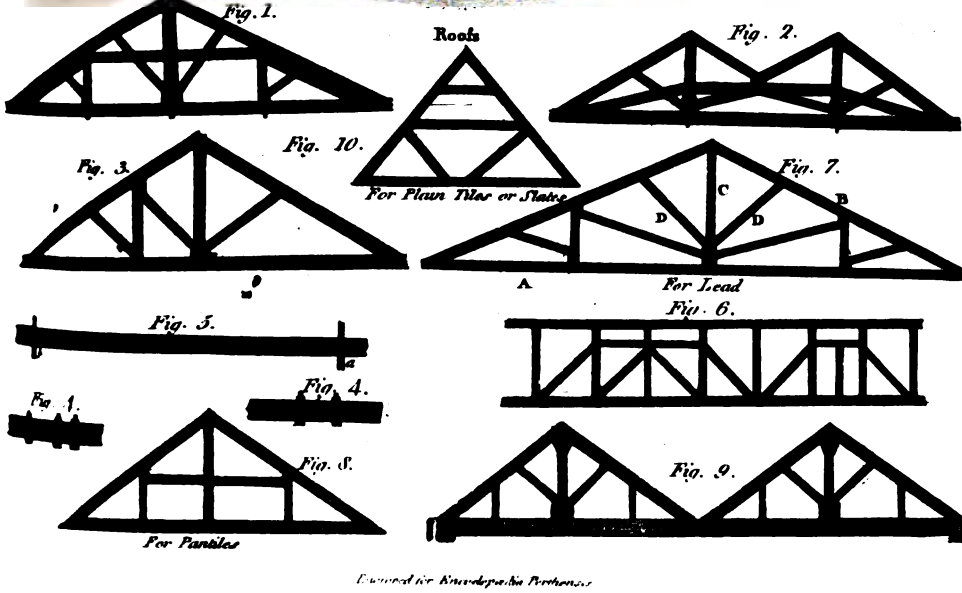
Fig. 7.


ARCHITECTURE.
Fig. 1.
Fig. 2.
Fig. 3.
Fig. 5.
Fig. 9.
Fig. 6.
Fig. 7.
Fig. 8.
Wooden Bridge


Roofs
Fig. 1.
Fig. 2.
Fig. 10.
For Plain Tiles or Slates
Fig. 3.
Fig. 7.
For Lead
Fig. 5.
Fig. 6.
Fig. 4.
Fig. 8.
Fig. 9.
For Pantiles

the charcoal. The golden ſpoon, fig. 7. ſhould not be large, as the bulk of the ſupport prevents the heat from being raiſed to a proper degree. To prevent the fine light particles from being carried off by the blaſt, a ſmall cavity ſhould be hollowed out in the charcoal; in which, being partly protected by another ſmaller piece of charcoal, they may be expoſed to the apex of the flame. Were it poſſible to procure a ſufficient quantity of dephlogiſticated air, experiments with the blow-pipe could be rendered ſtill more important than they are, as we might by this means be able to fuſe and vitrify ſubſtances *per ſe*, which we are now ſcarce able to do with the moſt powerful fluxes. The difficulty of procuring this kind of air, however, has as yet, in a great meaſure, excluded the uſe of it from chemiſtry, though M. le Roud, in a letter to the editor of the *Journal de Phyſique* for February 1787, propoſes, inſtead of blowing through the tube, to adapt to the wide end of it a leathern bag, the ſize of an ox's bladder, filled with pure air. Were this bag made to communicate, by means of a pair of ſmall bellows, with a reſervoir containing a conſiderable quantity of this dephlogiſticated air, there is no doubt that many chemical operations might by its means be very advantageouſly performed; and we are already aſſured, that, by the uſe of this kind of air, platina itſelf may be melted. As dephlogiſticated air, however, has not yet come into uſe, we can only expect ſuch effects as may be produced by a violent blaſt of the common atmoſpheric air; and for this purpoſe we muſt accommodate ourſelves with proper fluxes. See FLUX.

* BLOWPOINT. *n. ſ.* A child's play, perhaps like *puſhpin*.—

Shortly boys ſhall not play
At ſpancounter or *blowpoint*, but ſhall pay
Toll to ſome courtier. *Donne.*

* BLOWTH. *n. ſ.* [from *blow*.] Bloom, or bloſſom.—Ambition and covetouſneſs being but green, and newly grown up, the ſeeds and effects were as yet but potential, and in the *blowth* and bud. *Raleigh.*

* BLOWZE. *n. ſ.* A ruddy fat-faced wench.

* BLOWZY. *adj.* [from *blowze*.] Sun burnt; high coloured.

BLOXHAM, two villages; 1. in Lincolnſhire, near Sleaford: 2. in Oxfordſhire, near Banbury.

BLOXWICH, a village in Staffordſhire, N. W. of Walſall.

BLOXWORTH, a town in Dorſetſhire, 4 m. E. of Bere.

(1.) * BLUBBER. *n. ſ.* [See BLOB.] The part of a whale that contains the oil.

(2.) BLUBBER is the name of the fat of large ſea animals, as well as of whales, whereof train-oil is made. It is properly the *adeps* of the animal: it lies immediately under the ſkin, and over the muſcular fleſh. In the porpoiſe it is firm and full of fibres, and inveſts the body about an inch thick. In the whale, its thickneſs is ordinarily ſix inches; but about the under lip, it is 2 or 3 feet thick. The whole quantity yielded by one of theſe animals ordinarily amounts to 40 or 50, ſometimes to 100, or even more. The uſe of the blubber to the animal ſeems to be partly to poiſe the body, and render it equiponderant to the water; partly to keep off the water at ſome diſtance from the blood, the immediate contact whereof would be apt to chill it; and partly alſo for the ſame uſe that clothes ſerve us, to keep the fiſh warm, by reflecting or reverberating the hot ſteams of the body, and ſo redoubling the heat; ſince all fat bodies are, by experience, found leſs ſenſible of the impreſſions of cold than lean ones. Its uſe in trade and manufactures is to furniſh train-oil, which it does by boiling down. Formerly this was performed aſhore, in the country where the whales were caught: but of late the fiſhers do not go aſhore; they bring the blubber home ſtowed in caſks, and boil it down here.

(3.) BLUBBER, SEA. See MEDUSA and URTICA.

(1.) * *To* BLUBBER. *v. a.* To ſwell the cheeks with weeping.—Fair ſtreams repreſent unto me my *blubber'd* face; let tears procure your ſtay. *Sidney.*—

The wild wood gods arriv'd in the place,
There find the virgin doleful, deſolate
With ruffled raiment, and fair *blubber'd* face,
As her outrageous foe had left her late.
Fairy Queen.

Tir'd with the ſearch, not finding what ſhe ſeeks,
With cruel blows ſhe pounds her *blubber'd* cheeks. *Dryden.*

(2.) * *To* BLUBBER. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To weep in ſuch a manner as to ſwell the cheeks.—

Even ſo lies ſhe
Blubb'ring and weeping, weeping and *blubb'ring*.
Shakeſp. Romeo and Juliet.

—A thief came to a boy that was *blubbering* by the ſide of a well, and aſked what he cried for. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Soon as Glumdalclitch miſs'd her pleaſing care,
She wept, ſhe *blubber'd*, and ſhe tore her hair.
Swift.

* BLUBBERED. *particip. adj.* [from *To blubber*.] Swelled; big; applied commonly to the lip.

Thou ſing with him, thou booby! never pipe
Was ſo profan'd, to touch that *blubber'd* lip.
Dryden.

* BLUDGEON. *n. ſ.* A ſhort ſtick, with one end loaded, uſed as an offenſive weapon.

(1.) * BLUE. *adj.* [*blew*, Sax. *bleu*, Fr.] One of the ſeven original colours.—

There's gold, and here,
My *blueſt* veins to kiſs; a hand that kings
Have lipt and trembled kiſſing. *Shakeſpeare.*

Where fires thou find'ſt unrak'd, and hearths unſwept,
There pinch the maids as *blue* as bilberry. *Shak.*

O coward conſcience! how doſt thou afflict me?
The lights burn *blue*.—Is it not dead midnight?
Cold fearful drops ſtand on my trembling fleſh.
Shakeſpeare.

Why does one climate, and one ſoil endue
The bluſhing poppy with a crimſon hue;
Yet leave the lily pale, and tinge the violet *blue*?
Prior.

—There was ſcarce any other colour ſenſible beſides red and *blue*; only the *blues*, and principally the ſecond *blue*, inclined a little to green. *Newton.*

(2.) BLUE is one of the 7 colours into which the rays of light divide when refracted through a glaſs priſm.—For an account of the particular ſtructure of bodies by which they appear of a blue colour, ſee CHROMATICS.—The principal blues uſed in painting are Pruſſian blue, bice, Saunders blue, azure, or ſmalt, verditer, &c. for the preparation of which, ſee COLOUR-MAKING.—In dyeing, the principal ingredients for giving a blue colour, are indigo and woad. See DYEING.

(3.) BLUE, in geography, a ſmall river of the United States, in the North Weſtern Territory. It riſes near the head of Silver Creek, and after running S. W. for ſeveral miles, turns S. by E. and falls into the Ohio about 30 miles below the river Salt. It is 20 yards wide at its mouth.

To BLUE, *v. a.* To make of a blue colour; to give a bluiſh caſt. *Aſh.*

BLUE ASHES, [*Cendre bleu*, Fr. by corruption, Sanders blue,] are much uſed in water-colours, and ſome are very lively; but in oil they grow greeniſh, being of the nature of verdigriſe. They are found in the form of a ſoft ſtone, in places where there are copper mines, and water only is uſed in levigating them, to reduce them to a fine powder. This kind of blue ought to be uſed in works to be ſeen by candle light, as in ſcene painting; for though a great deal of white is mixed with it, it appears very beautiful, notwithſtanding it has a greeniſh caſt.

BLUE, AZURE. See AZURE, § 1 & 2.

BLUE BICE. See BICE, § 1 & 2.

BLUE BIRD. See MOTACILLA.

(1.) * BLUEBOTTLE. *n. ſ.* [*cyanus*; from *blue* and *bottle*.] 1. A flower of the bell ſhape; a ſpecies of *bottleflower*.—If you put *bluebottles*, or other blue flowers, into an ant-hill, they will be ſtained with red: becauſe the ants thruſt their ſtings, and inſtil into them their ſtinging liquor. *Ray.* 2. A fly with a large blue belly.—

Say, ſire of inſects, mighty Sol,
A fly upon the chariot-pole
Cries out, What *blue-bottle* alive
Did ever with ſuch fury drive? *Prior.*

(2.) BLUE-BOTTLE, in botany. See CYANUS.

BLUE-CAP. See BLEW-CAP.

BLUE COLOUR OF THE SKY. See SKY.

* BLUE-EYED. *adj.* [from *blue* and *eye*.] Having blue eyes.—

Riſe then, fair *blue-ey'd* maid, riſe and diſcover
Thy ſilver brow, and meet thy golden lover.
Criſhaw.

Nor to the temple was ſhe gone, to move,
With prayers, the *blue-ey'd* progeny of Jove.
Dryden.

BLUE, FLANDERS, is a colour ſeldom uſed but in landſcapes, being apt to turn green. The French call it *cendre verte*, or green aſhes.

BLUE FISH. See CORYPHÆNA.

* BLUEHAIRED. *adj.* [from *blue* and *hair*.] Having blue hair.—

This place,
The greateſt and the beſt of all the main,
The quarters to his *blue-hair'd* deities. *Milton.*

BLUE-HILLS, a poſt town of the United States, in the diſtrict of Maine, and county of Hancock, E. of the Penobſcot; 344 miles from Boſton, and 624 from Philadelphia.

BLUE JAPAN, RECEIPT FOR MAKING. Take gum-water, and white lead a ſufficient quantity; grind them well upon a porphyry: then take iſinglaſs ſize, and the fineſt and beſt ſmalt, ſufficient quantities; mix them well, and add, of the white-lead, before ground, ſo much as may give it a ſufficient body. Mix all theſe together to the conſiſtence of a paint.

BLUE-JOHN, among miners, a kind of mineral which is fabricated into vaſes and other ornamental figures. It is of the ſame quality with the cubical ſpar, with reſpect to its fuſibility in the fire. It loſes its colour, and becomes white in a moderate heat: the weight of a cubic foot of the blueſt kind is 3180 ounces, and that of the leaſt blue is 3140 ounces. This ſubſtance began firſt to be uſed about 27 years ago at ODIN mine in Derbyſhire, where the greateſt quantities are ſtill found. The largeſt pieces are ſold for 9 l. a ton, the middle-ſized for 6 l. and the leaſt for 50 s.

* BLUELY. *adv.* [from *blue*.] With a blue colour.—

This 'ſquire he drop'd his pen full ſoon,
While as the light burnt *bluely*. *Swift.*

BLUE-MANTLE, in heraldry, the title of a purſuivant at arms.

(1.) BLUE MOUNTAIN, a high and extenſive ridge of the APPALACHIAN mountains, which is about 4000 feet high, and extends through the N. parts of New Jerſey into Pennſylvania, as far as the Suſquehanna. See ALLEGANY, and AMERICA, § 42.

(2.) BLUE MOUNTAIN. See CAIRNGORM.

* BLUENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blue*.] The quality of being blue.—In a moment our liquor may be deprived of its *blueneſs*, and reſtored to it again, by the affuſion of a few drops of liquours. *Boyle on Colours.*

BLUE NUNS, [*filles bleues*,] a title of thoſe of the order of the annunciation. See ANNUNCIADA.

BLUE, PRUSSIAN, or BERLIN BLUE, is conſiderably in uſe among painters, though inferior to the ultramarine blue. It is a modern invention, and was diſcovered by accident, about the beginning of this century. A chemiſt of Berlin, having ſucceſſively thrown upon the ground ſeveral liquors from his laboratory, was ſurpriſed to ſee it ſuddenly ſtained with a moſt beautiful colour. Recollecting the liquors he had thrown on each other, he made a ſimilar mixture in a veſſel, and produced the ſame colour. He did not publiſh his proceſs, but prepared and ſold his *blue*, which was ſubſtituted for *ultramarine*. The account of it was firſt publiſhed in the Berlin Memoirs, 1710; but without the deſcription of its proceſs. See CHEMISTRY, INDEX.

BLUE RIVER. See AZUL, and BLUE, N° 3.

BLUE, SAXON, a dye made by diſſolving indigo in oil of vitriol, by which the indigo becomes of a much more lively colour, and is extended to ſuch a degree, that it will go very far in dyeing. See COLOUR-MAKING.

BLUE, STONE OR POWDER, uſed in waſhing of linen, is the ſame with ſmalt, either in the lump, or powdered.

BLUE, TURNSOLE, is uſed in painting on wood. It is made of the ſeed of that plant, by boiling 4 ounces

ounces of turnſole in a pint and a half of water wherein lime has been ſlacked.

BLUE, ULTRAMARINE, [*q. d.* beyond ſea, from its being firſt brought into Europe out of India, and Perſia,] one of the richeſt and moſt valuable colours uſed in painting, is prepared from Lapis Lazuli, by firſt calcining the ſtone in an iron pot; then grinding it very fine on porphyry; then mixing it up with a paſte made of wax, pitch, maſtich, turpentine, and oil; and at laſt waſhing the paſte well in clear water, to ſeparate the colouring part from the reſt, which precipitates to the bottom, in form of a ſubtile, beautiful, blue powder. The water is then poured off, and the powder is dried in the ſun.

* BLUFF. *adj.* Big; ſurly; bluſtering.—

Like thoſe whom ſtature did to crowns prefer,
Black-brow'd and *bluff*, like Homer's Jupiter.
Dryden.

BLUFF-HEADED, among ſailors, is applied to a ſhip that has an upright ſtern.

(1.) BLUING, the act or art of communicating a blue colour to bodies otherwiſe deſtitute thereof. Landreſſes blue their linens with ſmalt; dyers their ſtuffs and wools with woad or indigo.

(2.) BLUING OF IRON, a method of beautifying that metal ſometimes practiſed; for mourning buckles, ſwords, and the like. The manner is this: Take a piece of grind-ſtone or whet-ſtone, and rub hard on the work, to take off the black ſcurf from it: then heat it in the fire; and as it grows hot, the colour changes by degrees, coming firſt to light, then to a darker gold colour, and laſtly to a blue. Sometimes alſo they grind indigo and ſallad-oil together; and rub the mixture on the work with a woollen rag, while it is heating, having it to cool of itſelf.

(3.) BLUING OF OTHER METALS is performed by heating them in the fire, till they aſſume a blue colour; particularly practiſed by gilders, who blue their metals before they apply the gold and ſilver leaf. Among ſculptors, bluing a figure of bronze, means the heating it, to prepare it for the application of the gold leaf.

* BLUISH. *adj.* [from *blue.*] Blue in a ſmall degree.—Side ſleeves and ſkirts, round underborne, with a *bluiſh* tinſel. *Shakeſpeare* —

At laſt, as far as I could caſt my eyes
Upon the ſea, ſomewhat, methought, did riſe
Like *bluiſh* miſts. *Dryden.*
Here, in full light, the ruſſet plains extend,
There, wrapt in clouds, the *bluiſh* hills aſcend.
Pope.

* BLUISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bluiſh.*] A ſmall degree of blue colour.—I could make, with crude copper, a ſolution without the *bluiſhneſs* that is uſed to accompany its vulgar ſolutions. *Boyle.*

BLUNDASHELAY, a village in Dorſetſhire, in the pariſh of Whitchurch.

* BLUNDER. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A groſs or ſtupid miſtake.—It was the advice of Schomberg to an hiſtorian, that he ſhould avoid being particular in the drawing up of an army, and other circumſtances in the day of battle; for that he had obſerved notorious *blunders* and abſurdities committed by writers not converſant in the art of war.—It is our own ignorance that makes us charge thoſe works of the Almighty as defects or *blunders*, as ill-contrived or ill-made. *Derham.*

(1.) * *To* BLUNDER. *v. a.* To mix fooliſhly or blindly.—He ſeems to underſtand no difference between titles of reſpect and acts of worſhip; between expreſſions of eſteem and devotion; between religious and civil worſhip; for he *blunders* and confounds all, theſe together; and whatever proves one, he thinks, proves all the reſt. *Stillingfl.*

(2.) * *To* BLUNDER. *v. n.* [*blunderen*, Dutch; perhaps from *blind.*] 1. To miſtake groſsly; to err very widely; to miſtake ſtupidly. It is a word implying contempt.—It is one thing to forget matter of fact, and another to *blunder* upon the reaſon of it. *L'Eſtrange.*—The grandees and giants in knowledge, who laughed at all beſides themſelves as barbarous and inſignificant, yet *blundered*, and ſtumbled, about their principal concern. *South.* 2. To flounder; to ſtumble.—

He who now to ſenſe, now nonſenſe leaning,
Means not, but *blunders* round about a meaning.
Pope.

(1.) * BLUNDERBUSS. *n. ſ.* [from *blunder.*] A gun that is charged with many bullets, ſo that, without any exact aim, there is a chance of hitting the mark.—There are *blunderbuſſes* in every loop-hole, that go off of their own accord at the ſqueaking of a fiddle. *Dryden.*

(2.) BLUNDERBUSSES are generally made ſhort and have wide bores.

* BLUNDERER. *n. ſ.* [from *blunder.*] A man apt to commit blunders; a blockhead.—Another ſort of judges will decide in favour of an author, or will pronounce him a mere *blunderer*, according to the company they have kept. *Watts.*

* BLUNDERHEAD. *n. ſ.* [from *blunder* and *head.*] A ſtupid fellow.—At the rate of this thick-ſkulled *blunderhead*, every plow-jobber ſhall take upon him ſo read upon divinity. *L'Eſtrange.*

BLUNDESDON, a village in Suffolk, N. W. of Leoſtoff.

BLUND's COURT, in Oxfordſhire, S. W. of Henley.

BLUNGOED, a town in Monmouthſhire, 6 miles N. W. of Abergavenny.

BLUNHAM, in Bedfordſhire, 4 miles W. of Potton.

BLUNKET, *adj. obſ.* Light blue. *Bailey.*

BLUNSDON, BROAD, BLUNSDON-BURY, and BLUNSDON-ST ANDREWS, } 3 villages in Wiltſh. between Cricklade and Berkſhire.

(1.) * BLUNT. *adj.* [etymology uncertain.] 1. Dull on the edge or point; not ſharp.—Thanks to that beauty, which can give an edge to the *bluntеſt* ſwords. *Sidney.*—If the iron be *blunt*, and he do not whet the edge, then muſt he put to more ſtrength. *Eccleſ.* 2. Dull in underſtanding; not quick.—

Valentine being gone, I'll quickly croſs,
By ſome ſly trick, *blunt* Thurio's dull proceeding.
Shakeſpeare.

3. Rough; not delicate; not civil.—Whitehead, a grave divine, was of a *blunt* ſtoical nature; one day the queen happened to ſay, I like thee the better, becauſe thou liveſt unmarried. He anſwered; Madam, I like you the worſe. *Bacon.*—A The mayor of the town came to ſeize them in

blunt manner, alledging a warrant to ſtop them. *Wotton.*—

'Tis not enough your counſel ſtill be true;
Blunt truths more miſchiefs than nice falſehoods do. *Pope.*

4. Abrupt; not elegant.—To uſe too many circumſtances, ere one come to the matter, is wearifome; to uſe none at all, is *blunt*. *Bacon.* 5. Hard to penetrate. This uſe is improper.—I find my heart hardened and *blunt* to new impreſſions; it will ſcarce receive or retain affections of yeſterday. *Pope.*

(2.) BLUNT, *n. ſ.* in fencing, a foil.

* *To* BLUNT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To dull the edge or point.—

So ſicken waining moons too near the ſun,
And *blunt* their creſcents on the edge of day. *Dryden.*

Earthly limbs and groſs allay,
Blunt not the beams of heav'n, and edge of day. *Dryden.*

He had ſuch things to urge againſt our marriage,
As, now declar'd, would *blunt* my ſword in battle,
And daſtardize my courage. *Dryden.*

2. To repreſs, or weaken any appetite, deſire, or power of the mind.—

Blunt not his love;
Nor loſe the good advantage of his grace,
By ſeeming cold. *Shakeſpeare.*

BLUNTISH, *adj.* Somewhat blunt.

* BLUNTLY. *adv.* [from *blunt*.] 1. In a blunt manner; without ſharpneſs. 2. Coarſely; plainly; roughly.—I can keep honeſt counſels, marr a curious tale in telling it, and deliver a plain meſſage *bluntly*. *Shakeſpeare.*—

A man of honeſt blood,
Who to his wife, before the time aſſign'd
For childbirth came, thus *bluntly* ſpoke his mind. *Dryden.*

* BLUNTNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blunt*.] 1. Want of edge or point; dulneſs; obtuſeneſs; want of ſharpneſs.—

The crafty boy, that had full oft eſſay'd
To pierce my ſtubborn and reſiſting breaſt,
But ſtill the *bluntneſs* of his darts betray'd. *Suckling.*

2. Coarſeneſs; roughneſs of manners; rude ſincerity.—His ſilence grew wit, his *bluntneſs* integrity, his beaſtly ignorance, virtuous ſimplicity. *Sidney.*—Manage diſputes with civility; whence ſome readers will be aſſiſted to diſcern a difference betwixt *bluntneſs* of ſpeech and ſtrength of reaſon. *Boyle.*—

Falſe friends, his deadlieſt foes, could find no way,
But ſhows of honeſt *bluntneſs* to betray. *Dryd.*

BLUNTSHAM, a village in Huntingdonſhire, S. of Erith.

* BLUNTWITTED. *adj.* [from *blunt* and *wit*.] Dull; ſtupid.—

Bluntwitted lord, ignoble in demeanour. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BLUR. *n. ſ.* [*borra*, Span. a blot, *Skinner*.] A blot; a ſtain; a ſpot.—Man, once fallen, was nothing but a great *blur*; a total univerſal pollu- *South.*

* *To* BLUR. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To blot; to obſcure; without quite effacing.—

Such an act,
That *blurs* the grace and bluſh of modeſty,
Calls virtue hypocrite. *Shakeſpeare.*

Long is it ſince I ſaw him;
But time hath nothing *blurr'd* thoſe lines of favour,
Which then he wore. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Concerning innate principles, I deſire theſe men to ſay, whether they can, or cannot, by education and cuſtom, be *blurr'd* and blotted out? 2. To blot; to ſtain; to ſully.—

Sarcaſms may eclipſe thine own,
But cannot *blur* my loft renown. *Hudibras.*

BLURTHICH, a diſtrict in Dumbartonſhire.

* *To* BLURT. *v. a.* [without etymology.] To ſpeak inadvertently; to let fly without thinking; commonly with *out* intenſive.—Others caſt out bloody and deadly ſpeeches at random, and cannot hold, but *blurt out* thoſe words, which afterwards they are forced to eat. *Hakewill.*—They had ſome belief of a Deity, which they, upon ſurprizal, thus *blurt out*. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—

They bluſh if they *blurt out*, ere well aware,
A ſwan is white, or Queenſbury is fair. *Young.*

BLURTON, a village in Staffordſhire, 2 miles S. E. of Newcaſtle under Lyne.

(1.) * BLUSH. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The colour in the cheeks, raiſed by ſhame or confuſion.—

The virgin's wiſh, without her fears, impart,
Excuſe the *bluſh*, and pour out all the heart. *Pope.*

2. A red or purple colour. 3. Sudden appearance; a ſignification that ſeems barbarous, yet uſed by good writers.—All purely identical propoſitions, obviouſly, and at firſt *bluſh*, appear to contain no certain inſtruction in them. *Locke.*

(2.) BLUSH OF A BUSINESS, is one of the many bombaſtic metaphors, which modern affectation has of late introduced into the Engliſh language. The late Prof. BEATTIE has juſtly expoſed this, along with many ſimilar faſhionable innovations, in his humorous dialogue between Dean Swift, a London bookſeller, and Mercury. After introducing the bookſeller as "ſpeaking Engliſh *of the very neweſt and beſt pattern*," he makes the dean apply to Mercury "to interpret ſome of this learned perſon's gibberiſh:"—whereupon the god, among other directions "to make Engliſh *as well nearly* as this learned bookſeller," tells him,—"Always when you can, prefer *figurative* to *proper* expreſſion, and be not nice in the *choice* of your figures, nor give yourſelf much trouble about their *conſiſtency*."—Thus "inſtead of—He ſpoke an hour on various topicks, you muſt ſay, *He was an hour upon his legs, and went into a variety of matter*: an idiom which is now very common and much admired, becauſe it is *figurative*, *verboſe*, and *ambiguous*: three qualities of ſtyle, which are now, among faſhionable writers and ſpeakers, indiſpenſable. Inſtead of—He undervalues his enemies, ſay, *He ſets no ſtore by thoſe who are inimical to him*.—Inſtead of—At firſt view, you muſt ſay, *At the firſt Bluſh of the buſineſs*," &c.

(1.) * *To* BLUSH. *v. a.* To make red. Not uſed.—

Pal-

Fig. 6. BLOCK of the IRON BRIDGE. at SUNDERLAND.

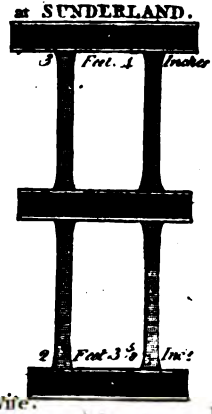


Fig. 2. Buphaga Africana. African Beef eater.

Fig. 1. Buceros the Bird Hornbill.

Fig. 4. BALISTES VETULA, the Old Wife.

Fig. 3. BALISTES MONOCEROS, the Unicorn Fish.

Fig. 5. Bradypus Didactylus the Two toed Sloth.

Fig. 8. Hystrix.

Fig. 7. Bruchus.

Fig. 10. BALÆNA Mysticetus, the Whale.

Fig. 9. BOA CONSTRICTOR.

ed perſons; now called *Bua*, an iſland in the Adriatic, joined to the continent and to Tragurium, now *Tran*, by a bridge.

(II.) BOA, in zoology, a genus of ſerpents, belonging to the order of amphibia. Mr Chambers ſays, the name is derived from ſome of the ſpecies following cows and ſucking their teats. The characters are, that the belly and tail are both furniſhed with ſcuta. Their bite is not poiſonous. See SERPENT. There are 10 ſpecies, *viz.*

1. BOA CANINA, has 203 ſcuta on the belly, and 77 on the tail; it is greeniſh, and variegated with white belts. It is a native of America, lodges in the hollow trunk of trees, and is about two feet long.

2. BOA CENCHRIA, has 263 ſcuta on the belly, and 57 on the tail. It is of a yellow colour, with white eye-like ſpots. It is a native of Surinam.

3. BOA CONSTRICTOR, has 240 ſcuta on the belly, and 60 on the tail. This is an immenſe animal: it often exceeds 36 feet in length; the body is very thick, of a duſky white colour, and its back is interſperſed with 24 large pale irregular ſpots; the tail is of a darker colour; and the ſides are beautifully variegated with pale ſpots. Beſides the whole body is interſperſed with ſmall brown ſpots. See Pl. XLI. fig. 9. The head is covered with ſmall ſcales, and has no broad laminæ betwixt the eyes, but has a black belt behind them. It wants the large dog fangs. The tongue is fleſhy, and very little forked. Above the eyes, on each ſide, the head riſes high. The ſcales of this ſerpent are all very ſmall, roundiſh and ſmooth. The tail does not exceed one 8th of the whole length of the animal. The Indians, who adore this monſtrous animal, uſe the ſkin for cloaths, on account of its ſmoothneſs and beauty. There are ſeveral of theſe ſkins of the above dimenſions preſerved, and to be ſeen in the different muſeums of Europe, particularly in the library and botanic garden of Upſal in Sweden, which has of late been greatly enriched by count Grillinborg. The fleſh of this ſerpent is eat by the Indians and the negroes of Africa. Piſo, Margraave, and Kempfer, give the following account of its method of living and catching its prey. It frequents caves and thick foreſts, where it conceals itſelf, and ſuddenly darts out upon ſtrangers, wild beaſts, &c. When it chooſes a tree for its watching place, it ſupports itſelf by twiſting its tail round the trunk or a branch, and darts down upon ſheep, goats, tigers, or any animal that comes within its reach. When it lays hold of animals, eſpecially any of the larger kinds, it twiſts itſelf ſeveral times round their body, and by the vaſt force of its circular muſcles bruiſes and breaks all their bones. After the bones are broke, it licks the ſkin of the animal all over, beſmearing it with a glutinous kind of ſaliva. This operation is intended to facilitate deglutition, and is a preparation for ſwallowing the whole animal. If it be a ſtag, or any horned animal, it begins to ſwallow the feet firſt, and gradually ſucks in the body, and laſt of all the head. When the horns happen to be large, it has been obſerved to go about for a long time with them ſticking out from its mouth. When the animal digeſts, the horns putrify and fall off. When this ſerpent has ſwallowed a ſtag or a tiger, it is unable for ſome days to move; the hunters who are well acquainted with this circumſtance, always take this opportunity of deſtroying it. When irritated, it makes a loud hiſſing noiſe. It is ſaid to cover itſelf over with leaves in ſuch places as ſtags or other animals frequent, in order to conceal itſelf from their ſight, and that it may the more eaſily lay hold of them. One of them which was killed in the reign of Claudius, was found with a child whole in its belly.

4. BOA CONTORTRIX, has 150 ſcuta on the belly, and 40 on the tail: the head is broad, very convex, and has poiſon-bags in the mouth but no fang, for which reaſon its bite is not reckoned poiſonous: the body is aſh-coloured, interſperſed with large duſky ſpots; and the tail is about one 3d of the length of the body. This ſerpent is found in Carolina.

5. BOA ENYDRIS, has 270 ſcuta on the belly, and 105 on the tail. The colour is a duſky white, and the teeth of the lower jaw very long. It is a native of America.

6. BOA HIPNALE is of a dull yellow colour, and is found in Aſia. It has 179 ſcuta on the belly, and 120 on the tail.

7. BOA HORTULANA, has 290 ſcuta on the belly, and 128 on the tail. It is of a pale colour, interſperſed with livid wedge-like ſpots. It is a native of America.

8. BOA MURINA, has 254 ſcuta on the belly, and 65 on the tail. The colour of it is a light blue, and round ſpots on the back. It is a native of America.

9. BOA OPHRIAS, has 281 ſcuta on the belly, and 64 on the tail; the colour is nearly the ſame with that of the conſtrictor, (N. 3.) but browner. The place where this ſerpent is to be found is not known.

10. BOA SCYTALE has 250 ſcuta on the belly, and 70 on the tail. The body is aſh coloured and bluiſh, with round black ſpots on the back, and black lateral rings edged with white. It is a native of America; and, like the conſtrictor, (N. 3.) though not ſo long, twiſts itſelf about ſheep, goats, &c. and ſwallows them whole.

BOADADA BASHAW, in the Turkiſh military orders, an officer of the janizaries, whoſe buſineſs it is to walk every day about the principal parts of the city, with a number of janizaries, to keep order, and to ſee that all things are regular, even to the dreſs. This office is for 3 months, and from this the perſon is uſually advanced to be a ſerach.

BOADICEA, or VOADICEA, a valiant Britiſh queen in the time of Nero the emperor, wife to Praſutagus king of the Iceni in Britain, who by his will left the emperor and his own daughters co-heirs to his great treaſures, in expectation of procuring by that means Nero's protection for his family and people: but he was no ſooner dead, than the emperor's officers ſeized all. Boadicea oppoſed theſe unjuſt proceedings; which was reſented to ſuch a pitch of brutality, that they ordered the lady to be publicly whipped, and her daughters to be raviſhed by the ſoldiers. The Britons took arms, to the number of 120,000, with Boadicea at their head, to ſhake off the Roman yoke; and made a general and bloody maſſacre of about

80,000

Fig. 6. BLOCK of the IRON BRIDGE. at SUNDERLAND.

Pl. XLI.

Fig. 2. Buphaga africana. African Beef eater.

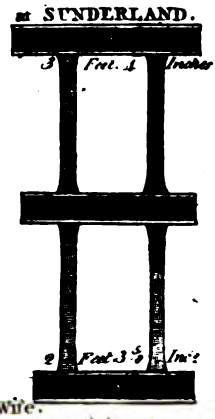


Fig. 1. Buceros the Red Hornbill.

Fig. 4. BALISTES VETULA. the Old Wife.

Fig. 3. BALISTES MONOCEROS. the Unicorn Fish.

Fig. 5. Bradypus Didactylus. the Two toed Sloth.

Fig. 8. Hyrrhus.

Fig. 7. Brachus.

Fig. 10. BALAENA Mysticetus. The Whale.

Fig. 9. BOA CONSTRICTOR.

Engraved for Encyclopedia Perthensis.

ſucceſs Romans. The whole province of Britain would have been loſt, if Suetonius Paulinus had not haſtened from the iſle of Mona to London, and with 10,000 men engaged the Britons. The battle was fought for a long time with great vigour and doubtful ſucceſs, till at laſt victory inclined to the Romans. Boadicea, who had behaved with all the bravery imaginable, diſpatched herſelf by poiſon, A. D. 61.

BOAE-ARUM. See BOA, N. I.

BOANERGES, [from בנ and רגש, Syr. *i. e.* ſons of thunder,] a title given by our Saviour to the apoſtles James and John.

(1) * BOAR. *n. ſ.* [*bar*, Saxon; *beer*, Dutch.] The male ſwine.—

To fly the *boar*, before the *boar* purſues,
Were to incenſe the *boar* to follow us. *Shakeſ.*
She ſped the *boar* away;
His eyeballs glare with fire, diffus'd with blood;
His neck ſhuts up a thickeſt thorny wood;
His briſtled back a trench impal'd appears.
Dryden.

(2) BOAR. See SUS.

(3) BOAR, WILD, among huntſmen, has ſeveral names, according to its different ages: the firſt year, it is called *a pig of the ſaunder*; the ſecond it is called *a hog*; the third, *a hog-ſteer*; and the fourth, *a boar*; when leaving the ſaunder, he is called a *ſingler* or *ſangler*. The boar generally lives to 25 or 30 years, if he eſcapes accidents. The time of rutting is in December, and laſts about 3 weeks. Boars feed on all ſorts of fruits, and on the roots of many plants, particularly fern. When near the ſea-coaſts, they will deſcend to the ſhore and demoliſh the tenderer ſhell-fiſh in very great numbers. Their general places of reſt are among the thickeſt buſhes that can be found: and they are not eaſily put up out of them, but will ſtand the bay a long time. In April and May they ſleep more ſound, than at any other time of the year. This is therefore the ſucceſsful time for taking them in the toils. When a boar is forced out of the thicket, he always goes from it, if poſſible, the ſame way by which he came to it; and when he is once up, he will never ſtop till he comes to ſome place of more ſecurity. If it happens that a ſaunder of them are found together, when any one breaks away, the reſt all follow the ſame way. When the boar is hunted in the wood where he was bred, he will ſcarce ever be brought to quit it; he will ſometimes make towards the ſhore to liſten to the noiſe of the dogs, but retires into the middle again, and uſually dies or eſcapes there. When a boar runs a-head, he will not be forced out of his way, by man or beaſt, ſo long as he has any ſtrength left. He makes no croſſings nor croſſings when chaſed. An old boar when killed makes no noiſe; the ſows and pigs cry when wounded. The ſeaſon for hunting the wild boar begins in September, and ends in December, when they go to rut. If it be a large boar and one that has lain long at reſt, he muſt be hunted with a great number of dogs, and thoſe dogs will keep cloſe to him; and the huntſman, with his ſpear, ſhould always be riding in among them, and charging the boar as often as he can, to diſcourage him: ſuch a boar as this, 5 or 6 couples of dogs, will run to the firſt place of ſhelter, and there ſtand at bay, and make at them as they attempt to come up with him. There ought always to be relays alſo ſet of the beſt and ſtauncheſt hounds in the kennel; for if they are of young eager dogs, they will be apt to ſeize him, and be killed or ſpoiled before the reſt come up. Collars with bells about the dogs necks are a great ſecurity for them; for the boar will not ſo ſoon ſtrike at them when they have theſe, but will rather run before them. The huntſmen generally kill the boar with their ſwords or ſpears: but great caution is neceſſary in making the blows; for he is very apt to catch them upon his ſnout or tuſks; and if wounded and not killed, he will attack the huntſman in the moſt furious manner. The places to give the wound with the ſpear is either between the eyes in the middle of the forehead, or in the ſhoulder; both theſe places make the wound mortal. When this animal makes at the hunter, there is nothing for it but courage and addreſs; if he flies, he is ſure to be overtaken and killed. If the boar comes ſtraight up, he is to be received at the point of the ſpear: but if he makes doubles and windings, he is to be watched very cautiouſly, for he will attempt getting hold of the ſpear in his mouth; and if he does, nothing can ſave the huntſman, but another perſon attacking him behind: he will on this attack the ſecond perſon, and the firſt muſt then attack him again: two people will thus have enough to do with him; and were it not for the forks of the boar-ſpears that make it impoſſible to preſs forward upon them, the huntſman who gives the creature his death's wound would ſeldom eſcape falling a ſacrifice to his revenge. The modern way of boar-hunting is generally to diſpatch the creature by all the huntſmen ſtriking him at once: but the ancient Roman way was, for a perſon on foot, armed with a ſpear, to keep the creature at bay; and in this caſe the boar would run of himſelf upon the ſpear to come at the huntſman, and puſh forward till the ſpear pierced him through. The hinder claws of a boar are called *guards*. In the corn, he is ſaid to *feed*; in the meadows or fallow-fields, to *rout*, *worm*, or *fern*; in a cloſe, to *graze*. The boar is farrowed with as many teeth as he will ever have; his teeth increaſing only in bigneſs, not in number: among theſe there are 4 called *tuſhes*, or *tuſks*; the two biggeſt of which do not hurt when he ſtrikes, but ſerve only to whet the other two loweſt, with which the beaſt defends himſelf, and frequently kills, as being greater and longer than the reſt. Theſe creatures in the Weſt Indies are ſubject to the ſtone: few of them are abſolutely free from it, yet ſcarce any of them have the ſtones of any conſiderable ſize. It is common to find a great number in the ſame bladder. They are uſually of about a ſcruple weight, and are angular and regular, each having 5 angles. Among the ancient Romans, boar's fleſh was a delicacy; a boar ſerved up a whole diſh of ſtate. The boar was ſometimes the military enſign of the Roman armies, in lieu of the eagle. Among phyſicians, a boar's bladder has been reputed a ſpecific for the epilepſy. The tuſh of the wild boar ſtill paſſes with ſome as of great efficacy in quinzies and pleuriſies.

To BOAR, in the menage, is ſpoke of a horſe when he ſhoots out his noſe as high as his ears, and toſſes his noſe in the wind.

(I.) * BOARD. *n. ſ.* [*baurd*, Goth. *bræd*, Sax.] 1. A piece of wood of more length and breadth than thickneſs.—With the ſaw they ſundred trees in *boards* and planks. *Raleigh.*—Every houſe has a *board* over the door, whereon is written the number, ſex, and quality of the perſons living in it. *Temple.*—

Go now, go truſt the wind's uncertain breath,
Remov'd four fingers from approaching death;
Or ſeven at moſt, when thickeſt is the *board*.
Dryden.

2. A table. [from *burdd*, Welch.]—

Soon after which, three hundred lords he ſlew,
Of Britiſh blood, all ſitting at his *board*. *Fair. Q.*
In bed he ſlept not, for my urging it;
At *board* he fed not, for my urging it. *Shak.*
I'll follow thee in fun'ral flames; when dead,
My ghoſt ſhall thee attend at *board* and bed.
Sir J. Denham.

—Cleopatra made Anthony a ſupper, which was ſumptuous and royal; howbeit there was no extraordinary ſervice upon the *board*. *Hakewill.*—

May ev'ry god his friendly aid afford;
Pan guard thy flock, and Ceres bleſs thy *board*.
Prior.

3. Entertainment; food. 4. A table at which a council or court is held.—Both better acquainted with affairs, than any other who ſat then at that *board*. *Clarendon.* 5. An aſſembly ſeated at a table; a court of juriſdiction.—I wiſh the king would be pleaſed ſometimes to be preſent at that *board*; it adds a majeſty to it. *Bacon.* 6. The deck or floor of a ſhip; *on board* ſignifies in a ſhip.

Now *board* to *board* the rival veſſels row,
The billows leave the ſkies, and ocean groans below.
Dryden.

—Our captain thought his ſhip in ſo great danger, that he confeſſed himſelf to a capuchin, who was *on board*. *Addiſon.*—He ordered his men to arm long poles with ſharp hooks, wherewith they took hold of the tackling, which held the mainyard to the maſt of their enemy's ſhip; then, rowing their own ſhip, they cut the tackling, and brought the mainyard by the *board*. *Arbuthnot on Coins.*

(II.) BOARD, [*Bureau*,] a public office, where accounts are taken, payments ordered, and the like; ſuch as the board of works, board of ordnance, board of treaſury, &c.

(III.) BOARD, in architecture and commerce, a long piece of timber, ſawed thin for building and ſeveral other purpoſes. See TIMBER. Deal boards are generally imported into England, ready ſawed, becauſe done cheaper, as we want ſaw-mills. *Clapboards* are imported from Sweden and Dantzic; oak boards chiefly from Sweden and Holland; ſome from Dantzic. We alſo import white boards for ſhoemakers; mill and ſcale boards, &c. for divers artificers. Scale boards are a thinner ſort, uſed for the covers of primers, thin boxes, &c. and are made with large planes.

(IV.) BOARD, in gaming, is applied to a machine, or frame, uſed in certain games, as a draught-board, a chefs-board, &c.

(V.) BOARD, in mechanic arts, a table or bench, whereon artificers perform their work; ſuch as a work board, ſhop board, taylor's board, &c.

(VI.) BOARD, in the language of ſeamen, admits of various ſignifications, according to the words conjoined with it. Thus,

1. BOARD, A GOOD. A ſhip is ſaid to *make* a good board, when ſhe gets up much to windward, or advances much at one tack and ſails upon a ſtraight line.

2. BOARD, A LONG, is when the ſhip ſtands a great way off, before ſhe tacks.

3. BOARD AND BOARD is when two ſhips come ſo near as to touch one another, or when they lie ſide by ſide.

4. BOARD, A SHORT, is when ſhe ſtands off a little.

5. BOARD, BACK, the ſame with ASTERN.

6. *To* BOARD IT UP, is to beat it up, ſometimes upon one tack and ſometimes upon another.

7. BOARD, TO GO ON, or TO GO ABOARD, ſignifies to go into the ſhip.

8. BOARD, TO MAKE A, is to turn to windward, and the longer your boards are, the more you work into the wind.

9. BOARD, TO SLIP BY THE, is to ſlip down by the ſhip's ſide.

10. BOARD, WEATHER, the windward ſide.

(VII. 1.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, a public ſpirited Society, eſtabliſhed by Act of Parliament 17th May 1793, and conſtituted by royal charter 23d Auguſt following, for the encouragement of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. See § 2.

(2.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, ACCOUNT OF THE ORIGIN OF THE. "The circumſtances" (ſay Sir J. Sinclair, the preſident and founder of this excellent inſtitution,) "which led to the eſtabliſhment of a board, ſo likely to be of material ſervice both to this country, and to ſociety at large, cannot fail to be intereſting, not only to the Members of that Board, but to the Public."—In enumerating theſe, Sir John mentions, that, "in 178[illegible] he undertook an extenſive journey through the moſt intereſting parts of Europe, to obtain political information, to aſcertain the ſtate of other countries, and to diſcover every means, which had been ſanctioned by the experience of other nations, that could be ſucceſsfully introduced for the improvement of Great Britain:" that "in the courſe of that tour," (wherein he travelled 7[illegible] miles in 7½ months,) he became acquainted with the moſt diſtinguiſhed authors, the ableſt ſtateſmen and the moſt zealous patriots, that Europe could then boaſt of:" and that he "returned full of ardour, to eſtabliſh, in his own country, all the beneficial inſtitutions, which were ſcattered over others; and to make this iſland the centre of the various improvements of which political ſociety was capable, more eſpecially thoſe of an agricultural nature. But that circumſtances having occaſioned a coldneſs with the miniſter, he found that any attempt, to carry ſuch meaſures into effect, was not likely to be ſucceſsful in parliament, and thence was under the neceſſity of waiting for a more favourable opportunity." Sir John now informs us, that when he publiſhed the 2d vol. of his Hiſtory of the Revenue, he "had intended to have concluded it with a chapter on the political circu[illegible]

circumſtances of the country; but after taking all poſſible pains to become maſter of the ſubject; all the information he could obtain was extremely defective; and he then ſaw the neceſſity of forming ſome inſtitution, for the expreſs purpoſe of collecting uſeful political information, the public having felt the moſt ſerious inconveniences and loſſes, from information of that nature not being any where to be obtained." This ſuggeſted the idea of "beginning that uſeful and extenſive work, *the Statiſtical Account of Scotland*, now nearly concluded in 20 vols. 8vo. and to the completion of which 900 individuals of intelligence and ability have contributed their aſſiſtance." About the ſame time, Sir John having received information reſpecting the celebrated wool of the Shetlands iſles, and of the dangers to which their flocks were expoſed, he was led, not only to lay a ſtate of theſe facts before the Highland Society, who gave every aſſiſtance in their power, but to get a new ſociety erected, entitled the BRITISH WOOL SOCIETY, for the ſpecial purpoſe of improving Britiſh wool. The buſineſs of that Society was carried on with ſuch energy and ſucceſs, that in ſummer 1792, "the greater part of the iſland had been ſurveyed, by perſons ſkilled in the management of ſheep, whoſe obſervations were circulated over the kingdom." It was in the preface to an account publiſhed by that Society of one of theſe tours, that Sir John firſt hinted at the eſtabliſhment of a Board of Agriculture. After ſtating that "they had eſtabliſhed many important facts; that they had proved that the fineſt breeds of Spain or of England will thrive in the wildeſt of the Cheviot hills, and that very fine woolled breeds may be propagated in the moſt mountainous diſtricts of Scotland:" he added, "But unleſs this object is thought worthy of public attention and encouragement; *unleſs a* BOARD OF AGRICULTURE *is conſtituted*, for the ſole purpoſe of ſuperintending the improvement of the ſheep and wool of the country and other objects connected, either with the cultivation or paſturage of the ſoil, the exertions of any private ſociety muſt ſoon ſlacken, and its labours become uſeleſs and inefficient: whereas, under the protection of the government of the country, and the ſuperintendance of ſuch a board, properly conſtituted, (more eſpecially if formed of perſons, who *gratuitouſly* devoted their ſervices to promote ſuch valuable and truly national intereſts,) every field would ſoon be cultivated to the beſt advantage, and every ſpecies of ſtock would ſoon be brought to their greateſt poſſible perfection." Impreſſed with theſe ideas, Sir John went up to London in December 1792, reſolved without farther delay to attempt the eſtabliſhment of ſuch a Board, although he ſays, "being at that time, in oppoſition to the miniſter, the proſpect of ſucceeding was not very promiſing." See § 5.

(5.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, ADVANTAGES OF THIS. On the 15th May 1793, Sir John Sinclair made his motion in parliament for the eſtabliſhment of this Board; which he introduced with a ſuitable ſpeech, ſetting forth the great advantages that would ariſe from ſuch an inſtitution. "We had heard much (he ſaid) of other ſources of national proſperity, but we ſeem to forget that no nation could be permanently happy and powerful, that did not unite a judicious ſyſtem of agriculture to the advantages of domeſtic manufacturing induſtry, and the benefits of foreign commerce."—"It is ſuppoſed, that there are 67 millions of acres in Britain, of which 7 millions are occupied with houſes, roads, rivers, lakes, &c. There remained 60 millions, of which 5 millions only were employed in raiſing grain; 25 millions were appropriated to paſturage, and there remained 30 millions either completely waſte, or under a very defective ſyſtem of huſbandry. That was an object of aſtoniſhing importance. Diſgraceful indeed it was, that nearly one half of the kingdom, which might furniſh ſubſiſtence to above 10 millions of people, ſhould remain in ſuch a ſtate." He then pointed out the advantages that would ariſe from the propoſed eſtabliſhment. "The ſtock of the farmer might be rendered infinitely more valuable, without requiring a greater quantity of food, or any additional care or expence." The additional value of black cattle, of which it is ſuppoſed there are 5 millions in the iſland, he eſtimated, at 20s. a-head, would add 5 millions per annum to the national wealth. There are at leaſt 20 millions of ſheep in Britain. By improving the fleece, 1s. per ſheep might be added to the value of the wool, which would produce one million: the manufacturer of the wool can treble the value; hence an addition of other 3 millions per annum; and the profits ariſing from improving the carcaſe would be ſtill more conſiderable. "Great improvements might alſo be made in other kinds of ſtock. Great ſavings would ariſe by the uſe of improved inſtruments of huſbandry, while by following judicious ſyſtems adapted to the different ſoils, ground would be cultivated at much leſs expence and with greater advantage. Theſe improvements would furniſh the means of healthful occupations to many thouſands, almoſt millions of people, who, from the integrity of their private conduct, and the vigour of their conſtitutions, ſhould as much as poſſible be multiplied." To ſecure theſe advantages, a Board of Agriculture was abſolutely neceſſary, 1. As a general magazine for agricultural knowledge. 2. As the beſt means of collecting and circulating that knowledge, and exciting a ſpirit of experiment. 3. As the moſt certain method of eſtabliſhing an extenſive foreign correſpondence, to procure the moſt ſpeedy information of agricultural improvements and diſcoveries, in all quarters of the globe. 4. As a public body, capable of being entruſted with the privilege of franking, to render its correſpondence leſs expenſive. 5. As the only medium, through which any general improvement of ſtock could be expected, the authority and influence of a public board far ſurpaſſing the exertions of private ſocieties, however active, in removing deep-rooted prejudices, and concentrating the knowledge of many individuals of different profeſſions. And, 6. As the beſt means of obtaining a Statiſtical Account of England, and giving a view of the real ſituation of that country; ſuch as had already been nearly completed in Scotland, and which might ſoon be univerſally followed in other countries: "And thus the principles of political ſociety, and the ſources of national improvement, would be more completely aſcertained, than in any for-

mer period of hiſtory." By way of contraſt to theſe advantages, Sir J. Sinclair argued, "That when perſons talked with raptures of the great wealth brought into this country by commerce, they did not conſider that the nation in many caſes loſt as much by neglecting agriculture, as they gained by commerce; of which a ſtronger inſtance could not be given than this—that in the northern parts of England, in the courſe of laſt harveſt (1792) grain to a very conſiderable amount, actually periſhed, for want of labourers to gather in the crop; all the hands in the neighbourhood being employed in manufactures." See farther § 5—7.

(4.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, CONSTITUTION OF THE. Without attempting to enumerate the privileges and powers granted by the royal charter, it is only neceſſary to mention here, that by that deed, the Board is appointed to conſiſt of a Preſident, Treaſurer, Secretary, Under-Secretary, two or more ſurveyors, one or more clerks, with ſuch other officers as may be neceſſary, and 30 ordinary members: beſides the Abps. of Canterbury and York, the Lord Chancellor, or Lord keeper of the Great Seal, Lord Preſident, Lord Privy Seal, Lord Treaſurer, or firſt Commiſſioner of the Treaſury, Lord High Admiral, or firſt Lord Commiſſioner of the Admiralty, the Bps. of London and Durham, the two Secretaries of State, the Maſter of Ordnance, the Speaker of the Houſe of Commons, the Preſident of the Royal Society, the Surveyor General of Woods and Foreſts, and the Surveyor of the Crown Lands, for the time being; who are all members *ex officiis*. The annual election of Officers and Members takes place on the 25th of March, when 5 of the ordinary members go out, and 5 others are choſen. At all meetings of the Board 7 is a quorum for doing buſineſs, the preſident or his deputy being always one. The number of honorary members is unlimited.

(5.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, HISTORY OF THE. From the circumſtances above-mentioned (§ 2.), Sir J. Sinclair's friends had ſo little hopes of his ſucceſs in getting the Board eſtabliſhed, that Mr Arthur Young, afterwards appointed Secretary to the Board, betted a copy of his *Annals of Agriculture* againſt a ſet of Sir John's *Statiſtical Account*, that he would not ſucceed. And when he afterwards informed him, that he had an appointment with Mr Pitt to explain the advantages of the meaſure, and that he ought to ſend his Annals to the binder, Mr Young wrote him—"When you come from Mr Pitt I ſhall have won the wager. Pray don't give Miniſters more credit than they deſerve. In Manufactures and Commerce, you may bet ſecurely, but they *never did, and never will* do any thing for the plough. Your Board will be *a Board in the Moon*." Sir John, however, took every prudent meaſure to inſure ſucceſs. Mr Dundas early promiſed his aſſiſtance, notwithſtanding their political differences; and Mr Pitt aſſured him, "that he would not oppoſe the meaſure, but that his ſupport would depend [illegible] that he judged was the ſenſe of the houſe." [illegible] tisfy the houſe of the beneficial tendency of [illegible] meaſure, Sir John, previous to his motion [illegible] liament, (See § 3.) circulated a printed pa[illegible] the members, containing a plan of the Board, its objects, advantages, (§ 3) and probable expences. Still, however, a few members, ſuſpecting ſome deep ſcheme of corruption or miniſterial influence to be at the bottom, oppoſed it vehemently; notwithſtanding which it was carried by a majority of 75; 101 voting for it and 26 againſt it. Mr Sheridan and others, who then oppoſed it, have ſince very handſomely expreſſed their conviction of the utility of the meaſure, and their wiſhes for its ſucceſs. But although the Board was eſtabliſhed by Act of Parliament, on the 17th May 1793, and L.3000 per annum voted for its ſupport, the charter (§ 4) was not drawn up and ultimately ſanctioned by the Great Seal, till the 23d of Auguſt; although the high fees paid for it, which amounted to no leſs than L.1189:12:2, might, one would think, have expedited the buſineſs more quickly. The Board, of conſequence, could not be aſſembled till the 4th of Sept. and the regular meetings did not commence till Jan. 23, 1794. One of the firſt objects of the attention of the Board was to collect materials for a Statiſtical Account of England. Accordingly ſpecimens of parochial reports were printed, with a view of rouſing the clergy of the church of England to exertions ſimilar to thoſe of their brethren in Scotland. But it was afterwards thought proper, on various accounts, to prefer *general* to *particular* inquiries, and to procure *county* inſtead of *parochial* reports. Accordingly ſurveys have been made within theſe 3 years, and reports printed of the State of Agriculture, in all the counties of the United kingdoms: and many of the gentlemen employed, having executed their taſks gratis, the charge of collecting this maſs of information, and ſurveying the whole Iſland, has not exceeded the inconſiderable ſum of L.2170. The expences of printing the reports, however, being great, ſubſcriptions of 10 guineas have been procured from thoſe who wiſhed for copies of the reports.—As a ſpecimen of the expedition with which the buſineſs of the board has been carried on, it is worth mentioning, that no fewer than 7 of theſe reports were given in, and either printed or in the preſs, within little more than 6 months after its 2d meeting; that during the firſt Seſſion above 80,000 papers had been printed and circulated, of which above 100 had been returned with valuable hints and obſervations wrote in the margins, before the 29th July 1794: and that by the end of the 2d Seſſion, the ſurvey of the whole kingdom had been nearly completed, and the reprinting of ſome of the reports had actually commenced. Such a quantity of important buſineſs begun and executed within ſo ſhort a period, we are perſuaded is not to be found parallelled in the annals of any public ſociety. Nor were theſe the only exertions made by the Board within that period. Through their recommendation and influence extraordinary merit was rewarded, L. 1[illegible] being granted by parliament, to Mr Joſeph El[illegible] ington, who had carried the art of draining la[illegible] to a degree of perfection hitherto unknown; a[illegible] the intereſts of a moſt uſeful claſs of the comm[illegible] nity, viz. the common labourers, had been atten[illegible] ed to, by introducing and paſſing the "act [illegible] the more effectual prevention of the uſe of defe[illegible] tive weights, and falſe and unequal balances

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and there is every reaſon to believe, that in conſequence of the recommendations of the Board, in Jan. 1795, 50,000 additional acres were planted with potatoes, and a famine of conſequence prevented, by thus providing 6 months proviſions for about a million of people. The crop of wheat however, in 1795, proving defective, the preſident recommended to the Board, an extra-cultivation of that neceſſary grain, in a letter which was ſent to all the members, and to the quarter ſeſſions of the counties, as well as inſerted in 50 different Newſpapers, in conſequence whereof a greater quantity of wheat was ſown, and, with the advantage of a favourable ſeaſon, a more productive and plentiful crop has been reaped in Auguſt 1796, than perhaps at any former period in the annals of Britiſh agriculture.

(6.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, OBJECTS OF THE. We ſhould ſwell this article beyond all bounds, were we to enumerate all the objects of this truly patriotic inſtitution. We ſhall, therefore, after giving the great outlines of inveſtigation, as ſtated by Sir J. Sinclair to the Board, in his "General View of the Inquiries eſſential for the internal improvement of the kingdom," only mention one or two important particulars, which are now objects of their attention. The former are thus ranked by the preſident. "I. The riches to be obtained from the ſurface of the national territory. II. The mineral or ſubterraneous treaſures of which the country is poſſeſſed. III. The wealth to be derived from its ſtreams, rivers, canals, inland navigations, coaſts and fiſheries: and IV. The means of promoting the improvement of the people in regard to their health, induſtry and morals, founded on a ſtatiſtical ſurvey of every parochial diſtrict in the kingdom, and the circumſtances of its inhabitants. Under one or other of theſe heads, every point of real importance, that can tend to promote the general happineſs of a great nation, ſeems to be included." Amongſt the almoſt infinite variety of important objects, comprehended under theſe general heads, it muſt give pleaſure to every benevolent mind to find, that the meliorating the condition of the lower orders of the people occupies the attention of the Board, and that a committee has been already appointed upon "this important branch of duty." Three objects of attention have been pointed out on this ſubject: 1. To promote improvements in the conſtruction of cottages, and to aſcertain the means of leſſening the conſumption of fuel. 2. To recommend the annexing of a large garden to each cottage; and 3. To encourage the extenſion of friendly Societies. Another important object, which by the exertions of the Board and their preſident, is now under the conſideration of parliament, is to procure an act for the incloſure and cultivation of the waſte lands in Great Britain; and thus to

"Cut off thoſe legal bars,
"Which cruſh the culture of our fruitful iſle.
"Were they removed, unbounded wealth would
"flow:
"Our waſtes would then with varied produce
"ſmile,
"And England ſoon a ſecond Eden prove."

In a word, the great objects of the Board are to collect and condenſe every particle of information, that can be intereſting either to individuals or ſociety. It will then be eaſy for rulers to know (as Sir John obſerves) how the happineſs of the people they govern may be beſt ſecured, and ſchemes of public felicity realized.—"When the principles of improved huſbandry are once clearly aſcertained, and when by wiſe laws every obſtacle to improvement ſhall be removed, the farmer will be enabled to raiſe at leſs expence a much greater quantity of proviſions, and conſequently will have it in his power to ſell them at a lower rate to the public. The people, having thus the neceſſaries of life cheaper, muſt be better ſatisfied with the government under which they live, than they otherwiſe would be, and muſt have more money to lay out on ſuperfluities, the taxes on which are the principal ſources of the revenue. Hence both the peace of the country and the reſources of the State depend upon the progreſs of our agricultural improvements." "Theſe are objects, (as Gen. Waſhington juſtly obſerves, in his letter to Sir John,) truly worthy the attention of a great mind, and every friend to the human race muſt readily lend his aid towards their accompliſhment."

(7.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, PHILANTHROPIC PROSPECTS ARISING FROM THE SUCCESS OF THE. We cannot cloſe our account of this public-ſpirited inſtitution, without giving another quotation or two from the preſident's account of it (already ſo often cited); which breathe the true ſpirit of humanity and univerſal philanthropy. In his addreſs to the board, 24th May, 1796, Sir John obſerves, "that a ſingle additional acre, cultivated at home, is more truly valuable than the moſt extenſive poſſeſſions acquired abroad, at an enormous expence of treaſure and of blood, and retained with difficulty and danger." And in a former addreſs, on the 29th July, 1794, after ſtating that the probable addition to the national capital by the improvement of 22,351,000 acres of waſte lands would amount at 30 years purchaſe to L.905,215,500; beſides L.30,193,850 of additional national income; he allows an objection may be urged, that the improvement of theſe 22,351,000 acres at L.4 per acre would occaſion an expence of L.89,404,000. To this, after replying, that "in a national account this expence is no object;—that the public, inſtead of loſing, gains by the expenditure; and that the money thus laid out might have lain dormant; might have been waſted, or deſtined for the cultivation of diſtant territories, with all the riſk of being taken by an enemy;" &c. he adds—"That here it is impoſſible not to advert to the aſtoniſhing difference between ſpending 89 millions in improvements at home, or in foreign conqueſt. After the expenditure of that ſum in war, it would be accounted a moſt fortunate means of re-imburſement, if we could ſecure any territory, by a commercial intercourſe with which, 5 millions per annum could be gained; whilſt, at the ſame time, it would be neceſſary to pay at leaſt 5 millions of additional taxes. But if that money were laid out at home, or rather, if individuals were encouraged to expend a part of their wealth, in the internal improvement of the country, inſtead of new ta-

being neceſſary, the old ones would become lighter and more eaſily paid; and inſtead of dragging 5,000,000 per annum from an enormous diſtance, with much riſk and expence, 30 millions would be produced within our own domain, and always at our command." But the moſt philanthropic propoſal is that with which Sir J. Sinclair cloſes his Account of the Board. After ſtating that, notwithſtanding the war, much uſeful information had been received from, and communicated to, foreign countries, by the Board, he propoſes a "*Plan of an Agreement among the Powers of Europe and the United States of America, for rewarding Diſcoveries of general Benefit to Society.*" The general outlines are, "that each power ſhould agree to pay a ſum according to its revenue, for rewarding thoſe who make any uſeful diſcovery in rural œconomy, medicine, or the arts; and that ſuch diſcoveries ſhall be rapidly extended to the different countries; and brought to their ultimate ſtate of perfection. The attention of mankind being thus directed to ſuch objects, it is impoſſible to ſay, to what perfection the arts neceſſary for their comfort and ſuſtenance might be carried. The deſire for fame and emolument, and the emulation of many nations, rivalling each other in ſuch arts, would produce diſcoveries, the importance of which can hardly be eſtimated. And ſuch an undertaking might have the effect of rendering wars leſs frequent and ferocious." He concludes, "If the meaſures above hinted at were adopted, a new ſcene in politics might be the happy conſequence, and rulers of nations might in future boaſt,—not of their numerous fleets,—not of their gallant armies,—not of extended commerce,—of ſplendid or luxurious arts, or acquiſitions by intrigue or conqueſt,—*But of* THIS—*That within their reſpective dominions, a greater number of human beings enjoyed all the bleſſings of political ſociety, in greater perfection, than hitherto they had ever been enabled to attain, in any former period of hiſtory.*"

(VIII.) BOARD OF GREEN CLOTH, a court of juſtice held in the compting houſe of the king's houſehold, for taking cognizance of all matters of government within the king's court, and for correcting the ſervants that offended. It had alſo the authority of preſerving the peace for 12 miles round the king's court, wherever it ſhould be, excepting at London. The judge of this court was the Lord Steward who was aſſiſted by a Treaſurer, Comptroller, Cofferer, Clerks, &c. It took its name from a green cloth ſpread over the board where they ſat. It was aboliſhed in 1782.

(IX.) BOARD OF TRADE, [*bureau de commerce,*] a ci-devant office in the French polity, eſtabliſhed in 1723, was compoſed of 8 perſons, who diſcuſſed all papers and propoſals relating to the improvement of trade, and ſettled all difficulties in navigation and commerce.

(X.) BOARD OF TRADE AND PLANTATIONS was eſtabliſhed by K. William III. in 1696, for ſettling all diſputes and regulations relating to commerce and colonies. This board, beſides miniſters of ſtate, conſiſts of 8 commiſſioners, with an annual ſalary of £. 1000 each.

* *To* BOARD. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To attack a ſhip by force; the ſame as to ſtorm, uſed formerly.—

I *boarded* the king's ſhip: now on the beak,
Now in the waſte, the deck, in every cabin,
I flam'd amazement. *Shakeſpeare.*

He not inclin'd the ſhip to *board*,
More on his guns relies than on his ſword,
From whence a fatal volley we receiv'd;
It miſs'd the duke; but his great heart it griev'd.
Waller.

Arm, arm, ſhe cry'd, and let our Tyrians *board*
With our's his fleet, and carry fire and ſword.
Denham.

2. To attack, or make the firſt attempt upon a man; *aborder quelqu'un*, Fr.—

Whom thus at gaze, the Palmer 'gan to *board*
With goodly reaſon, and thus fair beſpake.
Fairy Queen.

Away, I do beſeech you, both away;
I'll *board* him preſently. *Shakeſp. Hamlet.*

—Sure, unleſs he knew ſome ſtrain in me, that I knew not myſelf, he would never have *boarded* me in his fury. *Shakeſp.*—They learn what aſſociates and correſpondents they had, and how far every one is engaged, and what new ones they meant afterwards to try or *board*. *Bacon's Henry* VII. 3. To lay or pave with boards.—Having thus *boarded* the whole room, the edges of ſome boards lie higher than the next board; therefore they peruſe the whole floor; and, where they find any irregularities, plane them off. *Moxon's Mechanical Exerciſes.*

(2.) * *To* BOARD. *v. a.* To place as a boarder in another's houſe.

(3.) * *To* BOARD. *v. n.* To live in a houſe, where a certain rate is paid for eating.—

That we might not part,
As we at firſt did *board* with thee,
Now thou wouldſt taſte our miſery. *Herbert.*

—We are ſeveral of us, gentlemen and ladies, who *board* in the ſame houſe; and after dinner, one of our company ſtands up, and reads your paper to us all. *Spectator.*

* BOARDER. *n. ſ.* [from *board.*] A tabler; one that eats with another at a ſettled rate.

BOARDING, in a naval engagement, a deſperate and furious aſſault made by one ſhip on another, after having found every other method to reduce her ineffectual. It may be performed in different places of the ſhip, according to their circumſtances and ſituation, by the aſſailant detaching a number of men armed with pikes, piſtols and cutlaſſes on the decks of his antagoniſt, who ſtands in the ſame predicament with a city ſtormed by the beſiegers. This, however, is rarely attempted by king's ſhips, which generally decide the combat without grappling; but is often practiſed by privateers, which, bearing down on the enemy's quarter or broadſide, drop from the bow ſprit, which projects over the defendants deck an earthen ſhell, called a *ſlink-pot*, charged with ſuffocating combuſtibles, which immediately burſts, catches fire, and fills the deck with inſufferable ſtench and ſmoke: in the middle of the confuſion thus occaſioned, the ſhip's crew ruſh aboard, under cover of the ſmoke, and eaſily overpower the aſtoniſhed enemy, unleſs they have cloſe quarters to which they can retreat and beat them off the deck.

BOARDING-PIKE, a pike made uſe of in boarding ſhips at an engagement.

* BOARDING SCHOOL. *n. ſ.* [from *board* and *ſchool*.] A ſchool where the ſcholars live with the teacher. It is commonly uſed of a ſchool for girls.

A blockhead, with melodious voice,
In *boarding-ſchools* can have his choice. *Swift.*

* BOARD-WAGES. *n. ſ.* [from *board* and *wages*.] Wages allowed to ſervants to keep themſelves in victuals.—

What more than madneſs reigns,
When one ſhort ſitting many hundreds drains,
And not enough is left him, to ſupply
Board wages, or a footman's livery? *Dryden.*

BOARHILLS, 1. a conſiderable village of Fife, in the E. end of the pariſh of St Andrews: 2. the diſtrict in which it is ſituated.

BOARIA LAPPA, or LAPPAGO, a name given by the ancient Romans to the fruit or rough balls of the common aparine or cleavers. Pliny calls the fruit *lappæ boariæ*, or *lappæ caninæ*, and ſometimes *tamariæ*.

BOARINA. See BOAROLA.

* BOARISH. *adj.* [from *boar*.] Swiniſh; brutal; cruel.—

I would not ſee thy cruel nails
Pluck out his poor old eyes; nor thy fierce ſiſter,
In his anointed fleſh ſtick *boariſh* phangs.
Shakeſpeare.

BOAROLA, or BOARINA, in ornithology, the name of a very ſmall bird, deſcribed by Aldrovandus, and others, and ſeemingly the ſame ſpecies with the MUSCICAPA, or FLY-CATCHER.

* BOAR-SPEAR. *n. ſ.* [from *boar* and *ſpear*.] A ſpear uſed in hunting the boar.—

And in her hand a ſharp *boar-ſpear* ſhe held,
And at her back a bow and quiver gay,
Stuff'd with ſteel headed darts. *Fairy Queen.*
Echion threw the firſt, but miſs'd his mark,
And ſtruck his *boar-ſpear* on a maple bark.
Dryden.

* BOAST. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. An expreſſion of oſtentation; a proud ſpeech.—Thou that makeſt thy *boaſt* of the law, through breaking the law diſhonoureſt thou God? *Rom.* ii. 23.—The world is more apt to find fault than to commend; the *exploit* will probably be cenſured, when the great action that occaſioned it is forgotten. *Spectator.* 2. A cauſe of boaſting; an occaſion of pride; the thing boaſted.—

Not Tyro, nor Mycene, match her name,
Nor great Alcmena, the proud *boaſts* of fame.
Pope.

(I.) * *To* BOAST. *v. a.* 1. To brag of; to diſplay with oſtentatious language.—For if I have *boaſted* any thing of him to you, I am not aſhamed. 2 *Cor.* vii. 14.—

Neither do the ſpirits damn'd
Loſe all their virtue, leſt bad men ſhould *boaſt*
Their ſpecious deeds. *Milton.*

—If they vouchſafed to give God the praiſe of his goodneſs; yet they did it only, in order to *boaſt* the intereſt they had in him. *Atterbury.* 2. To magnify; to exalt.—They that truſt in their wealth, and *boaſt* themſelves *in* the multitude of their riches. *Pſalm* xlix. 6.—Confounded be all them that ſerve graven images, that *boaſt* themſelves of idols. *Pſalm* xcvii. 7.

(2.) * *To* BOAST. *v. n.* [*bôſt*, Welch.] 1. To brag; to diſplay one's own worth, or actions, in great words.—Let not him that putteth on his harneſs, *boaſt* himſelf as he that putteth it off. *Kings.*—

The ſp'rits beneath,
Whom I ſeduc'd, *boaſting* I could ſubdue
Th' Omnipotent. *Milton.*

2. To talk oſtentatiouſly.—For I know the forwardneſs of your mind, for which I *boaſt of* you to them of Macedonia. 1 *Cor.* ix. 2. 3. It is uſed commonly with *of*.—

My ſentence is for open war, *of* wiles
More inexpert I *boaſt* not. *Milton.*

4. Sometimes with *in*.—

They *boaſt* in mortal things, and wond'ring tell
Of Babel, and the works of Memphian kings.
Milton.

—Some ſurgeons I have met, carrying bones about in their pockets, *boaſting in* that which was their ſhame. *Wiſeman.* 5. To exalt one's ſelf.—Thus with your mouth you have *boaſted* againſt me, and multiplied your words againſt me. *Ezek.* xxxv. 13.

* BOASTER. *n. ſ.* [from *boaſt*.] A bragger; a man that vaunts any thing oſtentatiouſly.—Complaints the more candid and judicious of the chymiſts themſelves are wont to make of thoſe *boaſters*, that confidently pretend, that they have extracted the ſalt or ſulphur of quickſilver, when they have diſguiſed it by additaments, wherewith it reſembles the concretes. *Boyle.*—

No more delays, vain *boaſter!* but begin;
I propheſy beforehand I ſhall win:
I'll teach you how to brag another time. *Dryd.*
He the proud *boaſters* ſent, with ſtern aſſault,
Down to the realms of night. *Philips.*

* BOASTFUL. *adj.* [from *boaſt* and *full*.] Oſtentatious; inclined to brag.—

Boaſtful, and rough, your firſt ſon is a ſquire;
The next a tradeſman, meek and much a liar.
Pope.

* BOASTINGLY. *adv.* [from *boaſting*.] Oſtentatiouſly.—We look on it as a pitch of impiety, *boaſtingly* to avow our ſins; and it deſerves to be conſidered, whether this kind of confeſſing them have not ſome affinity with it. *Decay of Piety.*

(I.) * BOAT *n. ſ.* [*bat*, Saxon.] 1. A veſſel to paſs the water in. It is uſually diſtinguiſhed from other veſſels, by being ſmaller and uncovered, and commonly moved by rowing.—I do not think that any one nation, the Syrian excepted, to whom the knwledge of the ark came, did find out at once the device of either ſhip or *boat*, in which they durſt venture themſelves upon the ſeas. *Raleigh's Eſſays.*—

An effeminate ſcoundrel multitude!
Whoſe utmoſt daring is to croſs the Nile,
In painted *boats*, to fright the crocodile.
Tate, Juv.

2. A ſhip of a ſmall ſize; as, a *paſſage boat*, *packet boat*, *advice boat*, *fly boat*.

(II.) BOATS, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. The conſtruction, machinery, and even the names of boats, are very different, according to the various purpoſes

poſes for which they are calculated, and the ſervices on which they are to be employed. Thus they are occaſionally ſlight or ſtrong, ſharp or flat bottomed, open or decked, plain or ornamented; as they may be deſigned for ſwiftneſs or burden, for deep or ſhallow water, for ſailing in a harbour or at ſea, and for convenience or pleaſure. The largeſt boat that uſually accompanies a ſhip is the long-boat, which is generally furniſhed with a maſt and ſails: thoſe which are fitted for men of war, may be occaſionally decked, armed, and equipped for cruiſing ſhort diſtances againſt merchant ſhips of the enemy, or ſmugglers, or impreſſing ſeamen, &c. The BARGES are next in order, which are longer, ſlighter, and narrower; they are employed to carry the principal ſea officers, as admirals, and captains of ſhips of war, and are very unfit for ſea. PINNACES exactly reſemble barges, only that they are ſomewhat ſmaller, and never row more than eight oars; whereas a barge properly never rows leſs than ten. Theſe are for the accommodation of the lieutenants, &c. CUTTERS of a ſhip, are broader, deeper, and ſhorter, than the barges and pinnaces; they are fitter for ſailing, and are commonly employed in carrying ſtores, proviſions, paſſengers, &c. to and from the ſhip. In the ſtructure of this ſort of boats, the lower edge of every plank in the ſide overlays the upper edge of the plank below, which is called by ſhip-wrights *clinch-work*. YAWLS are ſomething leſs than cutters, nearly of the ſame form, and uſed for ſimilar ſervices; they are generally rowed with ſix oars. Theſe boats more particularly belong to men of war; as merchant ſhips ſeldom have more than two, viz. a long-boat and yawl: when they have a third, it is generally calculated for the countries to which they trade, and varies in its conſtruction accordingly. Merchant ſhips employed in the Mediterranean find it more convenient to uſe a LAUNCH, which is longer, more flat bottomed, and better adapted every way to the harbours of that ſea, than a long-boat. A WHERRY is a light ſharp boat, uſed in a river or harbour for carrying paſſengers from place to place. PUNTS are a ſort of oblong flat bottomed boats, nearly reſembling floating ſtages; they are uſed by ſhip-wrights and caulkers, for breaming, caulking, or repairing a ſhip's bottom. A MOSES is a very flat broad boat, uſed by merchant ſhips amongſt the Caribbee iſlands, to bring hogſheads of ſugar off from the ſea beach to the ſhipping which are anchored in the roads. A FELUCCA is a ſtrong paſſage boat uſed in the Mediterranean, from 10 to 16 banks of oars. The natives of Barbary often employ boats of this ſort as cruizers. For the larger ſort of boats, ſee CRAFT, CUTTER, PERIAGUA, and SHALLOP. Of all the ſmall boats a NORWAY YAWL ſeems to be the beſt calculated for a high ſea, as it will often venture out to a great diſtance from the coaſt of that country, when a ſtout ſhip can hardly carry any ſail.

(III.) BOATS, M. BERNIERES'S EXPERIMENTS WITH TWO. The following account was publiſhed about twenty years ago, of "ſeveral trials made on a boat or ſloop, fit for inland navigation, coaſting voyages, and ſhort paſſages by ſea, which not, like ordinary veſſels, liable to be overſet or ſunk by winds, waves, water ſpouts, or too heavy a load; contrived and conſtructed by M. Bernieres, director of the bridges and cauſeways in France," &c. Some of theſe trials were made Aug. 1777, at the Gate of Invalids in Paris, in preſence of the provoſt, merchants, and a numerous concourſe of ſpectators of all conditions. They were made by way of compariſon with another common boat of the ſame place, and of equal ſize. Both boats had been built ten years, and their exterior forms appeared to be exactly ſimilar. The common boat contained only eight men, who rocked it and made it incline ſo much to one ſide, that it preſently filled with water, and ſunk; ſo that the men were obliged to ſave themſelves by ſwimming; a thing common in all veſſels of the ſame kind, either from the imprudence of thoſe who are in them, the ſtrength of the waves or wind, a violent or unexpected ſhock, their being overloaded, or overpowered any other way. The ſame men who had juſt eſcaped from the boat which ſunk, got into the boat of M. Bernieres; rocked it, and filled it, as they had done the other, with water. But inſtead of ſinking to the bottom, though brim full, it bore being rowed about the river, loaded as it was with men and water, without any danger to the people in it. M. Bernieres carried the experiment ſtill farther. He ordered a maſt to be erected in the ſame boat, when filled with water; and to the top of the maſt had a rope faſtened, and drawn till the end of the maſt touched the ſurface of the river ſo that the boat was entirely on one ſide, a poſition into which neither wind nor waves could bring her; yet, as ſoon as the men who had hauled her into this ſituation let go the rope, the boat and maſt recovered their poſition perfectly in leſs than the quarter of a ſecond; a convincing proof that the boat could neither be ſunk nor overturned, and that it afforded the greateſt poſſible ſecurity in every way. Theſe experiments appeared to give the greater pleaſure to the public, as the advantages of the diſcovery may be of the firſt importance to mankind. Yet it ſeems ſurpriſing, that we have heard nothing farther of this diſcovery being applied to practice.

(IV.) BOATS, TERMS USED IN NAVIGATING. The following terms are uſed among ſeamen in navigating boats:

1. BOAT, TO BALE, OR FREE THE, is to fling out the water.

2. BOAT, TO FEND THE, is to ſave her from beating againſt the ſides of the ſhip.

3. BOAT, TO MOOR THE, to faſten it with ropes.

4. BOAT, TO TRIM THE, is to keep her even.

5. BOAT, TO WIND THE, is to bring her head about.

(V.) BOATS, TRAIN OF, a number of ſmall veſſels faſtened to each other, aſcending up the Loire in France, by ſails when the wind ſerves, otherwiſe towed by men, ſometimes to the number of 50 or 80 to a ſingle rope.

To BOAT. *v. a.* To carry in a boat. *Aſh.*

BOAT-BILL. See CANCROMA.

BOAT-FLY, a water inſect, whoſe back is ſhaped like the bottom of a boat; the hind legs, which are thrice as long as the fore, aptly enough reſembling a pair of oars. Accordingly, contra-

to all other creatures, he ſwims, ſays Mouſet, on his back.

BOAT-HOOK, an iron hook, with a ſharp point on the hinder part of it, fixed on a long pole, uſed in bringing it to, or puſhing it from any other boat, ſhip, &c.

BOATING, a horrid kind of puniſhment in uſe among the ancient Perſians for capital offenders. The manner of boating was this: The perſon condemned to it being laid on his back in a boat, and having his hands ſtretched out, and tied faſt on each ſide of it, had another boat put over him, his head being left out through a place fit for it. In this poſture they fed him, till the worms, which were bred in the excrements he voided as he thus lay, eat out his bowels, and ſo cauſed his death, which was uſually twenty days in effecting, the criminal lying all this while in moſt exquiſite torment.

BOAT INSECT. See NOTONECTA.

* BOATION. *n. ſ.* [from *boare*, Lat.] Roar; noiſe; loud ſound.—In Meſſina inſurrection, the guns were heard from thence as far as Auguſta and Syracuſe, about 100 Italian miles, in loud *boations*. *Denham's Phyſico Theology*.

* BOATMAN. BOATSMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *boat* and *man*.] He that manages a boat.—

Boatſmen through the cryſtal water ſhow,
To wond'ring paſſengers, the walls below.
Dryden.

That booby Phaon only was unkind,
An ill-bred *boatman*, rough as waves and wind.
Prior.

BOAT-ROPE, the rope by which the boat is faſtened to the ſtern of the ſhip.

* BOATSMAN. See BOATMAN.

(1.) * BOATSWAIN. *n. ſ.* [from *boat* and *ſwain*.] An officer on board a ſhip, who has charge of all her rigging, ropes, cables, anchors, ſails, flags, colours, pendants, &c. He alſo takes care of the long-boat and its furniture, and ſteers her either by himſelf or his mate. He calls out the ſeveral gangs and companies to the execution of their watches, works, and ſpells; and he is alſo a kind of provoſt-marſhal, ſeizes and puniſhes all offenders, that are ſentenced by the captain, or court-martial of the whole fleet. *Harris*.—Sometimes the meaneſt *boatſwain* may help to preſerve the ſhip from ſinking. *Howel's Pre-eminence of Parliament*.

(2.) BOATSWAIN, OTHER DUTIES OF THE. It is the duty of the boatſwain particularly to direct what relates to the rigging of a ſhip, after ſhe is equipped from a royal dock yard. Thus he is to obſerve, that the maſts are properly ſupported by their ſhrouds, ſtays, and back-ſtays, ſo that each of thoſe ropes may ſuſtain a proportional effort when the maſt is ſtrained by the violence of the wind, or the agitation of the ſhip. He ought alſo to take care that the blocks and running ropes are regularly placed, ſo as to anſwer the purpoſes for which they are intended; and that the ſails are properly fitted to their yards and ſtays, and furled or reefed when occaſion requires. It is likewiſe his office to aſſiſt with his mates in the neceſſary buſineſs of the ſhip; and to relieve the watch when it expires. He ought frequently to examine the condition of the maſts, ſails and rigging; and remove whatever may be judged unfit for ſervice, or ſupply what is deficient; and he is ordered by his inſtructions to perform his duty with as little noiſe as poſſible.

BOATSWAIN'S MATE has the peculiar command of the long-boat, for the ſetting forth of anchors, weighing or fetching home an anchor, warping, towing, or mooring; and is to give an account of his ſtore.

(1.) BOAZ, the ſon of Salmon by Rahab, the harlot of Jericho, the ſecond huſband of Ruth, and great grandfather of David.

(2.) BOAZ, the name given by Solomon to one of the principal pillars of the temple.

(1.) * BOB. *n. ſ.* [from the verb neuter.] 1. Something that hangs ſo as to play cloſely; generally an ornament at the ear; a pendant; an ear-ring.—

The gaudy goſſip, when ſhe's ſet agog,
In jewels dreſt, and at each end a *bob*. *Dryden*.

2. The words repeated at the end of a ſtanza.—To bed, to bed, will be the *bob* of the ſong. *L'Eſtrange*. 3. A blow.—I am ſharply taunted, yea, ſometimes with pinches, nips, and *bobs*. *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter*. 4. A mode of ringing.

(2.) BOB, the ball of a ſhort pendulum.

(1.) * *To* BOB. *v. a.* [of uncertain etymology: *Skinner* deduces it from *bobo*, fooliſh, Span.] 1. To cut. *Junius*. Whence *bobtail*. 2. To beat; to drub; to bang.—

Thoſe baſtard Britons, whom our fathers
Have in their own land beaten, *bobb'd*, and thump'd. *Shakeſpeare*.

3. To cheat; to gain by fraud.—I have *bobbed* his brain more than he has beaten my bones. *Sh.*

Live Roderigo!
He calls me to a reſtitution large,
Of gold and jewels, that I *bobb'd* from him,
As gifts to Deſdemona. *Shakeſpeare*.

—Here we have been worrying one another, who ſhould have the booty, till this curſed fox has *bobbed* us both on't. *L'Eſtrange*.

(2.) * *To* BOB. *v. n.* To play backward and forward; to play looſely againſt any thing.—

And ſometimes lurk I in a goſſip's bowl,
In very likeneſs of a roaſted crab;
And when ſhe drinks, againſt her lips I *bob*,
And on her wither'd dewlap pour the ale.
Midſum. N. Dr.

They comb, and then they order ev'ry hair;
A birthday jewel *bobbing* at their ear. *Dryden*.

You may tell her,
I'm rich in jewels, rings, and *bobbing* pearls,
Pluck'd from Moors ears. *Dryden*.

BOBAR, a river in Sileſia.

BOBARTIA, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the triandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 4th order, *Gramina*. The calyx is imbricated; and the corolla is a bivalve glume, above the receptacles of the fruit. Of this genus there is only one ſpecies known, which is a native of the Indies, and hath no remarkable property.

(1.) * BOBBIN. *n. ſ.* [*bobine*, Fr. from *bombyx*, Lat.] A ſmall pin of wood, with a notch, to wind the thread about when women weave lace.—The

things

things you follow, and make ſongs on now, ſhould be ſent to knit, or ſit down to *bobbins*, or bone-lace. *Tatler.*

(2.) BOBBINS are turned in the form of a cylinder, with a little border jutting out at each end, bored through to receive a ſmall iron pivot. They ſerve to ſpin with the ſpinning wheel, or to wind worſted, hair, cotton, ſilk, gold, and ſilver.

(1.) BOBBING, among fiſhermen, a particular manner of catching eels, which is thus performed: They ſcour well ſome large lobs, and with a needle run a twiſted ſilk thread through them from end to end, taking ſo many as that they may wrap them about a board a dozen times at leaſt; then they tie them faſt with the two ends of the ſilk, that they may hang in ſo many hanks; which done, they faſten to a ſtrong cord, and, about an handful and an half above the worms, fix a plummet ¾ of a lb. weight, and make the cord faſt to a ſtrong pole. With this apparatus fiſhing in muddy water, they feel the eels tug luſtily at the bait; when they think they have ſwallowed it ſufficiently, they gently draw up the rope to the top, and bring them aſhore.

(2.) BOBBING, in geography, a village in Kent, near Sittingbourn.

* BOBBINWORK. *n. ſ.* [from *bobbin* and *work*.] Work woven with bobbins.—Not netted nor woven with warp and woof, but after the manner of *bobbinwork*. *Grew's Muſæum.*

BOBBIO. See BOBIO, No. 1. and 2.

* BOBCHERRY. *n. ſ.* [from *bob* and *cherry*.] A play among children, in which the cherry is hung ſo as to bob againſt the mouth.—*Bobcherry* teaches us at once two noble virtues, patience and conſtancy; the firſt, in adhering to the purſuit of one end; the latter, in bearing a diſappointment. *Arbuth. and Pope.*

BOBENHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in Weteravia, 3 m. from Francfort on the Maine.

BOBINGTON, a town in Staffordſhire, near Shropſhire.

BOBINGWORTH, a village in Eſſex, N. E. of Epping foreſt.

(1.) BOBIO, a territory of Italy in the Milaneſe.

(2.) BOBIO, the capital of the above territory, (No. 1.) ſeated on the Trebbia, 28 m. S. of Pavia. It is the ſee of a biſhop. Lon. 10. 15. E. Lat. 44. 35. N.

(3.) BOBIO, the largeſt river of Chili, in S. America.

BOBISATIO, or BOCEDISATIO, in muſic, denotes the uſing of the 7 ſyllables *bo, ce, di, ga, lo, ma, ni*, to expreſs the 7 muſical notes, in lieu of the ſix introduced by Aretine, *ut, re, me, fa, ſol, la*, as has been ſometimes done by the Netherland and German muſicians ſince the beginning of the 17th century, to avoid the mutation neceſſary in the uſe of the latter.

BOB STAY, in ſea language, a rope uſed to confine the bowſprit of a ſhip downward to the ſtem.

* BOBTAIL. *n. ſ.* [from *bob*, in the ſenſe of *cut*.] Cut tail; ſhort tail.—

Avaunt, you curs!
Be thy mouth or black or white,
Or *bobtail* tike, or trundle tail,
Tom will make him weep and wail. *Shake.*

* BOBTAILED. *adj.* [from *bobtail*.] Having a tail cut, or ſhort.—There was a *bobtailed* cur carried in a gazette, and one that found him brought him home to his maſter. *L'Eſtrange.*

* BOBWIG. *n. ſ.* [from *bob* and *wig*.] A ſhort wig.—A young fellow riding towards us full gallop, with a *bobwig*, and a black ſilken bag tied to it, ſtopt ſhort at the coach to aſk us how the judges were behind. *Spectator.*

BOCA, in ichthyology, the name given by Paulus Jovius to the BOCE of Ariſtotle, called the *boops*, from the largeneſs of its eyes. It is a ſpecies of the SPARUS, and is diſtinguiſhed by having 4 parallel longitudinal gold and ſilver coloured lines on each. Gaza and ſome others call it *voca* and the Italians BAGO.

BOCA-CHICA, 1. the ſtrait or entrance into the harbour of Carthagena in S. America. It is defended by ſeveral forts belonging to the Spaniards all of which were taken by the Britiſh in 1741 who were nevertheleſs obliged to raiſe the ſiege of Carthagena ſoon after: 2. A river of S. America.

BOCA-DEL-DRAGO, a ſtrait ſo called, between the iſland of Trinidad and Andaluſia, in the province of Terra Firma in S. America.

BOCAL. See BOCCALE.

BOCAMOLLE, in ichthyology, a name given by ſome to a very large and long Braſilian fiſh more uſually called by its Braſilian name, PIRA JURUMENBECA.

BOCANUM, in ancient geography, a town of Mauritania Tingitana, to the S. of mount Atlas ſuppoſed to be MOROCCO. Lon. 9. 0. W. Lat 31. 0. N.

BOCARDO, in logic, the fifth mode of the firſt figure of ſyllogiſms, wherein the firſt propoſition is particular and negative; the ſecond, univerſal and affirmative; and the third, or concluſion, particular and negative. Thus:

BOC Some animal is not man.
AR Every animal has a principle of ſenſation
DO Therefore ſomething has a principle of ſenſation that is not man.

* BOCASINE. *n. ſ.* A ſort of linen cloth; fine buckrum. *Dict.*

BOCAT, a fine valley of Syria, in which are ſituated the ruins of Balbec.

(1.) BOCCA, in glaſs-making, the round hole in the working furnace, by which the metal is taken out of the great pots, and by which the pots are put into the furnace. This is to be ſtopped by a cover made of earth and brick, and removeable at pleaſure, to preſerve the eyes of the workman from the violence of the heat.

(2.) BOCCA, in ichthyology, a name by which ſome authors call the URANOSCOPUS, or Star-gazer. It is a ſpecies of the TRACHINUS, diſtinguiſhed by having a great number of beards on the lower jaw.

BOCCACE, John, one of the moſt polite and learned writers of his age, was born in Tuſcany in 1313. His father firſt placed him with a merchant; but as he gave ſigns of genius, he was put afterward to ſtudy the canon law. Still, however

Or *Loltail* like, or truncle tail,
Tom will make him weep and wail.

• BOBTAILED. *adj.* from *bob* and *tail*. Docked; cut short.

a tail cut, or short.—There was a race
carried in a gazette, and one that
brought him home to his maſter. *L'Eſtrange.*

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over, he thought of nothing but poetry; though he did not ſo entirely devote himſelf to that art, as to forget other ſtudies. In the proſecution of theſe, however, as he fought every where for the beſt maſters, and had not an income ſufficient for his expences, he ſtood in need of the bounty of others: and was particularly obliged to Petrarch, who furniſhed him with money as well as books, and aſſiſted him in many other reſpects. Boccace was a great admirer of the Greek; he got Homer tranſlated into Latin for his own uſe; and procured a profeſſor's chair at Florence for Leontius Pilatus, to explain this poet. The republic of Florence honoured Boccace with the freedom of that city; and employed him in public affairs, particularly to negociate the return of Petrarch: but this poet not only refuſed to return to Florence, but perſuaded Boccace alſo to retire from thence, on account of the factions which prevailed in that republic. Having quitted Florence, he went to ſeveral places in Italy, and ſtopped at laſt at the court of Naples, where K. Robert gave him a very kind reception. He conceived a violent affection for that king's natural daughter, which made him remain a conſiderable time at Naples. He alſo made a long ſtay in Sicily, where he was in high favour with Q. Joan. He returned to Florence when the troubles were a little appeaſed: but not liking the courſe of life he muſt have followed there, he retired to Certaldo; and, far from the ſcene of buſineſs, ſpent his time in ſtudy, agreeably to his own humour. His great application brought on an indiſpoſition, of which he died in 1375. He wrote ſeveral books, ſome learned and ſerious, others of gallantry and full of ſtories. Among the former were, 1. An Abridgement of the Roman Hiſtory, from Romulus, till A. U. C. 1362; printed at Cologne, 8vo, 1534: 2. The Hiſtory of Illuſtrious Women; Bern, fol. 1539: 3. Genealogy of the Gods, with a treatiſe of mountains, ſeas, rivers, &c. Baſil, fol. 1532: 4. *De caſibus virorum illuſtrium*; Paris and Auſburg, 1544. This work began with Adam and ended with John king of France; and has been tranſlated into Italian, Spaniſh, French, and Engliſh. But his *Decameron*, or Ten Days Tales has chiefly immortalized him, though it is ſaid to have been a little corrupted the morals of its female readers. Petrarch, however, thought this compoſition contained ſo many charms, that he tranſlated it into Latin.

BOCA-CHICA. See BOCA-CHICA.

BOCA-DEL-DRAGO. See BOCA-DEL-DRAGO.

BOCCALE, or BOCAL, a liquid meaſure uſed in Italy, anſwering to what is called a bottle among us, being equivalent to about an Engliſh quart. Seven boccales and an half make a RUBBIA.

BOCCALINI, Trajan, a celebrated ſatirical writer, born at Rome, who, in the beginning of the 17th century, obtained the admiration of all Italy by his refined and delicate criticiſms. Sovereign princes did not eſcape the laſh of his ſatire. The cardinals Borgheſe and Gaetan having declared themſelves his protectors, he publiſhed his *Ragguagli di Parnaſſo*, and *La Secretaria di Apollo*, which is the continuation of the former. Theſe works were received by the public with uncommon applauſe. He there feigns, that Apollo, holding his court at Parnaſſus, heard the complaints of the whole world, and did juſtice according to the caſes. He at length printed his *Pietra di Paragone*; wherein he attacked the court of Spain, ſetting forth their deſigns againſt the liberties of Italy, and inveighing againſt them for the tyranny they exerciſed in Naples. The Spaniards complained of him in form, and reſolved to be revenged. Boccalini retired to Venice, but was there aſſaſſinated in a very ſtrange manner. He lodged with a friend, who having got up early one morning, left Boccalini in bed: a minute after, ſome armed men entered his chamber, and gave him ſo many blows with bags full of ſand, that they left him for dead; ſo that his friend returning ſome time after, found him ſpeechleſs. Great ſearch was made at Venice for the murderers, but, though they were never diſcovered, it was univerſally believed that they were employed by the court of Spain.

BOCCARELLA, in the glaſs manufacture, a ſmall hole or aperture of the furnace, one of which is placed on each ſide the bocca, almoſt horizontally with it. Out of them the ſervitors take coloured or finer metal from the piling pot.

BOCCHUS, a king of Mauritania, who delivered Jugurtha in fetters to Sylla.

BOCCIARDI, Clemente, called CLEMENTONE, hiſtory and portrait painter, born at Genoa in 1620, was the diſciple of Bernardo Strozzi, and afterwards ſtudied at Rome. By an excellent genius, and induſtrious application, he united and blended the antique and modern guſto, in a ſtyle that exhibited both gracefulneſs and ſtrength. Moſt of his works, (except his portraits, which were lively, natural, and graceful,) are in the chapels of Genoa, Piſa, and other cities of Italy; of which they are ſtill accounted the greateſt ornaments.

BOCCONA, a river of Naples, in Calabria.

BOCCONI, Sylvio, a celebrated natural hiſtorian, born at Palermo in Sicily. After he had gone through the uſual courſe of ſtudies, he was ordained prieſt, and entered into the Ciſtercian order, when he changed his name *Paul* into *Silvio*. This did not divert him from his favourite ſtudy, natural hiſtory, in purſuit of which he travelled through Malta, Italy, the Low Countries, England, France, Germany, Poland, &c. and, in 1696, was admitted a member of the academy of Virtuoſi in Germany. Upon his return to Sicily, he retired to a convent near Palermo; where he died in 1704, aged 71. He left many curious works, on botany and other ſubjects.

BOCCONIA, GREATER TREE CELANDINE: A genus of the monogynia order, ſo named from S. Bocconi; belonging to the dodecandria claſs of plants, and in the natural method ranking under the 27th order, *Rhoeades*. The calyx is diphyllous; there is no corolla; the ſtyles is bifid; the berry is dry, and monoſpermous. Of this genus there is but one known ſpecies, viz.

BOCCONIA FRUTESCENS, which is eſteemed for the beauty of its large foliage. It is very common in Jamaica and other warm parts of America, where it grows to the height of 10 or 12 feet, having a ſtraight trunk as large as a man's arm, and covered with a white ſmooth bark. At the top it

divides into ſeveral branches, on which the leaves are placed alternately. Theſe leaves are 8 or 9 inches long, and 5 or 6 broad; are deeply ſinuated, ſometimes almoſt to the mid-rib; and are of a fine glaucous colour. The whole plant abounds with a yellow juice of an acrid nature; ſo that it is uſed by the inhabitants of America to take off warts and ſpots from the eyes. The ſingular beauty of this plant renders it worthy of a place in every curious collection: and it ſeems the Indians are very fond of it; for Hernandez tells us, their kings uſed to plant it in their gardens. It is propagated by ſeeds from America, ſowing them in ſpring, in pots of light earth, which muſt be plunged in a hot-bed. When the plants come up, they are to be kept in ſeparate pots, which muſt always be kept in a ſtove.

BOCE. See BOCA.

BOCEDISATIO. See BOBISATIO.

BOCHAMPTON, a village 3 miles N. E. of Dorcheſter.

BOCHARIA. See BOKHARIA.

(1.) BOCHART, Matthew, a learned proteſtant divine of the 17th century, was miniſter of Alençon, and author of ſeveral works: viz. 1. A Treatiſe againſt Relics: 2. Another againſt the ſacrifice of the Maſs: printed at Geneva, in 1658. 3. A Dialogue on the difficulties, which the Miſſionaries raiſed againſt the Proteſtants of France. This work led the Elector Palatine to attempt the reunion of the Lutherans and Calviniſts, at Augſburg. 4. *Diallacticon*, a work containing a plan for that purpoſe; dedicated to the Elector and printed at Sedan; in 1662. His treatiſe againſt the maſs brought him into trouble. Some have confounded this author with his couſin Samuel, (N° 2.)

(2.) BOCHART, Samuel, one of the moſt learned men in the 17th century, was born at Roan in Normandy. He was a great proficient in the oriental languages; and was many years paſtor of a proteſtant church at Caen; where he was tutor to Wentworth Dillon, earl of Roſcommon. Here he diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his public diſputations with father Veron, held in the caſtle of Caen, in preſence of a great number of Catholics and Proteſtants. Bochart came off with great honour, which was not a little increaſed in 1646, upon the publication of the two parts of his *Geographia Sacra*, entitled *Phaleg* and *Canaan*: as well as by his *Hierozoicon*, printed in London in 1675. This treats *de animalibus ſacræ ſcripturæ*. In 1652, the queen of Sweden invited him to Stockholm, where ſhe gave him many proofs of her eſteem. At his return to Caen, he reſumed his miniſtry, and was received into the academy of that city. His learning was not his principal qualification; he had a modeſty equal to it; and hence enjoyed his great reputation in tranquillity, ſheltered from thoſe unhappy quarrels which ſo many other learned men draw upon themſelves. He was eſteemed by men of ſcience of all denominations. He died ſuddenly while he was ſpeaking in the academy, on the 16th of May, 1667, aged 78. A complete edition of his works was publiſhed in Holland, in 2 vols. folio, 1712.

BOCHE, *n. ſ. obſ.* an ulcer. *Chaucer.*

BOCHETTA, a place of Italy, famous in the of 1746 and 1747. It is a chain of mountains over which the great road lies from Lombardy to Genoa; and on the very peak of the higheſt mountain is a narrow paſs, which will hardly admit 3 men to go abreaſt. This paſs is properly called the *Bochetta*; for the defence of which there are 3 forts. It is the key of Genoa; and was taken in April 1796, by the French.

BOCHIM, in ancient geography, a place where the Hebrews aſſembled after Joſhua's death, ſuppoſed to have been near Shiloh. *Judg.* ii. 1—10.

BOCHIUS, or BOCQUI, John, a Latin poet, born at Bruſſels, in 1555. He travelled into Italy, Germany, Poland, and Muſcovy, and at his return became ſecretary to the Duke of Parma. During his journey from Smolenſko to Moſcow and Livonia, his feet were ſo ſeverely froſt-bitten, that amputation was ordered; but the Czar, John Baſilides, coming with an army to ravage the country, Bochius fled as faſt as he could, and though he was overtaken, ſtript, and beaten, by the Ruſſians, the exerciſe reſtored the uſe of his limbs. He died in 1609. The critics in the Netherlands ſet ſo great a value on his poetry, that they gave him the name of the *Belgic Virgil*. He wrote, 1. *De Belgâ Principatu.* 2. *Parodia Heroica Pſalmorum Davidicorum.* 3. *Obſervationes Phyſicæ, Ethicæ, Politicæ, et Hiſtoricæ, in Pſalmos.* 4. *Vita Davidis.* 5. *Orationes.* 6. *Poemata.*

BOCHLE, a hill in Banffſhire.

BOCHOUR, *n. ſ. obſ.* A butcher. *Chaucer.*

* BOCKELET. } *n. ſ.* A kind of long-winged
* BOCKERET. } hawk. *Dict.*

(1.) BOCKHAM, MAGNA, } Two villages in
(2.) BOCKHAM, PARVA, } Surry, near Leatherhead, 5 miles from Guildford.

BOCKHOLDT, John, a pretended prophet among the Anabaptiſts, who, in the beginning of the 16th century, diſgraced that party by his fanaticiſm. He was a journeyman tailor of Leyden, one of Munzer's followers, and an aſſociate of Matthias, who alſo pretended to the gift of prophecy. Theſe two fanatics, in 1533, eſtabliſhed a numerous party at Munſter. Having made themſelves maſters of the city, they depoſed the magiſtrates, confiſcated the eſtates of ſuch as had eſcaped, and depoſited the wealth they amaſſed together in a public treaſury for common uſe. They made preparations of every kind for the defence of the city; and ſent out emiſſaries to the Anabaptiſts in the Low Countries, inviting them to aſſemble at Munſter, which was now dignified with the name of *Mount Sion*, that from hence they might be deputed to reduce all the nations of the earth under their dominion. Matthias who was the firſt in command, was ſoon cut off in an act of phrenſy, by the biſhop of Munſter's army; and was ſucceeded by Bockholdt, who was proclaimed by a ſpecial deſignation of Heaven as he pretended, king of Sion, and inveſted with legiſlative powers like thoſe of Moſes. The extravagances of Bockholdt were too numerous to be recited: it will be ſufficient to add, that the city of Munſter was taken after a long ſiege and an obſtinate reſiſtance; and Bockholdt the mock monarch was puniſhed with a moſt painful and ignominious death.

BOCKHOLT, a town of Germany in the circle of Weſtphalia and dioceſe of Munſter, capital of a ſm

a ſmall diſtrict, and ſubject to the biſhop of Munſter: 10 miles E. of Cleeff. Lon. 6. 20. E. Lat. 51. 40. N.

BOCK-HORD, [*bochord*, Sax.] a place where books and writings are kept. *Obſ. Bailey.*

BOCKIA, among chemiſts, a large veſſel with a great belly, like a cucurbite. *Bailey.*

BOCKINFIELD, a village in Northumberland, near Eland.

(1.) BOCKING, a pariſh of England, in Eſſex, which, with the adjoining pariſh of BRAIN-TREE, contains about 1500 houſes, in general but indifferent.

(2.) BOCKING, a very large village of Eſſex in England, adjoining to BRAIN-TREE, from which it is ſeparated only by a ſmall ſtream. Its ſtreets are narrow and badly paved. Its church is a chantry. There are alſo ſome meeting-houſes in it; but the market is held at Brain-tree. There is a large manufactory of bayze, chiefly for exportation. Bocking is 41 miles N. E. of London.

BOCKLANA. See BAGLANA.

BOCK-LANDS, in the time of the Saxons, were what we now call *freehold lands*, held by perſons of rank, by charter or deed in writing. It was diſtinguiſhed from *folkland*, or copy-hold land, held by the common people without any written deed.

BOCKLETON, a town in Worceſterſhire, S. of Tewkbury.

BOCONNOC, a village in the county of Cornwall, S E. of Leſtwithiel.

BOCQUI. See BOCHIUS.

BOCTON-ALULPH, a town in Kent, N. W. of Wye.

BOCTON-MALHERB, a village in Kent, S. W. of Lenham.

BOCTON-STREET, and BOCTON UNDER BLEAN, two villages in Kent, 5 miles W. of Canterbury.

(1.) BODDOM, a ſmall fiſhing town on the coaſt of Aberdeenſhire, which contained 192 inhabitants, in 1794.

(2.) BODDOM CASTLE, an ancient fort in Aberdeenſhire, ſeated on a promontory between two very deep fiſſures, with high craggy rocks on each ſide, where the ſea rolls in with ſuch force, that the ſpray is often carried over the top of the caſtle. It is ſaid to have been built by a branch of the Marſhal family, and was formerly fortified with cannon, one of which is ſtill in it. It was inhabited ſome time at the beginning of this century.

BODDOM-HEAD, a promontory of Scotland, in Aberdeenſhire, ſo named by the natives, but better known among geographers by the name of BUCHAN-NESS, which ſee.

(1.) BODE, *n. ſ. obſ.* An abode. *Chauc.*

(2.) BODE, *part. obſ.* Commanded. *Chauc.*

(1.) * *To* BODE. *v. a.* [*bodian*, Sax.] To portend; to be the omen of. It is uſed in a ſenſe of either good or bad.—

This *bodes* ſome ſtrange eruption to our ſtate. *Shakeſp. Hamlet.*

—You have oppoſed their ſafe policy, with true and great wiſdom; what they *boded* would be a miſchief to us, you are providing, ſhall be one of our principal ſtrengths. *Sprat's Sermons.*—

It happen'd once, a *boding* prodigy!
A ſwarm of bees that cut the liquid ſky,
Upon the topmaſt branch in clouds alight. *Dryd.*

If fiery red his glowing globe deſcends,
High winds and furious tempeſts he portends:
But if his cheeks are ſwoln with livid blue,
He *bodes* wet weather by his wat'ry hue. *Dryd.*

(2.) * *To* BODE. *v. n.* To be an omen; to foreſhew.—

Sir, give me leave to ſay, whatever now
The omen prove, it *boded* well to you. *Dryden.*

BODEGRAVE, a village of Holland, on the Rhine, the inhabitants of which were barbarouſly uſed by the French in Dec. 1672. Moreri, in his Dictionary, makes it the ſcene of a victory obtained by the French over the Dutch, for which he is ſeverely cenſured by Mr Bayle, who proves that it was only one of their poſts, which the French were obliged to abandon, and on which account they uſed the inhabitants cruelly; but that no battle took place near it.

* BODEMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *bode*.] Portent; omen; prognoſtick.—

This fooliſh, dreaming, ſuperſtitious girl
Makes all theſe *bodements*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Macbeth ſhall never vanquiſht be, until
Great Birnam wood to Dunſinane's high hill
Shall come againſt him——
——————That will never be:
Sweet *bodements*, good. *Shakeſpeare.*

BODEN, a village in Lancaſh. near Manchester.

BODENTON, a village between Glouceſter and Cheltenham.

BODERIA. See BOSSOTRIA.

* *To* BODGE. *v. n.* [a word in *Shakeſpeare*, which is perhaps corrupted from *boggle*.] To boggle; to ſtop; to fail.—

With this we charg'd again; but out! alas,
We *bodg'd* again; as I have ſeen a ſwan,
With bootleſs labour, ſwim againſt the tide. *Shak.*

BODHAM, a town in Norfolkſhire near Holt.

BODIAM, a village in Suſſex, 9 m. from Winchelſea. It has a fair, June 6.

BODIANO, in ichthyology, the name of an American fiſh, of the ſize of a perch, with a purple back, and yellow ſides and belly. It is more uſually known among authors by the name of PUDIANO.

* BODICE. *n. ſ.* [from *bodies*.] Stays; a waiſtcoat quilted with whalebone, worn by women.—

Her *bodice* half way ſhe unlac'd,
About his arms ſhe lily caſt
The ſilken band, and held him faſt. *Prior.*

—This conſideration ſhould keep ignorant nurſes and *bodice*-makers from meddling. *Prior.*

BODICOT, a village in Oxfordſhire, within 3 miles of Banbury.

* BODILESS. *adj.* [from *body*.] Incorporeal; having no body.—

They *bodileſs* and immaterial are,
And can be only lodg'd within our minds. *Davies.*

This is the very coinage of our brain,
This *bodileſs* creation eccſtaſy
Is very cunning in. *Shakeſ.*

Theſe are but ſhadows,
Phantoms *bodileſs* and vain,
Empty viſions of the brain. *Swift.*

(1.) * BODILY. *adj.* [from *body.*] 1. Corporeal; containing body.—What reſemblance could wood or ſtone bear to a ſpirit void of all ſenſible qualities, and *bodily* dimenſions? *South.* 2. Relating to the body, not the mind.—Of ſuch as reſorted to our Saviour Chriſt, being preſent on earth, there came not any unto him with better ſucceſs, for the benefit of their ſouls everlaſting happineſs, than they whoſe *bodily* neceſſities gave occaſion of ſeeking relief. *Hooker.*—Virtue atones for *bodily* defects; beauty is nothing worth, without a mind. *L'Eſtrange.*—As clearneſs of the *bodily* eye doth diſpoſe it for a quicker ſight; ſo doth freedom from luſt and paſſion, diſpoſe us for the moſt perfect acts of reaſon. *Tillotſon.*—I would not have children much beaten for their faults, becauſe I would not have them think *bodily* pain the greateſt puniſhment. *Locke.* 3. Real; actual.—

Whatever hath been thought on in this ſtate,
That could be brought to *bodily* act, ere Rome
Had circumvention. *Shakeſ.*

(2.) * BODILY. *adv.* Corporeally; united with matter.—It is his human nature, in which the godhead dwells *bodily*, that is advanced to theſe honours, and to this empire. *Watts.*

BODIN, John, a native of Angers, one of the ableſt men in France in the 16th century, famous for his *Method of Hiſtory*, his *Republic*, and other works. He was in great favour with Henry III. who impriſoned John de Serre for writing an injurious piece againſt Bodin, and forbid him upon pain of death to publiſh it. But his favour was not of long continuance. The duke of Alençon, however, gave him ſeveral employments; and carried him to England with him as one of his counſellors, where he had the pleaſure to ſee his book *de Republica* read publicly in the univerſity of Cambridge, having been tranſlated from the French into Latin by the Engliſh. In the Ragguagli of Boccalini, he is condemned as an atheiſt to the fire, for having ſaid, that liberty of conſcience ought to be granted to ſectaries. He declared himſelf pretty freely againſt thoſe who aſſerted that the authority of monarchs is unlimited. Upon the death of the duke of Alençon, Bodin retired to Laon, where he married. He had an office in the preſidial of this city; and in Charles IX's time he was the king's ſolicitor with a commiſſion for the foreſts of Normandy. He died of the plague at Laon, in 1596.

BODINGTON, two Engliſh villages: 1. in Huntingdonſhire, near Bugden: 2. in Northamptonſhire, N. of Chipping Warden.

BODISHAM-HALL, near Cambridge.

* BODKIN. *n. ſ.* [*boddiken*, or ſmall body, *Skinner.*] 1. An inſtrument with a ſmall blade and ſharp point uſed to bore holes.—Each of them had *bodkins* in their hands, wherewith they continually pricked him. *Sidney.* 2. An inſtrument to draw a thread or ribband through a loop.—

Or plung'd in lakes of bitter waſhes lie,
Or wedg'd whole ages in a *bodkin's* eye. *Pope.*

3. An inſtrument to dreſs the hair.—

You took conſtant care
The *bodkin*, comb, and eſſence to prepare:
For this your locks in paper-durance bound. *Pope.*

BODLEIAN LIBRARY. See next article.

BODLEY, Sir Thomas, founder of the Bodleian library at Oxford, was born at Exeter, in 1544. When he was about 12 years of age, his father, Mr John Bodley, being a proteſtant, was obliged to leave the kingdom. He ſettled at Geneva with his family, and continued there till the death of Q. Mary. In that univerſity, then in its infancy, young Bodley ſtudied the learned languages, &c. under ſeveral eminent profeſſors. On the acceſſion of Q. Elizabeth, he returned with his father to England; and was ſoon after entered of Magdalen college in Oxford. In 1563, he took the degree of B. A. and the year following was admitted fellow of Merton college. In 1565, he read a Greek lecture in the hall of that college; in 1566, he took his degree of M. A. and read natural philoſophy in the public ſchools. In 1569, he was one of the proctors of the univerſity, and, for ſome time officiated as public orator. In 1576, he quitted Oxford, and made the tour of Europe; but returned to his college after 4 years abſence. He became gentleman-uſher to Q. Elizabeth, in 1583; and in 1585 he married the widow of Mr Ball, a lady of fortune. He was ſoon after ſent ambaſſador to the king of Denmark, and other German princes. He was next charged with an important commiſſion to Henry III. of France; and in 1588, went ambaſſador to the United Provinces, where he continued till 1597. On his return to England, finding his preferment obſtructed by the jarring intereſts of Burleigh and Eſſex, he retired from court, and could never afterwards be prevailed upon to accept of any employment. He now began the foundation of the Bodleian library, which was completed in 1599. Soon after the acceſſion of K. James I. he received the honour of knighthood, and died in 1612. He was buried in Merton College. His monument is of black and white marble, on which ſtands his effigy in a ſcholar's gown, ſurrounded with books. At the 4 corners are the emblematical figures of Grammar, Rhetoric, Muſic, and Arithmetic; two angels, &c. with a ſhort inſcription, mentioning his age and time of his death. Sir Thomas was a polite ſcholar, an able ſtateſman and a worthy man. Mr Granger obſerves, that he merited much as a man of letters, but incomparably more in the ample proviſion he made for literature, in which he ſtands unrivalled; and that his library is a mauſoleum which will perpetuate his memory as long as books themſelves endure. Sir Thomas wrote his own Life to the year 1609, which, with the firſt draught of the Statutes, and his Letters, were publiſhed from the originals in the Bodleian library, by Mr Thomas Hearn, in 1703.

BODMIN, a town of Cornwall in England ſeated in a bottom between two hills, which renders the air very unwholeſome. It conſiſts chiefly of one ſtreet, and the many decayed houſes ſhow that it has once been a place of greater note. It has a mayor, ſends two members to parliament and had formerly the privilege of the coinage of tin. It lies 32 m. N. E. of Falmouth. Lon. 4. W. Lat. 50. 32. N.

BODON, the ancient VIMINACIUM, a fortified town of Bulgaria in European Turkey, with

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archbiſhop's ſee. It is ſituated on the Danube,
31 m. W. of Widin. Long. 23. 24. E. Lat. 34.
22. N.

BODOTRIA, or BODUNIA, the ancient name
of the river FORTH.

BODRIGEN, a village on the coaſt of Corn-
wall in Penwidreth bay.

BODRIGY, in Cornwall, near St Ives bay.

BODROGH, a town of Hungary, ſeated on
the S. E. ſhore of the Danube, 100 m. S. E. of
Buda. Lon. 20. 20. E. Lat. 46. 15. N.

BODRUN. See TOAD.

BODTI, in zoology, an American ſnake, a
ſpecies of the ANGUIS GENUS; called alſo IBIJARA.

* BODY. *n. ſ.* (*bodig*, Saxon; it originally
ſignified the height or ſtature of a man.) 1. The
material ſubſtance of an animal, oppoſed to the
immaterial ſoul.—All the valiant men arole, and
went all night, and took the *body* of Saul, and the
body of his ſons, from the wall. *Samuel*.—Take
no thought for your life, what ye ſhall eat, or
what ye ſhall drink; nor yet for the *body*, what
ye ſhall put on. *Matthew*.—By cuſtom, practice,
and patience, all difficulties and hardſhips, whe-
ther of *body* or of fortune, are made eaſy. *L'Eſtrange*. 2. Matter; oppoſed to ſpirit. 3. A per-
ſon; a human being: whence *ſomebody* and *no-
body*. 4. [*bodig*, Saxon.] A wife: *body* for *bodig*, part it were not, to put
on the *body*, becauſe his foulith neighbour, from
whom he borrowed wherewith to kindle it, might
ſay, were it not for me thou wouldſt freeze.
Bacon.—

A dew'red maid!
And by an eminent *body*, that enforc'd
To law againſt it! *Shakeſ.*

'Tis a paſſing ſhame,
That I, unworthy *body* as I am,
Should commit thoughts on lovely gentlemen. *Shakeſ.*
—No harm hath me; what need I to fear? the
Red Roſe will not remember my ſins. *Beclud.*—
Humanity and reaſon obliged every *body* to ſub-
mit. *Clarendon*.—Good may he drawn out of e-
vil, and a *body*'s life may be ſaved, without ha-
ving an obligation to his preſerver. *L'Eſtrange*.
A *body*, oppoſed to repreſentation: a ſcriptu-
ral word.—A ſhadow of things to come; but the
body of Chriſt. *Coloſſians*. 5. A collective maſs;
a whole perſon.—There is in the knowledge both
of God and man this certainty, that life and death
are ſet between them the whole *body* of
mankind. *Hooker*.—There were ſo many diſaf-
fected perſons of the nobility, that there might
eaſily be ſay for the king. *Clarendon*.—When
ſome ſeparate themſelves into a *bo-
dy* by themſelves. *Addiſon's Guardian*. 6. The
main army; the battle; diſtinct from the wings,
van and rear.—The van of the king's army
was led by the general and Wilmot; in the *bo-
dy* was the king and prince; and rear conſiſted
of the braveſt foot, commanded under colonel
Ramſey. *Clarendon*. 7. A corporation; a num-
ber of men united by ſome common tye.—I ſhall
not conſider a particular, wherein your whole
body will be certainly againſt me, and the laity,
much in a man, on my ſide. *Swift*.—Nothing
can more common, than to hear that reverend
body of people ſtyled, the [illegible]

for their poverty, and hated for their riches,
Swift. 8. The main part; the bulk: as, the *bo-
dy*, or hull, of a ſhip; the *body* of a coach; the
body of a church; the *body*, or trunk, of a man;
the *body*, or trunk, of a tree.—Thence ſent rich
merchandizes by boat to Babylon, from whence,
by the *body* of Euphrates, as far as it is bended
weſtward, and, afterward by a branch thereof.
Raleigh.—This city has navigable rivers, that run
up into the *body* of Italy; they might ſupply ma-
ny countries with fiſh. *Addiſon*. 9. A ſubſtance;
matter as diſtinguiſhed from other matter.—Even
a metalline *body*, and therefore much more a ve-
getable or animal, may, by fire, be turned into
water. *Boyle*. 10. [In geometry.] Any ſolid fi-
gure. 11. A pandect; a general collection: as,
a *body* of the civil law; a *body* of divinity. 12.
Strength; as, wine of a good *body*.

(2.) BODY, as above diſtinguiſhed from the ſoul,
(§ 1. *Def.* 1.) makes the ſubject of anatomy.
The height of the human body is ſaid to be diffe-
rent in different parts of the day; ordinarily it is
an inch more in the morning than at night. The
body ceaſes to grow in height, when the bones
are arrived at a degree of firmneſs and rigidity,
which will not allow of a further extenſion by the
effort of the heart and motion of the blood.

(3.) BODY, in painting, or *To BEAR A BODY*,
ſignifies that the colours are of ſuch a nature, as to
be capable of being ground ſo fine, and mixing
with the oil ſo entirely, as to ſeem only a very
thick oil of the ſame colour.

(4.) BODY, in phyſics, an extended ſolid ſub-
ſtance, of itſelf utterly paſſive and inactive, indif-
ferent either to motion or reſt.

(5.) BODY, in the art of war, a number of for-
ces, horſe and foot united and marching under
one commander. See § 1. *Def.* 6.

(6.) BODY, in the manege. A horſe is chiefly
ſaid to have a *good body*, when he is full in the
flank. If the laſt of the ſhort ribs be at a conſide-
rable diſtance from the haunch bone, although
ſuch horſes may for a time have pretty good bo-
dies, yet, if they are much laboured they will
loſe them; and theſe are properly the horſes that
have no flank. It is alſo a general rule, that a
man ſhould not buy a light bodied horſe, and
one that is fiery, becauſe he will ſoon deſtroy
himſelf.

* *To* BODY. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To pro-
duce in ſome form.—

As imagination *bodies* forth
The forms of things unknown, the poet's pen
Turns them to ſhape. *Shakeſpeare*.

* BODY-CLOATHS. *n. ſ.* [from *body* and *cloathe*.]
Cloathing for horſes that are dieted.—I am infor-
med, that ſeveral aſſes are kept in *body-cloathes*, and
ſweated every morning upon the heath. *Addiſon*.

BODYKIN, *n. ſ. obſ.* A little body.

BOECE, or BOETHIUS, Hector, the hiſtorian,
was born at Dundee about A. D. 1470, and ſtu-
died with applauſe in the univerſity of Paris;
where he became acquainted with Eraſmus, and
laid the foundation of a friendſhip which was ho-
nourable to him. In 1500 he was recalled to A-
berdeen by Biſhop Elphinſton, who made him
principal of that univerſity. Gratitude for this
particular

attention the Life of that prelate. It appeared in his hiſtory of the dioceſe of Aberdeen; and may be conſidered, perhaps, as the moſt valuable portion of that work. His Hiſtory of Scotland, a more uſeful undertaking, was firſt publiſhed in 1526. In 1574 it underwent a 2d impreſſion, and was enriched with the 18th book and a part of the 19th. A farther continuation of it was executed by Joannes Ferrerius Pedemontanus. Boece died about A. D. 1550. He has been compared, and not without reaſon, to Geoffroy of Monmouth. He had a propenſity to fable and exaggeration; a fault, for which the elegance of his expreſſion does not compenſate. His judgment was not equal to his genius; and his fictions as a hiſtorian are a contraſt to his probity as a man. John Ballenden, archdeacon of Murray, tranſlated his hiſtory into the Scottiſh language at the deſire of James V. This tranſlation Will. Harriſon converted, though with imperfections, into Engliſh; and his aſſociate Hollingſhed publiſhed his work in his Chronicle, with additions and improvements by the ingenious Francis Thynne.

BOEDODOE, a village on the coaſt of Guinea.

BOEDROMIA, in antiquity, ſolemn feaſts held at Athens, in memory of the ſuccour brought by Ion to the Athenians, when invaded by Eumolpus ſon of Neptune, in the reign of Erectheus. But according to Plutarch, the boedromia were celebrated in memory of the victory obtained by Theſeus over the Amazons, in the month Boedromion.

BOEDROMION, in chronology, the 3d month of the Athenian year, anſwering to the latter part of Auguſt and beginning of September.

BOEHMEN, Jacob, called the *Teutonic philoſopher*, was a noted viſionary of the 17th century, born in a village of Germany, near Gorlitz, in 1575. He was bred a ſhoemaker; and marrying, ſupported a large family by this occupation; until, after amuſing himſelf with chemiſtry, a viſionary turn of mind, heated by ſermons and German divinity, got the better of his common ſenſe, and produced raptures and notions of divine illumination. Theſe he firſt gave vent to, in 1612, by a treatiſe entitled *Aurora, or the riſing of the Sun*; being a mixture of aſtrology, philoſophy, chemiſtry, and divinity, written in a quaint obſcure ſtyle. This being cenſured by the magiſtrates of Gorlitz, he remained ſilent for 7 years: but improving that interval by purſuing the flights of his imagination, he reſumed his pen; and reſolving to redeem the time he had loſt, he, in the remaining 5 years of his life, publiſhed above 20 books, which greatly needed what he concluded with, *A table of his principles, or a key to his writings*; though this has not proved ſufficient to render them intelligible to a common underſtanding. The key appeared in 1624, and he did not long ſurvive it. For early in the morning of the 18th of November that year, he called one of his ſons, and aſked him "if he alſo heard that excellent muſic?" to which being anſwered in the negative, he ordered the door to be ſet open, that the muſic might be the better heard. He aſked afterwards what o'clock it was? and being told it had ſtruck two, he ſaid, "It is not yet my time; my time is 3 hours hence." In the interim he was heard to ſpeak theſe words: "O thou ſtrong God of hoſts, deliver me accor ding to thy will! O thou crucified Lord Jeſu have mercy upon me, and receive me into th kingdom!" When it was near ſix o'clock, he too his leave of his wife and ſons, and bleſſed them and ſaid, "Now I go hence into paradiſe;" the bidding his ſon turn him, he immediately expire his laſt breath in a deep ſigh. Many have bee inveigled by the viſions of this fanatic, notwith ſtanding his talent in involving the plaineſt thing in myſtery and ænigmatical jargon. Among o thers, the famous Quirinus Kahlman may be re koned the principal of his followers in Germany who ſays, he had learned more alone in his ſtudy from Boehmen, than he could have learned fro all the wiſe men of that age together; and, tha we may not be left in the dark as to what ſort o knowledge this was, he acquaints us, that amid an infinite number of viſions it happened, that being ſnatched out of his ſtudy, he ſaw thouſand of thouſands of lights riſing round about him. No has Boehmen been without numerous admirers i England; among whom is the famous Mr Willia Law, author of *Chriſtian Perfection*, &c. who pub liſhed an Engliſh edition of Jacob Boehmen' works in 2 vols 4to.

BOEHMENISTS, the followers of Jacob Boeh men. See laſt article.

BOEN, a town of France, in the departmen of Rhone and Loire, and ci-devant province o Forez.

(1.) BŒOTIA, an ancient kingdom of Greec founded or rather reſtored by Cadmus, and ſ named by him, from the ox which is ſaid to hav directed him to the place where he built the cap tal of his new kingdom, better known afterward by by the name of THEBES. But as the inhab tants were ſcarce ever diſtinguiſhed as a nation b the name of BOEOTIANS, but of THEBANS, w refer to the article THEBES for their hiſtory, &

(2.) BOEOTIA, an ancient kingdom of Theſſal ſaid to have been founded by BOEOTUS. S BOEOTIANS.

BŒOTIANS, the inhabitants of BOEOTIA, (1 2.) All that we know of theſe Bœotians is, th they held this ſettlement upwards of 200 year and that the Theſſalians expelled them from i upon which they came and took poſſeſſion of th country, which till then had been called CADMEI and gave it the name of *Bœotia*. Diodorus a Homer tell us, that theſe Bœotians ſignaliz themſelves at the Trojan war; and the latter adc that five of Bœotus's grandſons, viz. Penelec Leitus, Prothœnor, Arceſilaus, and Clonius, we the chiefs who led the Bœotian troops thither.

BŒOTUS, in fabulous hiſtory, the ſon of Ne tune and brother of Æolus, by Arne the daug ter of Æolus king of Æolis. This laſt, havi ſent his daughter to Metapontum a city of Ital ſhe was there delivered of thoſe two ſons, the el eſt of whom ſhe called after her father's nar *Æolus*; and he poſſeſſed himſelf of the iſlands the Tyrrhenian, now the Tuſcan ſea, and bu the city of Lipara. Bœotus the younger ſon we to his grandfather and ſucceeded him in his kin dom, called it after his own name, and the ca tal city *Arne* from his mother.

BOERHAAVE, Herman, one of the great phyſicia

phyſicians, as well as the beſt men, that this or perhaps any age has ever produced, was born in 1668 at Vorhout, a village near Leyden. At the age of 16 he found himſelf without parents, protection, advice, or fortune. He had already ſtudied theology and the other eccleſiaſtical ſciences, with the deſign of devoting himſelf to a clerical life: but the ſcience of nature, which equally engaged his attention, ſoon engroſſed his whole time. This illuſtrious perſon, whoſe name afterwards ſpread throughout the world, and who left at his death above L. 200,000, could at that time barely live by his labours, and was compelled to teach the mathematics to obtain neceſſaries. But in 1693, being admitted M. D. he began practice; and his merit being at length diſcovered, many powerful friends patronized him, and procured him profeſſorſhips in the univerſity of Leyden; viz. thoſe of medicine, chemiſtry, and botany. The Academy of Sciences at Paris, and the Royal Society at London, invited him to become one of their members. He communicated to each his diſcoveries in chemiſtry. The city of Leyden became in his time the ſchool of Europe for this ſcience, as well as medicine and botany. All the princes in Europe ſent him diſciples, who found in this ſkilful profeſſor, not only an indefatigable teacher, but a tender father, who encouraged them to purſue their labours, conſoled them in their afflictions, and ſolaced them in their wants. When Peter the Great went to Holland in 1715, to inſtruct himſelf in maritime affairs, he alſo attended Boerhaave. His reputation was ſpread as far as China: a Mandarine wrote to him with this inſcription, "To the illuſtrious Boerhaave, phyſician in Europe;" and the letter came regularly to him. The city of Leyden has raiſed a monument in the church of St Peter, to the ſalutary genius of Boerhaave, *Salutifero Boerhaavii genio ſacrum*. It conſiſts of an urn upon a pedeſtal of black marble: ſix heads, 4 of which repreſent the 4 ages of life, and two the ſciences in which Boerhaave excelled, form a group iſſuing between the urn and its ſupporters. The capital of this baſis is decorated with a drapery of white marble, in which the artiſt has ſhown the different emblems of diſeaſes and their remedies. Above, upon the ſurface of the pedeſtal, is the medallion of Boerhaave: at the extremity of the frame, a ribband diſplays the favourite motto of this learned man; *Simplex veritas veri*, "Truth unarrayed." It has been aſſerted, that from the time of Hippocrates, no phyſician has more juſtly merited the eſteem of his contemporaries, and the thanks of poſterity, than Boerhaave. He united to an uncommon genius, and extraordinary talents, the qualities of the heart, which gave them ſo great a value to ſociety. He made a decent, ſimple, and venerable appearance, particularly when age had changed the colour of his hair. He was an eloquent orator, and declaimed with dignity and grace. He taught very methodically, and with great preciſion; he never tired his auditors, but they always regretted that his diſcourſes were finiſhed. He would ſometimes give them a lively turn with raillery; but his raillery was refined and ingenious, and it enlivened the ſubject he treated of, without carrying with it any thing ſevere or ſatirical. A declared foe to all exceſs, he conſidered decent mirth as the ſalt of life. It was his daily practice through life, as ſoon as he roſe in the morning, which was generally very early, to retire for an hour to prayer, and meditation on ſome part of the Scriptures. He often told his friends, when they aſked him how it was poſſible for him to go through ſo much fatigue? that it was *this* which gave him ſpirit and vigour in the buſineſs of the day. *This* he therefore recommended as *the beſt rule* he could give: for nothing, he ſaid, could tend more to the health of the body than the tranquillity of the mind; and that he knew nothing which could ſupport himſelf, or his fellow-creatures, amidſt the various diſtreſſes of life, but a well-grounded confidence in the ſupreme Being upon the principles of Chriſtianity. This was ſtrongly exemplified in his own ſevere illneſs in 1722, by which the courſe of his lectures as well as his practice was long interrupted. He was for five months confined to his bed by the gout, where he lay upon his back without daring to attempt the leaſt motion; becauſe any effort renewed his torments, which were ſo exquiſite, that he was at length not only deprived of motion but of ſenſe. Here his medical art was at a ſtand; nothing could be attempted, becauſe nothing could be propoſed with the leaſt proſpect of ſucceſs. But, having (in the 6th month of his illneſs) obtained ſome remiſſion, he determined to try whether the juice of fumitory, endive, or ſuccory, taken thrice a day in a large quantity, (*viz.* above half a pint each doſe,) might not contribute to his relief; and by a perſeverance in this method he was wonderfully recovered. His patience was founded not on vain reaſonings, like that of which the Stoics boaſted; but on a religious compoſure of mind, and Chriſtian reſignation to the will of God. Of his ſagacity and the wonderful penetration, with which he often diſcovered and deſcribed, at the firſt ſight of a patient, ſuch diſtempers as betray themſelves by no ſymptoms to common eyes, ſuch ſurpriſing accounts have been given, as ſcarcely can be credited, though atteſted beyond all doubt. Yet he was ſo far from a preſumptuous confidence in his abilities, or from being puffed up by his riches, that he was condeſcending to all, and remarkably diligent in his profeſſion; and he often uſed to ſay, that the life of a patient, (if trifled with or neglected,) would one day be required at the hand of the phyſician. He always called the poor his *beſt patients*; for God (ſaid he) is their paymaſter. The activity of his mind ſparkled viſibly in his eyes. He was always cheerful, and deſirous of promoting every valuable end of converſation; and the excellency of the Chriſtian religion was frequently the ſubject of it: for he aſſerted, on all proper occaſions, the divine authority and ſacred efficacy of the Scriptures; and maintained, that they only could give peace of mind, that ſweet and ſacred peace which paſſeth all underſtanding; ſince none can conceive it but he who has it; and none can have it but by divine communication. He never regarded calumny nor detraction, (for Boerhaave himſelf had enemies,) nor ever thought it neceſſary to confute them. "They are ſparks, (ſaid he,) which, if you do not blow, will go out of themſelves.

themſelves. The ſureſt remedy againſt ſcandal, is to *live it down* by a perſeverance in well-doing; and by praying to God that he would cure the diſtempered minds of thoſe who traduce and injure us." Being once aſked by a friend, who had often admired his patience under great provocations, whether he knew what it was to be angry, and by what means he had ſo entirely ſuppreſſed that impetuous and ungovernable paſſion? he anſwered, with the utmoſt frankneſs and ſincerity, that he was naturally quick of reſentment; but that he had, by daily prayer and meditation, at length attained to this maſtery over himſelf. About the middle of the year 1737, he felt the firſt approaches of that fatal illneſs which brought him to the grave, *viz.* a diſorder in his breaſt, which was at times very painful, often threatened him with immediate ſuffocation, and terminated in an univerſal dropſy: but during this lingering illneſs, his conſtancy and firmneſs did not forſake him; he neither intermitted the neceſſary cares of life, nor forgot the proper preparations for death. About 3 weeks before his diſſolution, when the Rev. Mr Schultens, one of the moſt learned divines of the age, attended him at his country houſe, the Doctor deſired his prayers, and afterwards entered into a diſcourſe with him on the ſpiritual and immaterial nature of the ſoul. This he illuſtrated to Mr Schultens, by a deſcription of the effects which the infirmities of his body had upon his faculties; which yet they did not ſo oppreſs or vanquiſh, but his ſoul was always maſter of itſelf, and reſigned to the pleaſure of its maker —and then he added, "He who loves God ought to think nothing deſirable, but what is moſt pleaſing to the ſupreme goodneſs." Such were his ſentiments and conduct in this ſtate of weakneſs and pain. As death approached nearer, he was ſo far from terror or confuſion, that he ſeemed leſs ſenſible of pain, and more cheerful under his torments, which continued till the 23d day of Sept. 1738, on which he died, between 4 and 5, A. M. in the 70th year of his age—often recommending to the bye-ſtanders a careful obſervation of St John's precepts, concerning the love of God and man, inculcated in his 1ſt epiſtle, particularly in chap. v. His funeral oration was ſpoken in Latin before the univerſity of Leyden, to a very numerous audience, by Mr Schultens, and afterwards publiſhed at their particular deſire. He wrote, 1. *Inſtitutiones Medicæ.* 2. *Aphoriſmi de cognoſcendis & curandis Morbis.* 3. *Inſtitutiones & Experimenta Chemicæ.* 4. *Libellus de Materia Medica, et remediorum formulis quæ ſerviunt aphoriſmis.* 5. *Elementa Chemiæ.* 6. *De ſtudio Hippocratico.* 7. *De uſu ratiocinii mechanici in medicina.* 8. *De comparando certo in Phyſicis.* 9 *De vita Bernardi Albani.* 10 & 11. *Indices Plantarum in horto Lugd. Bat.* 12. *De fabrica glandularum.* 13 & 14. *Atrocium morborum hiſtoriæ.* 15. *De Luc Aphrodiſiaca.*

BOERHAAVIA; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the monandria claſs of plants. There is no calyx; the corolla is monopetalous, campanulated, and plaited; and the ſeed is one, naked, and below. There are ſix ſpecies, all natives of the Indies. Some of theſe plants riſe 5 or 6 feet high, but moſt of them only 18 inches or 2 feet. They carry flowers of a yellow or red colour.

BOESCHOT, a town of France, in one of the new departments, and ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands. Lon. 4. 45. E. Lat. 51. 5. N

(1.) BOETHIUS, Hector. See BOECE.

(2.) BOETHIUS, or } Flavius Anicius Manlius
BOETIUS, } Torquatus Severinus, a proſe as well as poetical writer of the 6th century, deſcended of one of the nobleſt families in Rome. He was born about that period when Auguſtulus, whoſe fears had induced him to a reſignation of the empire, was baniſhed, and Odoacer king of the Herulians began to reign in Italy, *viz.* about A. D. 476. Boetius' father dying while he was an infant, his relations undertook the care of his education. His excellent parts were ſoon diſcovered; and, to enrich his mind with the ſtudy of philoſophy, as well as to perfect him in the Greek language, he was ſent to Athens. Returning young to Rome, he was ſoon diſtinguiſhed and promoted to the principal dignities in the ſtate and at length to the conſulate. Though living in great affluence and ſplendor, he ſtudied theology, mathematics, ethics, and logic; and his ſucceſs in each of theſe branches, appears from his works ſtill extant. The great offices which he bore in the ſtate, and his conſummate wiſdom and inflexible integrity, procured him ſuch a ſhare in the public councils, as proved in the end his deſtruction; for as he employed his intereſt with the king for the protection and encouragement of deſerving men, ſo he exerted his utmoſt efforts in the detection of fraud, the repreſſion of violence and the defence of the ſtate againſt invaders. At this time Theodoric the Goth had attempted to ravage Campania; and it was owing to the vigilance and reſolution of Boetius that that country was preſerved from deſtruction. At length, Theodoric, having murdered Odoacer, became king of Italy, where he governed 33 years with prudence and moderation, during which time Boetius poſſeſſed a large ſhare of his eſteem and confidence. About this time Juſtin, emperor of the eaſt, made an edict condemning all the Arians except the Goths, to perpetual baniſhment from the eaſtern empire: in this edict Hormiſda biſhop of Rome, and the ſenate, concurred. But Theodoric, who was an Arian, was extremely trouble at it; and conceived an averſion againſt the ſenate for the ſhare they had borne in this proſcription. Of this diſpoſition in the king, 3 men of profligate lives and deſperate fortunes, Gaudentius, Opilio and Baſilius, took advantage. Entertaining a ſecret deſire of revenge againſt Boetius, for having been inſtrumental in the diſmiſſion of Baſil from a lucrative employment, they accuſed him of ſeveral crimes; ſuch as the ſtifling a charge the end whereof was to involve the whole ſenate in the guilt of treaſon; and an attempt, by throning the king, to reſtore the liberty of Italy and, laſtly, they ſuggeſted, that, to acquire honours he was in poſſeſſion of, Boetius had recourſe to magical art. Boetius was at this time at a great diſtance from Rome; however, Theodoric tranſmitted the complaint to the ſenate, forcing it with a ſuggeſtion that the ſafety, as well of the people as the prince, was rendered

precarious by this ſuppoſed deſign to exterminate the Goths. The ſenate, perhaps fearing the reſentment of the king, and having nothing to hope from the ſucceſs of an enterpriſe, which, ſuppoſing it ever to have been meditated, was now rendered abortive, without ſummoning him to his defence, condemned Boetius to death. The king, however, apprehending ſome bad conſequence from the execution of a ſentence ſo flagrantly unjuſt, mitigated it to baniſhment. The place of his exile was Ticinum, now Pavia, in Italy: being in that place ſeparated from his relations, who had not been permitted to follow him into his retirement, he endeavoured to derive from philoſophy thoſe comforts which it was capable of affording to one in his forlorn ſituation, ſequeſtered from his friends, in the power of his enemies, and at the mercy of a capricious tyrant; and accordingly he there compoſed that valuable diſcourſe, entitled, *De Conſolatione Philoſophiæ*. About two years after his baniſhment, Boetius was beheaded in priſon by the command of Theodoric. His tomb is to be ſeen in the church of St Auguſtine, at Pavia, near the ſteps of the chancel. The extenſive learning and eloquence of this great man are conſpicuous in his works, which ſeem to have been collected with great care; an edition of them was printed at Venice, in 1 volume folio, in 1499. In 1570, Glareanus, of Baſil, collated them with ſeveral MSS. and publiſhed it, with a few various readings in the margin. His chief performance, *De Conſolatione Philoſophiæ*, is well known in the learned world, and to which the aſſiſtance have often applied. Our Saxon king Alfred, whoſe reign, though happy upon the whole, was attended with great viciſſitudes of fortune, had recourſe to it at a time when his diſtreſſes compelled him to ſeek retirement; and that he might the better impreſs upon his mind the noble ſentiments inculcated in it, he made a complete tranſlation of it into the Saxon language, which, within a few years, has been given to the world in its proper character. And Camden relates, that queen Elizabeth, during the time of her confinement by her ſiſter Mary, to mitigate her grief, read and afterwards tranſlated it into very elegant Engliſh. Boetius is alſo the moſt conſiderable of all the Latin writers on muſic; and his treatiſe *De Muſica* ſupplied for ſome centuries the want of thoſe Greek MSS. which were ſuppoſed to have been loſt.

BOFFRAND, Germain, a celebrated French architect, was the ſon of a ſculptor by a ſiſter of the famous Quinaut, and was born at Nantes in 1667. He was trained under Hardouin Manſarad, who intruſted him with the execution of his greateſt works. His manner of building approached to that of Palladio. He was employed by many German princes, and conſtructed a number of canals, bridges, &c. He was admitted into the French academy, and wrote a book on the principles of architecture, with an account of the various plans, elevations, &c. of the principal works he executed in France and elſewhere. He was a man of a diſintereſted ſpirit, and pleaſing manners. He died at Paris in 1755, aged 88.

* BOG. *n. ſ.* [*bog*, ſoft, Iriſh, *bague*, Fr.] A marſh; a moraſs; a ground too ſoft to bear the weight of the body.—Through fire and through flame, though ſord and whirlpool, o'er *bog* and quagmire. *Shakeſpeare.*—

A gulf profound! as that Serbonian *bog*,
Betwixt Damiata and mount Caſius old. *Milton.*

—He walks upon *bogs* and whirlpools; whereſoever he treads, he ſinks. *South.*—

Learn from ſo great a wit, a land of *bogs*
With ditches fenc'd, a haven fat with fogs.
Dryden.

—He is drawn, by a ſort of *ignis fatuus*, into *bogs* and mire almoſt every day of his life. *Watts.*

(2.) BOG properly ſignifies a quagmire, covered with graſs, but not ſolid enough to ſupport the weight of the body; in which ſenſe it differs only from marſhes or fens, as a part from the whole: ſome even reſtrain the term *bog* to quagmires pent up between two hills; whereas fens lie in champaign and low countries, where the deſcent is very ſmall.—To drain boggy lands, a good method is, to make trenches of a ſufficient depth to carry off the moiſture; and if theſe are partly filled up with rough ſtones, and then covered with thorn-buſhes and ſtraw, to keep the earth from filling up the interſtices, a ſtratum of good earth and turf may be laid over all; the cavities among the ſtones will give paſſage to the water, and the turf will grow at top as if nothing had been done.

(3.) BOG, in geography, or BUG, a river of Poland, anciently called HYPANIS. It riſes in Podolia, from whence it runs S. E. through that province and Boziak Tartary; and, after joining the Dnieper, falls into the Black Sea, between Oczakow and the mouth of the Boryſthenes.

(4.) BOG, or BOG OF GIGHT, a ſmall town of Scotland, ſeated near the mouth of the river Spey. Lon. 2. 23. W. Lat. 57. 48. N.

BOGA, in ichthyology, a fiſh caught in the Mediterranean, and ſold at Naples and Meſſina, called by authors BOOPS. It is a ſpecies of Sparus.

BOGARMITÆ. See BOGOMILI.

* *To* BOGGLE. *v. n.* [from *bogil*, Dutch, a ſpectre; a bugbear; a phantom.] 1. To ſtart; to fly back; to fear to come forward.—

You *boggle* ſhrewdly; every feather ſtarts you. *Shakeſpeare.*

—We ſtart and *boggle* at every unuſual appearance, and cannot endure the ſight of a bugbear. *Granville.*—

Nature, that rude, and in her firſt eſſay,
Stood *boggling* at the roughneſs of the way;
Us'd to the road, unknowing to return,
Goes boldly on, and loves the path when worn.
Dryden.

2. To heſitate; to be in doubt.—

And never *boggle* to reſtore
The members you deliver o'er,
Upon demand. *Hudibras.*

—The well-ſhaped changeling is a man that has a rational ſoul, ſay you. Make the ears a little longer, and more pointed, and the noſe a little flatter than ordinary, and then you begin to *boggle*. *Locke.* 3. To play faſt and looſe; to diſſemble.—When ſummoned to his laſt end, it was no time for him to *boggle* with the world. *Howel.*

* BOGGLER. *n. ſ.* [from *boggle*.] A doubter; a timorous man.—

You have been a *boggler* ever. *Shakeſpeare.*

(1.) * BOGGY. *adj.* [from *bog.*] Marſhy; ſwampy.—Their country was very narrow, low, and *boggy*, and, by great induſtry and expences, defended from the ſea. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) BOGGY LANDS, METHOD OF DRAINING. See BOG, § 1. and DRAINING.

BOGHO. See BOGLIO, No. 1.

* BOGHOUSE. *n. ſ.* [from *bog* and *houſe.*] A houſe of office.

BOGIE, a river in Aberdeenſhire, which communicates with the Deveron, and along with it runs into the Murray Frith, at Banff.

(1.) BOGLIO, or BUEIL, a diſtrict in the county of Nice, in Piedmont, belonging to the K. of Sardinia. The Tinea runs through it. Some erroneouſly ſpell the name BOGHO.

(2.) BOGLIO, or BUEIL, the capital of the above diſtrict, (No. 1.) Lon. 6. 45. E. Lat. 44. 12. N.

BOGNOR, a village on the coaſt of Suſſex, near Selſey.

BOGOGNANI, a town in Corſica, the inhabitants of which, in June 1796, made a ſpirited reſiſtance to ſome meaſures of Sir Gilbert Elliot, while he was viceroy of that iſland, which they deemed inconſiſtent with the ſpirit of the New Conſtitution. Sir Gilbert at firſt tried coercive meaſures, but finding that he had been miſled, he, much to his honour, ſtopt hoſtilities, publiſhed a general amneſty, and promiſed redreſs.

BOGOMILI, or BOGARMITÆ, in church hiſtory, a ſect of heretics, which ſprung up about the year 1179. They held, that the uſe of churches, of the ſacrament of the Lord's Supper, and all prayer, except the Lord's Prayer, ought to be aboliſhed; that the baptiſm of Catholics is imperfect; that the perſons of the Trinity are unequal; and that they oftentimes made themſelves viſible to thoſe of their ſect. They ſaid, that devils dwelt in the churches, and that Satan had reſided in the temple of Solomon from the deſtruction of Jeruſalem to their own time.

BOGOTO, the capital of New Grenada in Terra Firma in South America, near which are gold mines. It is ſubject to Spain. Lon. 73. 55. W. Lat. 4. 0. N.

BOGRIELANE, a river of Scotland, in the county of Kirkcudbright.

BOG-SPAVIN. See FARRIERY.

* BOG-TROTTER. *n. ſ.* [from *bog* and *trot.*] One that lives in a boggy country.

BOGUD, an ancient king of Mauritania, who is ſaid to have given name to

BOGUDIANA, a part of Mauritania Tingitana, in Africa.

BOHAN, a Reubenite, who appears to have done ſome great exploits in the conqueſt of Canaan; a ſtone having been erected to his honour, on the frontier between Judah and Benjamin. See Joſh. xv. 6. and xviii. 17.

BOHARM, a pariſh of Scotland, in the counties of Banff and Moray, to which is joined a part of the pariſh of DUNDURCOS. It is between 7 and 9 miles in length, and from 2 to 3 in breadth, but the form of it is quite irregular. The ſoil is partly ſandy, warm, and fertile, and partly a ſtiff deep rich clay. Oats, barley, and peaſe are the principal productions. The climate is moiſt, but healthy, and longevity is not uncommon. There was one woman near 100, and ſeverals above 80, in 1794. The population was then 1294, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Leſlie, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair; and had increaſed 459, within the laſt 40 years. There are conſiderable clumps of natural wood, interſperſed with wild cherry, plum, and other fruit trees, beſides extenſive plantations of foreſt trees, in the pariſh.

(1.) * BOHEA. *n. ſ.* [an Indian word.] A ſpecies of tea, of higher colour, and more aſtringent taſte, than green tea.—Coarſe pewter, conſiſting chiefly of lead, is part of the bales in which *bohea* tea was brought from China. *Woodward.*—

As ſome frail cup of China's faireſt mold,
The tumults of the boiling *bohea* braves,
And holds ſecure the coffee's ſable waves.
Tickell.

She went from op'ra, park, aſſembly, play,
To morning walks, and pray'rs three hours a day;
To part her time 'twixt reading and *bohea*,
To muſe and ſpill her ſolitary tea. *Pope*

(2.) BOHEA. See THEA.

(1. 1.) BOHEMIA, a kingdom of Europe, 200 m long and 150 broad, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, and ſurrounded on every ſide with natura ramparts of woods and mountains. It is bounded on the E. by Moravia (which however is annexed to it,) and part of Sileſia; on the N. by Luſatia and Upper Saxony; on the W. by Franconia and Bavaria; and on the S. by Auſtria. Although it is ſituated in the middle of Germany and its king is an elector of the empire, it has its aſſemblies, cuſtoms, and language, different from the Germans. It is one of the moſt elevated countries of Europe: for no river enters into it though many have their ſource there; the chief of which are the Elb, the Oder, the Viſtula, and the Morava. The air is cold and unwholeſome for they have more epidemical diſeaſes than in the neighbouring countries. There are mines of ſilver copper, lead, tin, and ſome veins of gold, beſide diamonds and other precious ſtones: The capital is Prague; the other cities are Cuttenburg, Konigengretz, Pilſen, Czaſlaw, Budweys, Egra, Glatz Tabor, and beſides, near 100 others, among which almoſt 40 have the title of Royal. The Roman Catholic is the eſtabliſhed religion, though there are many proteſtants.

(2.) BOHEMIA, GOVERNMENT OF. The government of Bohemia differs from that of all other ſtates, the affairs of the ſtate being managed by ſ different courts: viz. 1ſt, the council of regence or the great royal council, in which preſides the great judge or grave of Bohemia, and who has under him 18 lieutenants of the king and other aſſeſſors: 2. the council or ſuperior chamber of juſtice, at which the great maſter of the kingdom is preſident: 3. the chamber of fiefs: 4. the ne tribunal to judge the appeals of the German vaſſ in their differences on the account of fiefs; which court has alſo its preſident, vice-preſident, and aſſeſſors: 5. the royal chamber of finances, which has a preſident and vice-preſident: and, 6. the chancery, which always follows the court. B

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principal productions. The climate is mild, healthy, and longevity is not uncommon. was one woman near 100, and several above in 1794. The population was then 1250, by the rev. Mr Leslie, in his report to Sir elsir; and had increased 429, within the years. There are considerable clumps of wood, interspersed with wild cherry, plum other fruit trees, besides extensive plantations forest trees, in the parish.

(1.) * BOHEA. *n. s.* [an Indian word] A of tea, of higher colour, and more astringent than green tea.—Coarse pewter, counterfeit was brought from China. *Woodward.*

As some frail cup of China's fairest mold
The tumults of the boiling *bohea* brave,
And holds secure the coffee's fable wave.

She went from op'ra, park, assembly, play
To morning walks, and pray'rs three hours day;
To part her time 'twixt reading and bohea,
To muse and spill her solitary tea.

See TEA.

(2.) BOHEA, a kingdom of Europe

(1. 1.) BOHEMIA, a kingdom of Europe long and 150 broad, subject to the house of tria, and furrounded on every fide with ramparts of woods and mountains. It is ed on the E. by Moravia (which however of it,) and part of Silefia; on the N. by Lufatia and Upper Saxony; on the W. by Bavaria; and on the S. by Upper Auftria. Although it is fituated in the middle of Germany and its king is an elector of the empire, the affemblies, cuftoms, and language, differ the Germans. It is one of the moft fertile countries of Europe: for no river enters it though many have their fource there: the Elb, the Oder, the Vltava, or Moldau, of which are the Elb, the Oder, the Vltava, or Moldau, the Morava. The air is cold and unhealthy for they have more epidemical diftempers than neighbouring countries. There are mines of gold, copper, lead, tin, and fome veins of gold, with diamonds and other precious ftones: The cities are Cutterberg, Prague, the other cities are Cutterberg, Prague; the other cities are Czaflaw, Budweis, Leutmeritz, Pilfen, Czaflaw, Budweis, Tabor, and befides, near 100 others, which have almoft 40 have the title of Royal. The Catholic is the eftablifhed religion, though there are many proteftants.

(2.) BOHEMIA, GOVERNMENT OF. The government of Bohemia differs from that of other ftates, the affairs of the ftate being managed in different courts: viz. 1ft, the council of ftate, or the great royal council, in which prefides under him 18 lieutenants of the kingdom; 2d, the great judge or grave of Bohemia, and the great mafter of the council or fupreme chancery, at which the great mafter of fefts, who is prefident: 3. the chamber of the Germans, a tribunal to judge the appeals of the fix in their differences on the account of fiefs. court has alfo its prefident, vice-prefident, aſſeſſors: 5. the royal chamber of finances, has a prefident and vice-prefident: and, 6. chancery, which always follows the court

fides, every circle of Bohemia is governed by two baliffs, who adminifter juftice in their prefectures. The ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, lords, nobles, and burghers. A grand baliiff governs Moravia in the name of the king of Bohemia, as Margave of Moravia. He is at the head of the royal council, which is compoſed of 3 aſſeſſors, and to which all is tranſacted in the name of the king. This province is divided into 5 circles, each of which has its baliiff. There are, beſides, other officers of juſtice, who have a right of judging only at certain times, and in particular caſes, where an appeal is allowed. Bohemia was divided by the emperor Charles IV. into 12 provinces, in each of which he ordered two captains to be appointed every year for the adminiſtration of the government. He alſo cauſed the church of Prague to be erected into an archbiſhopric, with this advantage, that the archbiſhop of Prague ſhould have the prerogative that the archbiſhop of Mentz formerly enjoyed, viz. of crowning the king of Bohemia. The duchy of Sileſia, and the marquiſates of Moravia, and Luſace, formerly held of this crown, but now only that of Moravia, which is incorporated with the kingdom of Bohemia, and is in the poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria.

(3.) BOHEMIA, HISTORY OF. The name *Boheman*, in the German language, ſignifies the *home*, or *abode*, *of the* BOII, a people of ancient Gaul, who, under their leader Sergoveſus, ſettled in that country about A. A. C. 590. Theſe Boii were ſoon after expelled by the Marcomanni, a nation of the Sueri, who were afterwards ſubdued by the Scluri, a people of Scythia, whoſe language is ſtill ſpoken in Bohemia and Moravia. Notwithſtanding this expulſion of the Boii, the preſent inhabitants are ſtill called BOHEMIANS by foreigners, but the natives call themſelves ZECHS. At firſt they were governed by dukes; but the emperor Otho I. conquered the duke of Bohemia, and reduced the province under the empire. Afterwards Henry V. gave the title of *king* to Ladiſlaus duke of Bohemia; and ſince that time theſe kings have been electors and chief cup-bearers of the empire, and the kingdom has been elective; which privileges have been confirmed by the golden bull. Formerly the kings of Bohemia received the kingdom as a fief of the empire, which ceremony was practiſed upon the frontiers; after which the ſtandards of the principalities of which it is compoſed were given to them, without being loſt and given to the people, as is done with the eſtates of the other fiefs of the empire. Ferdinand I. of Auſtria, having married Anne, ſiſter of Lewis, laſt king of Bohemia, who died without iſſue, and being elected king, that kingdom has remained in his family ever ſince. But the crown is ſtill conferred with ſome appearance of election; which right the ſtates of Bohemia ſtill claim, though by the treaty of Weſtphalia, Bohemia was declared hereditary in the houſe of Auſtria. The moſt remarkable occurrences in the Bohemian hiſtory is the rebellion of the diſciples of John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, on account of their leaders having been burnt as heretics. This occaſioned a bloody war of 16 years continuance; for an account of which, ſee HUSSITES.

(4.) BOHEMIA, PRIVILEGES OF THE KING AND STATES OF. The king of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular elector, and gives his opinion after the elector of Cologn; tho' he does not aſſiſt at the aſſembly of the electors, except at the election of an emperor. For theſe 200 years paſt, they have not appeared at the collegiate aſſemblies, nor even at the imperial diets. However, in 1708, the emperor cauſed one of his deputies, in quality of king of Bohemia, to enter into the college of electors at the diet of Ratiſbon, by the form of readmiſſion, together with the deputy of the elector of Brunſwick. The ſtates of Bohemia have never been comprehended in the government, or in the circles of the empire; they are not ſubject to any of its juriſdictions, nor to the Roman months, taxes, or public contributions; and they owe nothing to the empire, but what the emperor Leopold voluntarily impoſed upon himſelf, which amounted to 6000 livres a-year for the imperial chamber. The king pays homage to the emperor and the empire for his ſtates as firſt ſecular elector. In other reſpects he has a right to exerciſe, through the whole extent of his dominions, all the authority of royalty, provided he do not violate the laws of the kingdom; according to which he cannot raiſe contributions or taxes, but at the time when the ſtates are aſſembled, the appointing of which is entirely in their own power.

(II.) BOHEMIA, a ſhort navigable river of the United States, in the Eaſtern Shore of Maryland. It riſes near the diviſional line of the State of Delaware, and after running W. about 6 m. turns W. N. W. and falls into the Elk, about 4 m. above Turkey-point.

(1.) BOHEMIAN, *adj.* belonging to Bohemia.

(2.) BOHEMIAN BOLE. See BOLE, § II. N. 2.

(3.) BOHEMIAN BRETHREN, a ſect of Chriſtian reformers which ſprung up in Bohemia in 1467. They treated the pope and cardinals as antichriſt, and the church of Rome as the whore ſpoke of in the Revelation. They rejected the ſacrament of the Romiſh church, and choſe laymen for their miniſters. They held the Scriptures to be the only rule of faith, rejected the Popiſh ceremonies in the celebration of maſs, and uſed no other prayer but the Lord's Prayer. They confecrated leavened bread. They allowed no adoration but of Jeſus Chriſt, in the communion. They rebaptized all ſuch as joined them. They abhorred the worſhip of ſaints and images, prayers for the dead, celibacy, vows, and faſts; and kept no feſtivals but Chriſtmas, Eaſter, and Whitſuntide. In 1504, they were accuſed by the Catholics to king Ladiſlaus II. who publiſhed an edict againſt them, forbidding them to hold any meetings either privately or publicly. When Luther declared himſelf againſt the church of Rome, the Bohemian brethren endeavoured to join his party. At firſt that reformer ſhewed a great averſion to them; but the Bohemians ſending their deputies to him in 1523, with a full account of their doctrines, he acknowledged that they were a ſociety of Chriſtians, whoſe doctrine came neareſt to the purity of the goſpel. They publiſhed another confeſſion of faith in 1535, in which they renounced anabaptiſm, which they at firſt practiſed: upon which a union was concluded with the Lu-

therans, and afterwards with the Zuinglians, whoſe opinions from thenceforth they continue to follow.

(4.) BOHEMIAN CHATTERER. See AMPELIS.

(5.) BOHEMIANS. See BOHEMIA, § 3.

BOHOL, one of the Philippine iſlands in Aſia, ing N. of Mindanao. Lon. 122. 5. E. Lat. 10. 0. N.

BOHUR, a wild quadruped of Abyſſinia.

BOJA, in antiquity, a collar or chain faſtened about the necks of criminals, to prevent their eſcape.

BOIANO, a town of Italy, in Naples, and county of Moleſe, with a biſhop's ſee. It is ſeated at the foot of the Apennines, near the river Tilerno. Lon. 14. 38. E. Lat. 41. 30. N.

BOIARDO, Matteo Maria, of Ferrara, count of Scandiano, celebrated for his Italian poems, lived in the 15th century. His principal work is his *Orlando inamorato*. His Latin eclogues and ſonnets are alſo much admired.

BOIARS, Ruſſian noblemen. See RUSSIA.

BOICININGA, in zoology, the name given by the Braſilians to the rattle-ſnake.

BOIEMUM, in ancient geography, a part of Germany, ſurrounded with the Montes Sudeti, now called BOHEMIA. It took its name from the Boii, a people of Gaul, who removed thither before Cæſar's expedition into that country, though he ſeems to err in the name.

BOIGUACU, in zoology, a ſynonime of the boa conſtrictor. See BOA, No. II. § 3.

(1.) BOII, a people of Gallia Celtica, who inhabited the country extending from the Ligeris to the Elayer; whence came the Boii of Gallia Ciſalpina, whoſe migration is related by Livy.

(2.) BOII. See BOHEMIA, § 3. Theſe people after being driven, out by the Marcomanni, ſettled in the weſt of Vindelicia, which was afterwards called BAYERN, and hence the name BAVARIA.

(1.) * BOIL. *n. ſ.* See BILE.

(2.) BOIL, or FURUNCLE. See MEDICINE, and SURGERY, INDEXES.

(1.) * *To* BOIL. *v. a.* To heat, by putting into boiling water; to ſeeth.—To try whether ſeeds be old or new, the ſenſe cannot inform; but if you *boil* them in water, the new ſeeds will ſprout ſooner. *Bacon.*—In eggs *boiled* and roaſted, into which the water entereth not at all, there is ſcarce any difference to be diſcerned. *Bacon.*

(2.) * *To* BOIL. *v. n.* [*bouillir*, Fr. *bullio*, Lat.]

1. To be agitated by heat; to fluctuate with heat.

He ſaw there *boil* the fiery whirlpools.
Chapman.

—Suppoſe the earth removed, and placed nearer to the ſun, in the orbit of Mercury, there the whole ocean would *boil* with extremity of heat. *Bentley.*

2. To be hot; to be fervent, or effervescent.—

That ſtrength with which my *boiling* youth was fraught,
When in the vale of Balaſor I fought. *Dryden.*
Well I knew,
What perils youthful ardour would purſue,
That *boiling* blood would carry thee too far.
Dryden.

3. To move with an agitation like that of boiling water.—

Then headlong ſhoots beneath the daſhing tide,
The trembling fins the *boiling* waves divide.
Gay.

4. To be in hot liquor, in order to be made tender by the heat.—

Fillet of a fenny ſnake,
In the cauldron *boil* and bake. *Shakeſpeare.*

5. To cook by boiling.—If you live in a rich family, roaſting and *boiling* are below the dignity of your office, and which it becomes you to be ignorant of. *Swift.* 6. *To boil over.* To run over the veſſel with heat.—A few ſoft words and a kiſs, and the good man melts; ſee how nature works and *boils over* in him. *Congreve.*—This hollow was a vaſt cauldron, filled with melted matter, which, as it *boiled over* in any part, ran down the ſides of the mountain. *Addiſon on Italy.*

* BOILARY. *n. ſ.* [from *To boil.*] A place at the ſalt works where the ſalt is boiled.

BOILEAU, SIEUR DESPREAUX, Nicholas, the celebrated French poet, was born at Paris in 1636. After he had gone through his courſe of ſtudy, his relations engaged him to the law, and he was admitted advocate. But though he had all the talents neceſſary for the bar, yet he could not adapt himſelf to a ſcience which turns upon continual equivocations, and often obliges thoſe who follow it to clothe falſehood in the garb of truth. He therefore determined to ſtudy theology; but he could not long endure the thorns of ſchool divinity. He imagined, that chicanery, which he thought to avoid, had only changed her habit; ſo he renounced the Sorbonne, betook himſelf to the belles lettres, and took poſſeſſion of one of the tops of Parnaſſus. The public gave his works the encomium they deſerved; and Lewis XIV. not only had his works read to him as he compoſed them, but ſettled a penſion of 2000 livres upon him, and gave him the privilege of printing all his works. He was afterwards choſen a member of the French academy. He was as remarkable for his integrity, his innocence, and diffuſive benevolence, as for the keenneſs of his ſatires. He died of a dropſy on the 2d March 1711, in the 75th year of his age. The *Lutrin* of Boileau, ſtill conſidered by ſome French critics of the preſent time, as the beſt poem to which France has given birth, was firſt publiſhed in 1647. Voltaire, however, juſtly confeſſes the Lutrin inferior to the Rape of the Lock. Few poets can be ſo properly compared as Pope and Boileau; and, wherever their writings will admit of compariſon, we may, without any national partiality, adjudge the ſuperiority to the Engliſh bard. Theſe two great authors reſembled each other as much in the integrity of their lives, as in the ſubjects and execution of their ſeveral compoſitions. There are two actions recorded of Boileau, which ſufficiently prove that this inexorable ſatiriſt had a moſt generous and friendly heart. 1. When Patru, the celebrated advocate, who was ruined by his paſſion for literature, found himſelf under the painful neceſſity of ſelling his expenſive library, and had almoſt agreed to part with it for a moderate ſum, Boileau gave him a much ſuperior price; and, after paying the money, added this condition to the purchaſe, that Patru ſhould retain, during

his life, the poſſeſſion of the books. The other inſtance is yet nobler: when it was rumoured at court, that the king intended to retrench the penſion of Corneille, Boileau haſtened to Madam de Monteſpan, and ſaid, that his ſovereign, equitable as he was, could not, without injuſtice, grant a penſion to an author like himſelf, juſt aſcending Parnaſſus, and take it from Corneille, who had been ſeated on the ſummit; that he entreated her, for the honour of the king, to prevail with his majeſty rather to ſtrike off *his* penſion, than withdraw that reward from a man whoſe merit was incomparably greater; and that he could more eaſily conſole himſelf under the loſs of his own penſion, than under the affliction of ſeeing it taken away from ſuch a poet as Corneille. This generous application had the ſucceſs which it deſerved, and it appears the more noble, that the rival of Corneille was the intimate friend of Boileau. The long unreſerved intercourſe which ſubſiſted between our poet and Racine was highly beneficial and honourable to both. The dying farewell of the latter is the moſt expreſſive copy on the private character of Boileau: "Je regarde comme un bonheur pour moi, de mourir avant vous," ſaid the tender Racine, in taking a laſt leave of his faithful and generous friend.

* BOILER. *n. ſ.* [from *boil.*] 1. The perſon that boils any thing.—That ſuch alterations of the material matter are not impoſſible, ſeems evident from that notable practice of the *boilers* of ſaltpetre. *Boyle.* 2. The veſſel in which any thing is boiled.—This coffee-room is much frequented; and there are generally ſeveral pots and *boilers* before the fire. *Woodward.*

BOILING, or EBULITION, the bubbling up of any fluid. The term is moſt commonly applied to that bubbling which happens by the application of fire, though that which enſues on the mixture of an acid and alcali is ſometimes alſo diſtinguiſhed by the ſame name. Boiling, in general, is occaſioned by the diſcharge of an elaſtic fluid through the fluid which is ſaid to boil; and the appearance is the ſame, whether it is common air, fixed air, or ſteam, that makes its way through the fluid. The boiling of water is proved by Dr Hamilton of Dublin, in his eſſay on the aſcent of vapour, to be occaſioned by the lowermoſt particles of the water being heated and rarified into vapour by reaſon of the vicinity of the bottom of the containing veſſel; in conſequence of which, being greatly inferior in ſpecific gravity to the ſurrounding fluid, they aſcend with great velocity, and lacerating and ſeparating the body of water in their aſcent, give it that tumultuous motion called *boiling*. That this is occaſioned by ſteam, and not by particles of actual fire, as ſome have imagined, may be very eaſily proved in the following manner: Let a common drinking glaſs be filled with hot water, and then inverted into a veſſel of the ſame: as ſoon as the water in the glaſs begins to boil, large bubbles will be obſerved to aſcend in the glaſs, which will diſplace the water in it, and in a ſhort time there will be a continual bubbling from under its edge; but if the glaſs is then drawn up, ſo that its mouth may juſt touch the water, and a cloth dipt in cold water be applied to the outſide, the ſteam within it will be inſtantly condenſed, and the water will aſcend ſo as to fill it entirely, or very nearly ſo, See EVAPORATION.

(2.) BOILING, in dyeing, a method of trying the goodneſs of a colour or dye. The ſtuff is to be boiled in water with certain drugs, different according to the kind or quality of the colour, to try whether it will diſcharge, and give a tincture to the water. With this view crimſon ſilks are boiled with alum, and ſcarlets with ſoap, in quantity equal to the weight of the ſilk. See § 5.

(3.) BOILING, in the culinary art, is a method of dreſſing meats by coction in hot water, intended to ſoften them, and diſpoſe them for eaſier digeſtion. The effects of boiling are different according to the kinds and qualities of the water. Pulſe boiled in ſea water grow harder; mutton boiled in the ſame becomes ſofter and tenderer than in freſh water, but taſtes ſaltiſh and bitter.

(4.) BOILING, in trade and manufactures, is a preparation given to divers ſorts of bodies by making them paſs over the fire, chiefly in water, though ſometimes in other liquors. In this ſenſe we ſpeak of the boiling of ſalt, ſugar, copperas, linens, &c. See BLEACHING, INDEX.

(5.) BOILING OF SILK WITH SOAP is the firſt preparation for dyeing it. Thread is alſo boiled in a ſtrong lixivium of aſhes to prepare it for dyeing.

(6.) BOILING TO DEATH *(caldariis decoquere)*, in the middle age, was a puniſhment inflicted on thieves, falſe coiners, and ſome other criminals.

(7.) BOILING WELLS, in natural hiſtory. See BURNING SPRINGS, and ICELAND.

BOINITZ, or BOITNITZ, a town of Upper Hungary, in the county of Zell, remarkable for its baths and the quantity of ſaffron that grows about it. Lon. 19. 10. E. Lat. 48. 42. N.

BOIOBA, or BOIOBI, in zoology, a ſpecies of ſerpent found in America, and called by the Portugueſe *corba de verb.* It is about an ell in length, of the thickneſs of a man's thumb, and is all over of a very beautiful and ſhining green. Its mouth is very large, and its tongue black. It is fond of frequenting houſes, and never injures any creature unleſs provoked or hurt; but it will then bite, and its poiſon is very fatal. The natives take as a remedy againſt its poiſon, the root *caa apia* bruiſed and mixed with water. See CAA APIA.

BOIOCALUS, an ancient German hero, of a moſt patriotic and diſintereſted ſpirit. See ANSIBARII.

BOIORUM DESERTA, a diſtrict of Pannonia, ſo called from the exciſion of the Boii by the Getae. It lay towards Stiria, E. of mount CETIUS, or the Hahlenberg, and to the ſouth of VINDOBONA or Vienna. It is now called WEINERWALD, in Lower Auſtria.

BOIQUIRA, the American name for the rattle-ſnake.

BOISACK, a diſtrict in Forfarſhire.

BOIS DE COISSI, in botany, a South American tree growing about Surinam, held in the higheſt eſtimation by the Indians in that part of the world, and now recommended to the phyſicians in Europe, by Dr Fermin in a treatiſe lately publiſhed at Amſterdam. The root is eſteemed an excellent ſtomachic,

chic, reſtoring the appetite, and aſſiſting digeſtion; but it is chiefly celebrated as an infallible remedy againſt even the moſt inveterate intermittents. It is ſaid alſo to be uſed with great ſafety and advantage in every ſpecies of remittent and continued fever, by patients of all ages, ſexes, and conditions, even during pregnancy, and in the puerperal ſtate. Before employing it, however, it is abſolutely neceſſary to adminiſter either a purgative or emetic. The beſt method of exhibiting it is in decoction: half an ounce of the bark of the root muſt be boiled in a cloſe veſſel with ſix pints of water till one half be conſumed; the decoction is then ſtrained off, and a cupful taken every two hours till the fever is entirely extinguiſhed. Six or ſeven days after a cure is thus performed, it is generally neceſſary to repeat the purgative.

BOIS DE SOIGNIES, a foreſt of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, about 3 miles S. E. of Bruſſels, in one of the new departments lately annexed to the French republic.

BOISEAU, a French corn meaſure; that of Rochelle, is equal to two buſhels and half a peck Engliſh; that of Bourdeaux ſomewhat leſs.

BOIS-LE-DUC, called by the Dutch HERTOGENBOSCH, a large, ſtrong, and handſome town of the Netherlands, in Dutch Brabant, ſeated between the rivers Dommel and Aa, among moraſſes. It lies 22 m. E. by N. of Breda; 17 W. of Grave; 45 N. E. of Antwerp, and 45 S. S. E. of Amſterdam. Long. 5. 16. E. Lat. 51. 40. N.

BOISSARD, John James, a famous antiquarian, born at Beſançon. He publiſhed ſeveral collections which are of great uſe to ſuch as wiſh to underſtand the Roman antiquities. He had a great paſſion for this ſtudy; and drew with his own hand plans of all the ancient monuments of Italy. He died at Mentz, October 30th, 1602. His principal works are, 1. Four volumes in folio of Roman antiquities, adorned with plates engraved by Theodore de Bey and his two ſons. 2. *Theatrum vitæ humanæ*; which contains the lives of 198 famous perſons, with their portraits. 3. A treatiſe *de divinatione & magicis præſtigiis*. Theſe works are ſcarce, and eſteemed by the antiquarians.

* BOISTEROUS. *adj.* [*byſter*, furious, Dutch.]

1. Violent; loud; roaring; ſtormy.—

By a divine inſtinct, mens minds miſtruſt
Enſuing danger; as by proof we ſee
The waters ſwell before a *boiſterous* ſtorm. *Shakeſ.*

As when loud winds a well-grown oak would rend
Up by the roots, this way and that they bend
His reeling trunk, and with a *boiſt'rous* ſound
Scatter his leaves, and ſtrew them on the ground.
Waller.

2. Turbulent; tumultuous; furious.—

Spirit of peace,
Wherefore do you ſo ill tranſlate yourſelf
Out of the ſpeech of peace, that bears ſuch grace,
Into the harſh and *boiſt'rous* tongue of war?
Shakeſpeare.

His ſweetneſs won a more regard
Unto his place, than all the *boiſt'rous* moods
That ignorant greatneſs practiſeth. *Ben. Jonſon.*

God, into the hands of their deliverer,
Puts invincible might,
To quell the mighty of the earth, th' oppreſſor,
The brute and *boiſt'rous* force of violent men.
Milton.

Still muſt I beg thee not to name Sempronius:
Lucia, I like not that loud *boiſterous* man. *Addiſ.*

3. Unwieldy; clumſily violent.—

His *boiſterous* club, ſo buried in the ground,
He could not rearen up again ſo light,
But that the knight him at advantage found.
Fairy Queen.

4. It is uſed by *Woodward* of heat; violent.—When the ſun hath gained a greater ſtrength, the heat becomes too powerful and *boiſterous* for them. *Natural Hiſtory.*

* BOISTEROUSLY. *adv.* [from *boiſterous.*] Violently; tumultuouſly.—

A ſceptre ſnatch'd with an unruly hand,
Muſt be as *boiſterouſly* maintain'd, as gain'd.
Shakeſpeare.

—Thoſe are all remains of the univerſal deluge, when the water of the ocean, being *boiſterouſly* turned out upon the earth, bore along with it all moveable bodies. *Woodward.*—Another faculty of the intellect comes *boiſterouſly* in, and wakes me from ſo pleaſing a dream. *Swift.*

* BOISTEROUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *boiſterous.*] The ſtate or quality of being boiſterous; tumultuouſneſs; turbulence.

BOIT, an excellent painter in enamel. He was born in Stockholm, and bred a jeweller which profeſſion he intended to follow in England; but changed his deſign, and went into the country, where he taught children to draw. He there engaged a gentleman's daughter, who was one of his ſcholars, to promiſe him marriage; but the affair being diſcovered, he was thrown into priſon. In that confinement, which laſted two years, he ſtudied enamelling; an art to which he adhered, on his return to London, and practiſed with great ſucceſs. The prices he is ſaid to have obtained for his work are almoſt incredible: but being engaged in a very large deſign for the court and Queen Anne dying before it was completed he ran in debt, his goods were ſeized by execution, and he fled to France; where he changed his religion, was countenanced by the regent, and obtained a penſion of L. 230 *per annum*, but died ſuddenly at Paris in 1726. There is a large piece done by him at Kenſington, repreſenting Queen Anne ſitting, and Prince George ſtanding by her; and at Bedford-houſe is another very large piece of the duke's father and mother.

BOITJAPO, in zoology, a ſpecies of ſerpent found in America; and called by the Portuguese there, COBRA DI CAPO. It grows to 7 or 8 feet long, is about the thickneſs of a man's arm, and very ſmall and taper towards the tail. Its back is of an olive colour; its belly yellow, and covered with very regular and elegant triangular ſcales. It feeds on frogs, &c. but is poiſonous, and its bite extremely fatal.

BOITNITZ. See BOINITZ.

BOKHARA, a city of Tartary in Aſia, and capital of Great Bukharia, ſituated one days journey to the N. of the river Jehun, or Amu. In 12 it was beſieged by Jenghiz Khan, as being part of Sultan Mohammed's dominions a deſcendant of the famous Mahmud Gazari. At that time beſie-

beſides the city-walls, which were very ſtrong, Bokhara had an outward incloſure 12 leagues in compaſs; which ſhut in not only the ſuburbs, but alſo many pleaſant ſeats and farms watered by the river Soghd, from whence the ancient Sogdiana took its name. The Mogul army arrived before the place in July, and continued the ſiege during the following winter. In March 1220, they forced the outer wall, and began to beſiege the city in form. Sultan Mohammed had left in the city a very numerous garriſon under the command of three generals, who made a ſally at the head of 20,000 men: but being repulſed with great loſs, their courage failed them; and, inſtead of ſtaying to defend the inhabitants, as ſoon as they had got into the city by one gate, paſſed out by another with their families, and almoſt all their ſoldiers, hoping to eſcape by the darkneſs of the night; but their deſign being diſcovered, they were purſued by a detachment of 30,000 Moguls; and being overtaken at the Amu, they were, after a bloody diſpute, almoſt all cut to pieces. Mean time, Jenghiz Khan, being informed of the confuſion into which the city had been thrown by the deſertion of the garriſon, ordered an attack to be made on all ſides at once; but while he was preparing for this, the magiſtrates and clergy went out and preſented him with the keys of the city. Jenghiz Khan granted them their lives, on condition that they gave no ſhelter to any of the ſultan's ſoldiers, and put out all who ſhould be ſuſpected of being in that prince's intereſt; which they promiſed to do upon oath. All the young people, however, who were diſpleaſed with the ſurrender, retired with the governor to the caſtle, which was very ſtrong, and reſolved to defend it to the laſt extremity. Jenghiz Khan, having taken poſſeſſion of Bokhara, entered on horſeback to the great moſque, and aſked merrily what was the ſultan's palace? On being anſwered that it was the houſe of God, he alighted; and giving the principal magiſtrate his horſe to hold, aſcended the gallery where the eccleſiaſtics uſually ſtand, and then taking up the Koran, threw it under the feet of his horſes. Having ſtaid there for ſome time, he retired to his camp; where, ſome days after, having aſſembled the principal people of Bokhara, and aſcended a pulpit erected for that purpoſe in the midſt of them, he began his ſpeech by praiſing God, and recounted all the favours he had received from the Almighty: he then mentioned the perfidious behaviour of the ſultan towards himſelf, telling them that God had ſent him to rid the world of ſuch wicked men. As to them, he teſtified his ſatisfaction for their having ſo well furniſhed his army with neceſſaries; and promiſed that his ſoldiers ſhould not meddle with any goods which they made uſe of in their houſes; but commanded them to deliver up what they had hidden, under pain of being tortured. The ſpeech had ſuch an effect, that the poor inhabitants delivered up every thing, as well what they had concealed as what they had preſent uſe for; notwithſtanding which, the tyrant ſoon after cauſed the city to be burnt, on pretence that ſome of the ſultan's ſoldiers were concealed in it. As all the houſes were made of wood, except the ſultan's palace which was built of ſtone, and ſome few private houſes of brick, the whole was utterly conſumed; and Jenghiz Khan having found ſome few ſoldiers that had actually concealed themſelves, put them all to death without mercy. The caſtle ſurrendered at diſcretion ſoon after; and though it was demoliſhed, the governor and garriſon, out of a very extraordinary piece of clemency from ſo bloody a tyrant, had their lives ſpared. Bokhara continued in ruins for ſome years, but at length Jenghiz Khan ordered it to be rebuilt. It is now large and populous; and is the reſidance of a khan who is altogether deſpotic, though his power reaches but a little way without the city. The town is ſeated on a riſing ground, with a ſlender wall of earth and a dry ditch. The houſes are low, built moſtly of mud; but the caravanſeras and moſques, which are numerous, are all of brick. The bazars or market-places, which have been ſtately buildings, are now moſtly in ruins. The inhabitants are more civilized and polite than ſome of their neighbours; and yet are cowardly, cruel, effeminate and very perfidious. Great numbers of Jews and Arabians frequent this place, though they are much oppreſſed, and frequently deprived of all their properties by the khan or his attendants. At beſt they pay heavy taxes, and it is almoſt criminal to be rich. Lon. 65. 50. E. Lat. 39. 15. N.

BOKHARIA. See BUKHARIA.

BOKILING, *adj.* buckling. *Chauc.*

(1.) BOL, anciently called BOTEL, a town in Cumberland which has an ancient caſtle.

(2.) BOL, Ferdinand, a celebrated painter of hiſtory and portraits, born at Dort in 1611, and educated at Amſterdam. He ſtudied in the ſchool of the celebrated Rembrant Gerretz, and imitated the ſtyle of his maſter with ſucceſs both in pictures and engravings. Bol's etchings are bold and free. The lights and ſhadows in them are broad and powerful, which renders the effect ſtriking; but they want that lightneſs of touch and admirable taſte which thoſe of Rembrant poſſeſs. Bol died at Dort, the place of his birth, in 1681, aged 70.

(3.) BOL, Hans, or John, a painter born at Mechlin in 1534. He went to Heidelberg, and employed himſelf in copying pictures of eminent artiſts. His ſubjects are chiefly landſcapes with animals; but he alſo ſometimes painted hiſtory, with ſucceſs: a ſet of his landſcapes, views in Holland, are extant, ſlightly etched, but in a ſtyle that indicates the hand of a maſter. He died in 1593.

BOLABOLA, one of the Society Iſlands.

BOLÆ. See BOLENIÆ.

BOLAM, a village in Northumberland, 5 m S. W. or Morpeth.

BOLANDISTS. See next article.

BOLANDUS, John, a famous Jeſuit, born at Tillemont in the Netherlands, in 1596. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by writing the lives of the ſaints, under the title of *Acta Sanctorum*, of which he publiſhed 5 volumes in folio; but died while he was labouring at the 6th, aged 70. The continuators of this work are called BOLANDISTS.

* BOLARY. *adj.* [from *bole.*] Partaking of the nature of bole, or clay.—A weak and inanimate kind of loadſtone, with a few magnetical lines, but

but chiefly conſiſting of a *bolary* and clammy ſubſtance. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

(1.) BOLAS, in botany, bullace, a wild plum. *Obſ. Chaut.*

(2.) BOLAS, in geography, a village in Shropſhire, 7 m. N. W. of Newport.

BOLBITINUM, in ancient geography, the 2d mouth of the Nile reckoning from W. to E. now very ſmall, choaked up with ſand, and called LE BRAS DE BELTIN.

BOLBONACH, in botany, a name given by ſome to the ſattin flower.

BOLBROKE, a village in Suſſex, 3 miles from E. Grinſted.

(1.) * BOLD. *adj.* [*bald*, Saxon.] 1. Daring; brave; ſtout; courageous; magnanimous; fearleſs; intrepid.—The wicked flee when no man purſueth; but the righteous are *bold* as a lion. *Proverbs.*—I have ſeen the councils of a noble country grow *bold*, or timorous, according to the fits of his good or ill health that managed them. *Temple.* 2. Executed with ſpirit, and without mean caution.—Theſe, nervous, *bold*; thoſe, languid and remiſs. *Roſcommon.*—The cathedral church is a very *bold* work, and a maſter-piece of Gothic architecture. *Addiſon on Italy.* 3. Confident; not ſcrupulous; not timorous.—We were *bold* in our God to ſpeak unto you the goſpel of God with much contention. 1 *Theſſalonians.*—I can be *bold* to ſay, that this age is adorned with ſome men of that judgment, that they could open new and undiſcovered ways to knowledge. *Locke.* 4. Impudent; rude.—In thy proſperity he will be as thyſelf, and will be *bold* over thy ſervants. If thou be brought low, he will be againſt thee. *Eccluſ.* 5. Licentious; ſuch as ſhew great liberty of fiction, or expreſſion.—The figures are *bold* even to temerity. *Cowley.*—

Which no *bold* tales of gods or monſters ſwell,
But human paſſions, ſuch as with us dwell.
Waller.

6. Standing out to the view; ſtriking to the eye.—Catachreſes and hyperboles are to be uſed judiciouſly, and placed in poetry, as heightnings and ſhadows in painting, to make the figure *bolder*, and cauſe it to ſtand off to ſight. *Dryden.* 7. Open; ſmooth; even; level: a ſailor's term.—Her dominions have *bold* acceſſible coaſts. *Howel.* 8. *To make bold.* To take freedoms: a phraſe not grammatical, though common. *To be bold* is better; as, *I was bold* to tell the houſe that ſcandalous livings make ſcandalous miniſters. *Ridgerd.*—

I have *made bold* to ſend to your wife;
My ſuit is, that ſhe will to Deſdemona
Procure me ſome acceſs. *Shakeſ.*

Making ſo bold,
My fears forgetting manners, to unſeal
Their grand commiſſion. *Shakeſ.*

And were y' as good as George a Green,
I ſhall *make bold* to turn agen. *Hudibras.*

—I durſt not *make* thus *bold* with Ovid, leſt ſome future Milbourn ſhould ariſe. *Dryden.*—Some men have the fortune to be eſteemed wits, only for *making bold* to ſcoff at theſe things, which the greateſt part of mankind reverence. *Tillotſon.*

(2.) BOLD, a place in the county of Peebles, and parish of Traquair.

(3.) BOLD, a village in Lancaſhire, S. E. of Preſcot.

BOLDEN, a town in Durham, 2 miles from Sunderland, and 3 from Shields.

* *To* BOLDEN. *v. a.* [from *bold.*] To make bold; to give confidence.—Quick inventers, and fair ready ſpeakers, being *boldened* with their preſent abilities, to ſay more, and perchance better too, at the ſudden, for that preſent, than any other can do, uſe leſs help of diligence and ſtudy *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter.*—

I am much too vent'rous,
In tempting of your patience; but am *bolden'd*
Under your promis'd pardon. *Shakeſpeare*

BOLDERHURST, a village in the New Foreſt Hampſhire.

* BOLDFACE. *n. ſ.* [from *bold* and *face.*] Impudence; ſaucineſs: a term of reproach and reprehenſion.—How, now, *boldface!* cries an old trot; ſirrah, we eat our own hens, I'd have you know; what you eat, you ſteal. *L'Eſtrange.*

* BOLDFACED. *adj.* [from *bold* and *face.*] Impudent.—I have ſeen thoſe ſillieſt of creatures, and, ſeeing their rare works, I have ſeen enough to confute all the *boldfaced* atheiſts of this age *Bramhall againſt Hobbes.*

* BOLDLY. *adv.* [from *bold.*] 1. In a bold manner; with courage; with ſpirit.—Thus we may *boldly* ſpeak, being ſtrengthened with the example of ſo reverend a prelate. *Hooker.*—

I ſpeak to ſubjects, and a ſubject ſpeaks,
Stirr'd up by heav'n, thus *boldly* for his king.
Shakeſpeare

2. It may perhaps be ſometimes uſed in a bad ſenſe, for *impudently.*

* BOLDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bold.*] 1. Courage; bravery; intrepidity; ſpirit; fortitude; magnanimity; daringneſs.—Her horſe ſhe rid ſo, as might ſhew a fearful *boldneſs*, daring to do that, which ſhe knew not how to do. *Sidney.* 2. Exemption from caution, and ſcrupulous nicety.—The *boldneſs* of the figures is to be hidden, ſometimes by the addreſs of the poet, that they may work the effect upon the mind. *Dryden.* 3. Freedom; liberty.—Great is my *boldneſs* of ſpeech toward you, great is my glorying in you. 2 *Corinth.* 4. Confident truſt in God.—Our fear excludeth not the *boldneſs* which becometh ſaints. *Hooker.*—We have *boldneſs* and acceſs with confidence, by the faith of him. *Epheſians.*—Having therefore *boldneſs* to enter into the holieſt by the blood of Jeſus. *Heb.* 5. Aſſurance; freedom from baſhfulneſs; confident mien.—Wonderful is the caſe of *boldneſs* in civil buſineſs; what firſt? *Boldneſs.* What ſecond and third? *Boldneſs.* And yet *boldneſs* is a child of ignorance, and baſeneſs, far inferiour to other parts. *Bacon.*—

Sure if the guilt were theirs, they could not charge thee
With ſuch a gallant *boldneſs*: if 'twere thine,
Thou couldſt not hear't with ſuch a ſilent ſcorn
Denham

—His diſtance, though it does not inſtruct him to think wiſer than other princes, yet it helps him to ſpeak with more *boldneſs* what he thinks. *Temple.*—*Boldneſs* is the power to ſpeak or do what we intend, before others, without fear or diſorder

Le.

Bole, a village in Lancaster, 51

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Under

BOLDERHURST, a village in the ho

Hamp

* BOLDFACE. *n. s.* [from *bold* and

pudence; the mien: a term of reproa

prefent time.—How, now, *boldface*! do

trot; ftrrah, we eat our own bread, I'll

know; what you eat, you ftea. *L'Eſtra*

Impudent.—I have ſeen thoſe faſhions

and, keeping their rare works, I have ſe

to countere all the *boldfaced* attacks of

Evelyn on Coins.

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dent baſhfulneſs; what firſt? *Boldneſs*.

civil baſhfulneſs? *Boldneſs*. And yet

and ruſtick? *Boldneſs*. And baſeneſs, far

or ignorance, and baſeneſs, far unlik

parts. *Locke.*—

Sure if the guilt were theirs, they

Charge thee

With ſuch a guilty *baſeneſs*; if there

Thou couldſt not fear! with ſuch a

—His diſtance, though it does not

to think with more ſcruple what he

ſpeak with more freedom to ſpeak or

Locke. 6. Impudence.—That moderation, which

uſeth to ſuppreſs *boldneſs*, and to make them con-

quer that ſuffer. *Hooker.*

BOLDRE, a village in the New Foreſt, Hampſh.

(L) * BOLE. *n. ſ.* 1. The body or trunk of a

tree.—

All fell upon the high-hair'd oaks, and down

their curl'd brows

Fell loathing to the earth; and up went all the

boles and boughs.

Chapman.

But when the ſmoother *bole* from knots is free,

We make a deep inciſion in the tree. *Dryden.*

View well this tree, the queen of all the grove;

How vaſt her *bole*, how wide her arms are ſpread;

How high above the reſt ſhe ſhoots her head!

Dryden.

2. A kind of earth.—*Bole Armeniack* is an aſtrin-

gent earth, which takes its name from Armenia,

the country from which we have it. *Woodward.*

3. A meaſure of corn, containing ſix buſhels.—

Of good barley put eight *boles*, that is, about ſix

Engliſh quarters in a ſtone trough. *Mortimer.*

(M.) Boles, in natural hiſtory, are viſcid earths,

leſs coherent and more friable than clay; more

readily uniting with water, and more freely ſub-

ſiding from it. They are ſoft and unctuous to the

touch; adhere to the tongue; and by degrees

melt in the mouth, impreſſing a light ſenſe of aſ-

tringency. Theſe earths, made into little maſſes,

and ſtamped with certain impreſſions, are called

terræ ſigillatæ. They have been recommended as

aſtringent, ſudorific, and alexipharmic; but theſe

and many other virtues that have been aſcribed to

them appear to have no foundation. They are

ſtill, however, preſcribed in fluxes and complaints

of the prima viæ. There are a great variety of

them. The principal are the following:

1. Bole, Armenian, when pure, is of a bright

red colour with a tinge of yellow: It is one of the

ſmoothſt and moſt compact bodies of this claſs, and

has a ſmooth and gloſſy like the others, but gene-

rally of a rough and duſty ſurface. It does not

effervesce with acids, though ſome part of it is

diſſolved by all of them. Newmann obſerves,

that 4 ounces of Armenian bole, diſtilled in a glaſs

retort in an open fire, yielded 3 drachms of a ſa-

line phlegm, which ſmelt a little urinous, and

changed ſyrup of violets green. In the neck of

the retort was found a little powdery ſaline mat-

ter which had an ammoniacal taſte, but it was in

too ſmall quantity to be collected or further exa-

mined. Like moſt other coloured earths, this kind

of bole contains a portion of ferruginous matter,

to which the colour is owing; and which may be

ſeparated by the magnet, after the bole has been

calcined with oil of other inflammable matters. It

is likewiſe impregnated with vitriolic acid; and

hence, when mixed with nitre or ſea-ſalt, it extri-

cates the acids of theſe ſalts in the fire.

2. Bole, Bohemian, is of a yellow colour,

with a caſt of red, and generally of a flaky texture.

It is not acted on by acids.

3. Bole, French, is of a pale red colour, va-

riegated with irregular ſpecks of white and yellow.

It is much ſofter than the Armenian, and ſlightly

effervesces with acids.

4. Bole Lemnian, or Lemnian earth is of a

pale red colour, and ſlightly effervesces with acids.

5. Bole of Blois is yellow, remarkably lighter

than moſt of the other yellow earths, and effer-

veſces ſtrongly with acids.

6. Bole, Silesian, is of a pale yellow colour,

and acids have no ſenſible effect upon it.

BOLE-HALL, a hamlet in Warwickſhire, in

the pariſh of Tamworth.

BOLENIÆ, or Bolæ, in natural hiſtory, a

name given by ancient writers to ſtones of a round-

iſh figure, marked with ſeveral ridges and lines.

They are the ſame with thoſe called Beontiæ

and Ombriæ, both being imagined to fall from

the clouds in time of thunder ſtorms; but they

are really a common ſpecies of Echinitæ.

BOLENTIUM, in ancient geography, a town

of Pannonia Superior; now called Rackersburg

in Stiria.

BOLESLAFF, } or Buntzlau, a town of

BOLESSLAPE, } Sileſia, ſeated on the Bobar.

Lon. 16. 10 E. Lat. 51. 12. N.

BOLESLAUS, I. king of Poland, was the ſon

of Mieceſlaus duke of Poland, who, having em-

braced Chriſtianity, had deſired the title of *king*

from the pope, but was refuſed it. Boleſlaus

found more favour with the emperor Otho III.

whom he entertained ſplendidly at Gneſna, during

his pilgrimage to viſit the relics of St Adelbert;

and who, in return, not only prevailed on pope

Sylveſter II. to confer the royal dignity upon Bo-

leſlaus, but inveſted him with his own robes, and

gave him ſome of the inſignia of the empire, A. D.

1001. Boleſlaus was a brave and liberal monarch.

He repulſed the Bohemians; chaſtiſed the Mora-

vians; puniſhed the idolatrous Pruſſians, for the

murder of St Adelbert, whoſe body he redeemed;

and re-eſtabliſhed Stopoleus grand duke of Ruſſia,

who had been depoſed by his brother Jaroſlaus.

He married Judith daughter of Geiſa D. of Hun-

gary, by whom he had ſeveral children, and died

A. D. 1025.

Boleslaus, II, III, IV, and V. kings of Poland.

See Poland, history of.

BOLETO lichen, a name given by M. Juſſieu

to a plant, which partakes of the nature of the

morelle and of the liverwort, and which he has

accurately deſcribed in the *Mem. Acad. des Sciences*.

Paris, 1728. This plant has the ſmell of the com-

mon muſhroom, and, when young, has a viſcous

liquid contained under the foldings of its head,

which, when the plant is arrived at maturity,

dries into the form of an extremely ſubtle yel-

low powder, which is the ſeed.

BOLETUS, in botany, FUNGUS: A genus of the

order of fungi, belonging to the cryptogamia claſs

of plants. Botaniſts enumerate 17 ſpecies, of which

the following are the moſt remarkable.

1. Boletus bovinus, or cow ſpunk, is fre-

quent in woods and paſtures. It is generally of a

brown colour, though ſometimes it is tawny, yel-

lowiſh brown, reddiſh brown, deep red, purple,

or greeniſh brown. The fleſh is yellow, white,

or reddiſh. The young plants are eaten in Italy,

and eſteemed a great delicacy. The Germans al-

ſo account them a dainty, calling them *gombas*,

and *brat-hulz*. Cows, deer, ſheep, and ſwine,

will feed upon this and other boleti, and are ſome-

times greatly diſordered by them. In cows and

other cattle they have been known to create bloody

urine, nauſeous milk, ſwellings of the abdomen, inflammations of the bowels, ſtoppages, diarrhœas, and death. In ſheep they bring on a ſchirrhous liver, a cough, a general waſting, and dropſy. *Scarabs*, *dermeſtes*, and many other inſects, feed upon and breed in them abundantly.

2. BOLETUS IGNIARIUS, or touchwood ſpunk, is frequent on the trunks of old trees of all kinds, eſpecially aſh. It conſiſts of a very hard woody ſubſtance, in ſhape like a horſe's hoof, and grows of various ſizes, from a man's fiſt to that of his head and larger. The upper ſide is ſmooth, but uneven, diſtinguiſhed near the rim by elevated zones of different colours, brown, grey, tawny, &c. The fleſh is of a tawny brown colour, extremely hard and tough. This fungus is made uſe of in Germany and ſome parts of England for tinder. The Germans boil it in ſtrong ley, dry it and boil it again in ſolution of ſaltpetre. The Laplanders burn it about their habitations, in order to keep off a ſpecies of the gadfly which is fatal to the young reindeer. It has been uſed to ſtop the bleeding of the veſſels after amputations. (*Phil. Tranſ. vol.* xlviii. *p.* 2.) For this purpoſe the hard outer part is cut off, and the ſoft inner ſubſtance is beat with a hammer to make it ſtill ſofter. It is beſt when gathered in Auguſt or September.

3. BOLETUS PINI LARICIS, or agaric of the ſhops, grows on old larch trees. This fungus is an irregular ſpongy ſubſtance, extremely light, and of an uniform ſnowy whiteneſs, except the cortical part, which is uſually taken off before the agaric is brought into the ſhops. It cuts freely with a knife, without diſcovering any hardneſs or grittineſs, and readily crumbles betwixt the fingers into a powder. It has no remarkable ſmell; its taſte is at firſt ſweetiſh; but on chewing for a ſhort time, it proves acrid, bitter, and nauſeous. Agaric was formerly in great eſteem as a cathartic, but the preſent practice has almoſt entirely rejected its uſe. It is now rejected both by the London and Edinburgh Colleges, but it ſtill retains a place in moſt of the new foreign Pharmacopœias. It operates exceeding ſlowly, inſomuch that ſome have denied it to have any purgative virtue at all. Given in ſubſtance, it almoſt always occaſions a nauſea, not unfrequently vomiting, and ſometimes exceſſive tormina of the bowels: theſe effects are attributed to its light farinaceous matter adhering to the coats of the inteſtines, and producing a conſtant irritation. The beſt preparation of agaric ſeems to be an extract made with water, in which fixt alkaline ſalt has been diſſolved; or with vinegar or wine: the firſt is ſaid by Boulduc, and the two latter by Newmann, to prove an effectual and ſafe purgative. But it is at beſt a precarious medicine, of which we ſtand in no need.

4. BOLETUS SUBEROSUS, or white cork ſpunk, grows commonly on the trunks of birch and willow trees in England and Scotland. It grows ſeſſile and horizontal; its figure is ſemicircular; the upper ſide convex, the under nearly plain; of various ſizes, from that of an aſs's hoof to a peck meaſure. The upper ſurface is quite white, generally covered with a ſhort ſtrong down, but ſometimes ſmooth. The internal ſubſtance is white, tough, light, and ſpongy, like cork; is ſometimes cut and ſhaped by the country people, and uſed as corks in their bottles: but ſuch corks muſt not be ſuffered to touch the liquid, for moiſture ſoon renders them ſoft and uſeleſs.

BOLEYN, Ann, queen of Henry VIII. of England; memorable in the Engliſh hiſtory, as the firſt cauſe of the reformation, as the mother of queen Elizabeth under whom it was completely eſtabliſhed, and on account of her own ſufferings. She was the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, and born in 1507. She was carried into France at 7 years of age by Henry VIII's ſiſter, the wife of Lewis XII: nor did ſhe return into England when that queen retired thither after the death of her huſband; but ſtaid in the ſervice of queen Claudia, the wife of Francis I. and after the death of that princeſs went to the ducheſs of Alençon. The year of her return is not well known; ſome will have it to have been in 1527, others in 1525.—This much is certain, that ſhe was maid of honour to queen Catharine of Spain, Henry VIII's firſt wife; and that the king fell vaſtly in love with her. She behaved with ſo much art and addreſs, that by refuſing to ſatisfy his paſſion, ſhe brought him to think of marrying her: and the king perſuaded that he ſhould never enjoy her unleſs he made her his wife, was induced to ſet on foot the divorce of Catharine, which at laſt was executed with great ſolemnity. A celebrated author obſerves, that "That which would have been very praiſeworthy on another occaſion, was Ann Boleyn's chief crime: ſince her refuſing to comply with an amorous king, unleſs he would divorce his wife, was a much more enormous crime, than to have been his concubine. A concubine (ſays he) would not have dethroned a queen, nor taken her crown or her huſband from her; whereas the crafty Ann Boleyn, by pretending to be chaſte and ſcrupulous, aimed only at the uſurpation of the throne, and the excluſion of Catharine of Arragon and her daughter from all the honours due to them." In the mean time, Henry could not procure a divorce from the Pope; which made him reſolve at length to diſown his authority, and throw off his yoke. He married Ann Boleyn privately upon the 14th of November 1532, and as ſoon as he perceived that his new wife was with child, he made his marriage public. He cauſed Ann Boleyn to be declared queen of England on Eaſter-eve 1533, and to be crowned the 1ſt of June following. She was brought to bed on the 7th September of a daughter, who was afterwards queen Elizabeth; and continued to be much beloved by Henry till the charms of Jane Seymour fired that tyrant's heart in 1536. Then his love for his wife was changed into violent hatred: he believed or pretended that he believed her to be unchaſte, and cauſed her to be impriſoned and tried. "She was indicted of high treaſon, for that ſhe had procured her brother and other four to lie with her, which they had done often: that ſhe had ſaid to them, that the king never had her heart; and had ſaid to every one of them by themſelves, that ſhe loved him better than any perſon whatever; which was to the ſlander of the iſſue that was begotten between the king and her. And this was treaſon according to the ſtatute made in the 26th year of this reign; ſo that the law which was made for

her

ter and the iſſue of her marriage, is now made uſe of to deſtroy her." She was condemned to be either burnt or beheaded; and ſhe underwent the latter on the 19th of May 1536. The right rev. author of the *Hiſtory of the Reformation*, relates four very remarkable things of her behaviour during the time of her impriſonment, and a little before her execution. When ſhe was impriſoned, ſhe is ſaid to have acted very different parts; ſometimes ſeeming devout and ſhedding abundance of tears, then all of a ſudden breaking out into a loud laughter. A few hours before her death, ſhe ſaid, that the executioner was very handy: and beſides, that ſhe had a very ſmall neck; at the ſame time, feeling it with her hands, and laughing heartily. However, it is agreed that ſhe died with great reſolution; taking care to ſpread her gown about her feet, that ſhe might fall with decency; as the poets have related of Polyxena, and the hiſtorians of Julius Cæſar. Roman-catholick writers have taken all occaſion to rail at this unhappy woman, as well through vexation at the ſchiſm which ſhe occaſioned, as for the ſake of diſhonouring queen Elizabeth; and they have triumphed greatly, that in the long reign of that queen, no endeavours were uſed to juſtify her mother. But Q. Elizabeth and her miniſters are to be commended for prudence in this reſpect; ſince Ann Boleyn's juſtification could not have been carried on without diſcovering ſome things, which muſt have been prejudicial to the queen, and have weakened her right inſtead of eſtabliſhing it. For though the repreſentations of the papiſts are in no wiſe to be regarded, yet many things might have been ſaid to the diſadvantage of her mother; as that ſhe was a woman gay even to immodeſty, indiſcreet in the liberties ſhe took, and of an irregular and licentious behaviour.

(1.) BOLINGBROKE, Lord Viſcount. See ST JOHN.

(2.) BOLINGBROKE, or BULLINGBROKE, a town of Lincolnſhire in England, and of great antiquity, but now in a mean condition. It is 29 m. E. of Lincoln. Lon. 0. 40. E. Lat. 53. 15. N.

BOLINTHOS, in natural hiſtory, a name given by Ariſtotle, and ſome of the other ancient Greeks, to the MONOPS of Ælian, or the BONASUS.

* BOLIS. *n. ſ.* [Latin.] *Bolis* is a great fiery ball, ſwiftly hurried through the air, and generally drawing a tail after it. Ariſtotle calls it *capra*. There have often been immenſe balls of this kind. *Cowbroeck.*

BOLISLAW, a town of Germany, in Bohemia, 12 m. N. E. of Prague, ſeated on the Sizera. Lon. 14. 35. E. Lat. 50. 25. N.

BOLKOWITZ, a town of Silefia, in the duchy of Glogaw. Lon. 15. 20. E. Lat. 51. 27. N.

(1.) * BOLL. *n. ſ.* A round ſtalk or ſtem; as, a *boll* of flax.

(2.) BOLL, in geography, a village in Nottinghamſhire, near Gainſborough.

(3.) BOLL, *n. ſ. obſ.* a bowl; a bottle. *Chauc.*

* *To* BOLL. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To riſe in a ſtalk.—And the flax and the barley was ſmitten: for the barley was in the ear, and the flax was boll'd. *Exodus.*

BOLLANDUS. See BOLANDUS.

BOLLARDS, large poſts ſet into the ground on each ſide of a dock. On docking or undocking ſhips, large blocks are laſhed to them; and through theſe blocks are reeved the tranſporting hawſers to be brought to the capſtons.

(1.) BOLLIN, a river in Cheſhire.

(2.) BOLLIN, or BOLN, *adj. obſ.* Swoln. *Chauc.*

BOLLINGTON, a village in Cheſhire, near Macclesfield.

BOLLISDON, a hamlet in Northumberland, near Woller.

BOLLISTO, a village in Cornwall, near the Land's End.

BOLLITO, a name by which the Italians call a *ſea-green colour* in artificial cryſtal. To prepare this colour, put into the furnace a pot filled with 40lb. of good cryſtal, firſt carefully ſkimmed, boiled, and purified, without any manganeſe: then take 12 ounces of the powder of ſmall leaves of copper thrice calcined, and half an ounce of zaffre in powder: mix them together, and put them at 4 times into the pot, that they may the better mix with the glaſs; ſtirring them well each time of putting in the powder, leſt the mixture ſhould ſwell and run over.

BOLLMONG, *n. ſ.* a medley of different grain.

BOLLOS, in the mines of Peru, a name given to the bars of ſilver procured there from the ore, by the operation of fire and aqua fortis.

To BOLNE, *v. a. obſ.* To ſwell. *Chauc.*

BOLNEY, the name of 3 villages, viz. 1. in Norfolkſhire, near Creſſingham Parva. 2. in Oxfordſhire, near Henley: and 3. in Suſſex, near Cuckfield. It has fairs May 17, and Dec. 10.

BOLNHURST, a village in Bedfordſhire between Woodhill and Buſh-Mead.

(1.) BOLOGNA, an ancient, rich and populous city of Italy, the capital of the Bologneſe, (See N. 2.) lately in the territories of the pope, but now included in the new Italian republic of CISPADANA. Its ancient name was FELSINA.—It is 5 miles in circumference, and contains about 80,000 inhabitants. It has been long diſtinguiſhed for the ſciences, and its univerſity and academy are much eſteemed. Its paintings are reckoned next to thoſe of Rome, and its muſeum is furniſhed with almoſt all that is curious in nature and art. It likewiſe exhibits the fineſt monuments of architecture; particularly in the palace of Caprara; the marble fountain in the Place del Gigante, by Giovanni; and the leaning towers of Aſinelli and Garriſendi. It has 169 churches, (in one of which is Caſſini's meridian line, 180 feet long,) and a vaſt number of palaces: the private houſes are alſo well built. All the gates and windows are open during the ſummer. The gardens are planted with vaſt numbers of orange trees that perfume the air. It is a place of great trade, which is in ſome meaſure owing to a canal that runs from this city to the river Po. The Reno, which runs near Bologna, turns 400 mills that are employed in the ſilk-works; the natives deal in wax, ſoap, hams, ſauſages, and lap-dogs, which are greatly eſteemed. Bologna is ſeated at the foot of the Apennine mountains, 22 m. S. E. of Modena, and 175 N. W. of Rome. Lon. 11. 26. E. Lat. 44. 30. N.

(2.) BOLOGNA, or the BOLOGNESE, one of the

[illegible] States, now forming, along [illegible] Modena and Reggio, the new re[illegible] which was conſtituted by a [illegible] at Modena in October 1796; and [illegible] unanimouſly, by delegates [illegible] at another Congreſs held at [illegible] Dec. following. The plan [illegible] is indiviſible unity. The pope, [illegible] with the French, in Feb. 1797, has [illegible] upon theſe States. For far[illegible] reſpecting this new republic, ſee [illegible]. Bologna contains about 308,000 [illegible] and is bounded on the N. by Fer[illegible] W. by Modena, on the S. by the [illegible] Tuſcany, and on the E. by Romania. It [illegible] by a great number of ſmall rivers, which [illegible] to the moſt fertile of any in Italy.— [illegible] the capital, from the great produce of the [illegible] about it, is called *Bologna the fat*. It pro[illegible] all ſorts of grain and fruits; particularly [illegible] white grapes, which are in high eſteem. It [illegible] mines of alum and iron; and the inhabitants [illegible] large quantities of linen, ſilk ſtockings, and cloth.

BOULOGNE, or BOULOGNE, a city of France in the department of the Straits of Dover, and ci-devant province of Picardy, ſeated near the ſea. It is divided into two towns, the Upper and Lower: the firſt is ſtrongly fortified, the other is incloſed by walls only. The port is at the mouth of the river Liane, but the water is ſo ſhallow that no ſhips of burden can enter it. It is 14 m. S. by W. of Calais and 130 N. of Paris. Lon. 1. 42. E. Lat. 50. 44. N.

(1.) BOLOGNESE. See BOLOGNA, N. 2.

(2.) BOLOGNESE, the citizens of Bologna.

BOLOGNIAN, or BONONIAN STONE, a phoſphoric ſubſtance firſt diſcovered near Bologna in Italy, whence its name. It was ſuppoſed to contain ſome metallic matter, from its great ſpecific gravity; but is now found to be only a compound of ponderous earth and vitriolic acid. It differs from the artificial baroſelenite in the proportion of its ingredients, the latter containing 33 parts of vitriolic acid and 67 of earth; the former 84 of earth, 13 of the moſt concentrated vitriolic acid, and 3 of water. Mr Scheffer, in the Memoirs of the Academy at Stockholm, for 1753, has communicated ſome experiments on a ſtone of this kind from China, which prove, that it perfectly agrees with the deſcriptions given in ſeveral books, of a ſtone called PETUNTSE by the Chineſe, and which is ſaid to be uſed in their porcelain manufactures.

BOLOGNOIS, } or BOULOGNOIS, a ci-devant
BOLONNOIS, } territory of France, in the N. part of Picardy, now included in the department of Somme.

BOLSANE, a town of Germany, in the territory of Tyrol, and circle of Auſtria. It is very agreeably ſituated in the midſt of a fine large valley, full of villages, and abounding in vineyards. The wines in this valley are the beſt in all Tyrol; but they muſt be drank the year after that of their growth, otherwiſe they become unfit for uſe. Lon. 11. 11. E. Lat. 46. 42. N.

BOLSCOT, a village in Oxfordſhire, near Chadlington.

BOLSEC, Jerome, a Carmelite Friar of Paris, who, having preached ſomewhat freely, forſook his order and fled to Ferrara, the then common ſanctuary of the perſecuted for the new opinions. He turned phyſician and married; but having given ſome offence in Ferrara, fled to Geneva and commenced lecturer on divinity. Calvin at firſt befriended him, but Bolſec preaching againſt predeſtination, Calvin tried every method and urged every argument to reclaim him, but in vain. The ſenate of Geneva then interfered, and baniſhed Bolſec, as did alſo the magiſtrates of Bern. He then returned to France and applied to the proteſtants of Paris and Orleans; but perſecution ariſing againſt the new doctrines, he returned to the Catholics, and to ingratiate himſelf the more with them, exerted a moſt violent zeal againſt the reformers, particularly Calvin and Beza; whoſe lives he wrote, ſtuffed with the moſt malicious falſehoods. To complete his career of wickedneſs, he proſtituted his own wife to the Canons of Autun. He died about 1584.

(1.) BOLSENNA, a lake of Italy, in the pope's territories, near the town (N. 2.) 45 m. N. of Rome.

(2.) BOLSENNA, a town of Italy, ſeated on the lake, (N. 1.) Lon. 12. 13. E. Lat. 42. 38. N.

BOLSLAW. See BOLISLAW.

BOLSOVER, a large well built town of Derbyſhire, noted for its manufacture of tobacco pipes.

(1.) * BOLSTER. *n. ſ.* [*bolſtre*, Sax. *bolſter*, Dutch.] 1. Something laid on the bed, to raiſe and ſupport the head; commonly a bag filled with down or feathers.—

Perhaps ſome cold bank is her *bolſter* now,
Or 'gainſt the rugged bark of ſome broad elm
Leans her unpillow'd head. *Milton.*

This arm ſhall be a *bolſter* for thy head;
I'll fetch clean ſtraw to make a ſoldier's bed. *Gay.*

2. A pad, or quilt, to hinder any preſſure, or fill up any vacuity.—

Up goes her hand, and off ſhe ſlips
The *bolſters* that ſupply her hips. *Swift.*

3. A pad, or compreſs, to be laid on a wound.—The bandage is the girt, which has a *bolſter* in the middle, and the ends tacked firmly together. *Wiſeman.* 4. [In horſemanſhip.] The *bolſters* of a ſaddle are thoſe parts raiſed upon the bows, to hold the riders thigh. *Farrier's Dict.*

(2.) BOLSTER, among ſurgeons, a ſoft yielding ſubſtance, either laid under the head or a broken limb. In this ſenſe, bolſters are contrived for crooked, bunched, and otherwiſe diſtorted backs, ſhoulders, &c.

(3.) BOLSTERS, LAW RESPECTING. By a conſtitution made under Abp. Burchier, the clergy are forbidden to wear bolſters about their ſhoulders, in their gowns, coats, or doublets. The occaſion of the prohibition is variouſly conſtrued. Some ſay that bolſters came in faſhion in the reign of King Richard III. who being neceſſitated, by his natural deformity, to pad, the courtiers, and even the clergy, did the ſame, out of complaiſance to their prince, ſo that every body who had the misfortune to be born ſtraight, was obliged to wear a bolſter on his ſhoulders to be in the faſhion. Others, however, alledge that the law was made 20 years before the uſurpation of Richard.

* *To* BOLSTER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To support the head with a bolſter. 2. To afford a bed to.—

Mortal eyes do ſee them *bolſter*.
More than their own. *Shakeſpeare's Othello.*

3. To bind wounds together with a compreſs.—The practice of *bolſtering* the cheeks forward, does little ſervice to the wound, and is very uneaſy to the patient. *Sharp.* 4. To ſupport; to hold up; to maintain. This is now an expreſſion ſomewhat dark and obſolete.—We may be made wiſer by the publick perſuaſions grafted in men's minds, if they be uſed to further the truth, not to *bolſter* error. *Hooker.*—The lawyer ſets his tongue to ſale for the *bolſtering* out of unjuſt cauſes. *Hakewill.*—It was the way of many to *bolſter* up their own, doating conſciences with confidences. *Id.*

BOLSTER-CLOTH. See BOLTING-CLOTH.

BOLSTON-BOROUGH, a town near Wells, Shepton-Mallet, and Glaſtonbury.

BOLSUERD. See BOLSWERT, N. 1 and 2.

BOLSWAERT, a town of the United Netherlands, in Weſt Frieſland, 13 miles S. W of Leuwarden, and 8 miles N. of Slooten. Lon. 5. 20. E. Lat. 53. 2. N.

(I.) BOLSWERT, or BOLSUERD, Boetius Adam, an engraver at Antwerp, flouriſhed about 1620. He worked with the graver only; and imitated the free open ſtyle of the Bloemarts with great ſucceſs. When he worked from Rubens, he altered that ſtyle; and his plates are neater, fuller of colour, and more highly finiſhed. The two following are mentioned, as capital: 1. The Reſurrection of Lazarus, a large upright plate. 2. The Laſt Supper, its companion.

(2.) BOLSWERT, or BOLSUERD, Schelitius Adam, was the brother of Boetius Adam, (N° 1.) but greatly his ſuperior. He worked entirely with the graver, and never called in the aſſiſtance of the point. His general character is thus drawn by Mariette; "We have a large number of prints, which are held in great eſteem, by this artiſt, from various maſters; but eſpecially from Rubens, whoſe pictures he has copied with all poſſible knowledge, taſte, and great effect. The freedom with which this excellent artiſt handled the graver, the picturesque roughneſs of etching, which he could imitate without any other aſſiſting inſtrument, and the ability he poſſeſſed of diſtinguiſhing the different maſſes of colours, have always been admired by the connoiſſeurs, and give him a place with a number of thoſe celebrated engravers, who are deſirous of rendering their works as uſeful as they are agreeable, and of acquiring a reputation as laſting as it is juſtly merited." He drew excellently, and his prints are the exact tranſcripts of the pictures he engraved from. Some of his engravings are in a bold, free, open ſtyle: as the Brazen Serpent, the Marriage of the Virgin, &c. from Rubens. Others are very neat, and ſweetly finiſhed: as, the Crowning with Thorns, the Crucifixion, &c. from Vandyck. Some of his prints, which bear great reſemblance to the free engravings of Frederic Bloemart, form a part of the plates for a large folio volume, entitled, *Academie de l'eſpee*, by Girard Thibault of Antwerp, where it was publiſhed, A. D. 1628; and to theſe he ſigns his name, "Scheltius," and ſometimes "Schelderic Bolſwert," adding the word Bruxelle. Many of his other prints have been copied ſo carefully as eaſily to deceive the unſkilful. His name indeed is uſually affixed at the bottom, thus, *S. A. Bolſwert*, but it is often cut off, and then the copy is not eaſily diſtinguiſhed. Some of his prints, particularly of a large upright plate of the Crucifixion, from Vandyck, are very rare, and at ſales have been known to fetch from 25 l. to 30 l.

(I.) * BOLT. *n. ſ.* [*boult*, Dutch; βολις.] 1. An arrow; a dart ſhot from a croſsbow.—

Yet mark'd I where the *bolt* of Cupid fell;
It fell upon a little weſtern flower;
Before milk-white, now purple with love's wound. *Shakeſpeare.*

The blunted *bolt* againſt the nymph he dreſt;
But, with the ſharp, transfix'd Apollo's breaſt. *Dryden.*

2. Lightning; a thunderbolt —

Sing'd with the flames, and with the bolts transfix'd,
With native earth your blood the monſters mix'd. *Dryden.*

3. *Bolt upright*; that is, upright as an arrow.—Briſh iron, native or from the mine, conſiſteth of long ſtriæ, about the thickneſs of a ſmall knitting needle, *bolt upright*, like the briſtles of a ſtiff briſh. *Grew.*—As I ſtood *bolt upright* upon one end, one of the ladies burſt out. *Addiſon.* 4. The bar of a door, ſo called from being ſtraight like an arrow; we now ſay, *ſhoot the bolt*, when we ſpeak of faſtening or opening a door.—

'Tis not in thee, to oppoſe the *bolt*
Againſt my coming in. *Shakeſpeare.*

5. An iron to faſten the legs of a priſoner. This is, I think, corrupted from *bought*, or link.—Away with him to priſon; lay *bolts* enough upon him. *Shakeſpeare.*—

(II.) BOLT, in architecture, (§ 1. def. 4.) an iron faſtening fixed to doors and windows. They are generally diſtinguiſhed into three kinds, viz. plate, round, and ſpring bolts.

(III.) BOLT, in commerce, 28 ells of canvas. Alſo a long narrow piece of ſilk of indefinite meaſure.

(IV.) BOLTS, in gunnery, are of ſeveral ſorts; as,

1. BOLTS, BED, the 4 bolts that faſten the brackets of a mortar to the bed.

2. BOLTS, BRACKET, the bolts that go through the cheeks of a mortar, and by the help of quoins keep her fixed at the given elevation.

3. BOLTS, PRISE, the large knobs of iron on the cheeks of a carriage, which keep the handſpike from ſliding, when it is poizing up the breech of a piece.

4. BOLTS, TRANSUM, that go between the cheeks of a gun carriage, to ſtrengthen the tranſums.

5. BOLTS, TRAVERSE, the two ſhort bolts, that, being put one in each end of a mortar carriage, ſerve to traverſe her.

(V.) BOLTS, in ſhip building, are iron pins, of which there are ſeveral ſorts, according to their different makes and uſes: ſuch as,

1. BOLTS, CLENCH, thoſe which are clenched with rivetting hammers.

2. BOLTS, DRIVE, uſed to drive out others.

5. BOLT

3. BOLTS, FEND, or FENDER, made with long and thick heads, and ſtruck into the uttermoſt bends of the ſhip, to ſave her ſides from bruiſes.

4. BOLTS, FORELOCK, have at the end a fore-lock of iron driven in to keep them from ſtarting back.

5. BOLTS, RAY, have jags or barbs on each ſide, to keep them from flying out of their holes.

6. BOLTS, RING, are for bringing to the planks, and thoſe parts to which the breeches and tackle of the guns are faſtened.

7. BOLTS, SET, are uſed for forcing the planks and bringing them cloſe together.

(1.) * *To* BOLT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſhut or faſten with a bolt.—

The *bolted* gates flew open at the blaſt;
The ſtorm ruſh'd in, and Arcite ſtood aghaſt.
Dryden.

2. To blurt out, or throw out precipitantly.—

I hate when vice can *bolt* her arguments,
And virtue has no tongue to check her pride.
Milton.

3. To faſten, as a bolt or pin; to pin; to keep together.—

That I could reach the axel, where the pins are,
Which *bolt* this frame; that I might pull them out. *Ben Jonſon.*

4. To fetter; to ſhackle.—

It is great
To do that thing that ends all other deeds,
Which ſhackles accidents, and *bolts* up change.
Shakeſpeare.

5. To ſift; or ſeparate the parts of any thing with a ſieve. [*bluter*, Fr.]

He now had *boulted* all the flour. *Spenſer.*

—In the *bolting* and ſifting of fourteen years of power and favour, all that came out could not be pure meal. *Wotton.*—

I cannot *bolt* this matter to the bran,
As Bradwardin and holy Auſtin can. *Dryden.*

6. To examine by ſifting; to try out; to lay open.—It would be well *bolted* out, whether great refractions may not be made upon reflections, as upon direct beams. *Bacon.*—The judge, or jury, or parties, or the council, or attornies, propounding queſtions, beats and *bolts* out the truth much better than when the witneſs delivers only a formal ſeries. *Hale.*—Time and nature will *bolt* out the truth of things, through all diſguiſes. *L'Eſtran.*

7. To purify; to purge. This is harſh.—

The fanned ſnow
That's *bolted* by the northern blaſt twice o'er.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) * *To* BOLT. *v. n.* To ſpring out with ſpeed and ſuddenneſs; to ſtart out with the quickneſs of an arrow.—

This Puck ſeems but a dreaming dolt,
Still walking like a ragged colt,
And oft out of a buſh doth *bolt*,
Of purpoſe to deceive us. *Drayton.*

—They erected a fort, and from thence they *bolted* like beaſts of the foreſt, ſometimes into the foreſt, and ſometimes into the woods and faſtneſſes, and ſometimes back to their den. *Bacon.*—As the houſe was all in a flame, out *bolts* a mouſe from the ruins to ſave herſelf. *L'Eſtrange.*—I have ſted on thoſe men who, from time to time, ſhot themſelves into the world. I have ſeen many ſucceſſions of them; ſome *bolting* out upon the ſtage with vaſt applauſe, and others hiſſed off. *Dryden.*—

The birds to foreign ſeats repair'd,
And beaſts, that *bolted* out, and ſaw the foreſt bar'd. *Dryden.*

BOLT-AUGER, *n. ſ.* a large bower uſed in ſhip-building.

BOLT-BOAT, *n. ſ.* a ſtrong boat, that will endure a rough ſea.

BOLTBY, a village in Yorkſhire, near Northallerton.

BOLT-DRAWER, an inſtrument for drawing bolts out of the old planks of ſhips. Its form, and the manner of uſing it, may be eaſily conceived from inſpecting *Fig.* 7. *Plate* XXXIX.

BOLTED FLOUR, that which has paſſed through the bolters. See BOLTER, § 2.

BOLTEL, in building, any prominence or jutting out, as of a piece of timber, end of a beam, or the like, advancing beyond the naked of the wall.

(1.) * BOLTER. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A ſieve to ſeparate meal from bran or huſks; or to ſeparate finer from coarſer parts.—Dowlas, filthy dowlas: I have given them away to bakers wives, and they have made *bolters* of them. *Shakeſpeare.*—With a good ſtrong chopping-knife mince the two capons bones and all, as ſmall as ordinary minced meat; put them into a large neat *bolter*. *Bacon's Nat. Hiſt.*

When ſuperciliouſly he ſifts
Through coarſeſt *bolter* other gifts. *Hudibras.*

2. A kind of net.—Theſe hakes, and divers others of the fore-cited, are taken with threads, and ſome of them with the *bolter*, which is a ſpiller or a bigger ſize. *Carew.*

(2.) BOLTERS, or BOULTERS, have their bottoms made of woollen, hair, or wire. The bakers uſe bolters which are worked by the hand; millers have a larger ſort, wrought by the mill.

* BOLTHEAD. *n. ſ.* A long ſtrait-necked glaſs veſſel, for chymical diſtillations, called alſo a *matraſs*, or *receiver*.—This ſpirit abounds in ſalt which may be ſeparated by putting the liquor into a *bolthead* with a long narrow neck. *Boyle.*

(1.) BOLTING, a term of art uſed in our inns of court, for a private arguing of caſes. The manner at Gray's inn is this: An ancient and two barriſters ſit as judges; three ſtudents bring each a caſe, out of which the judges chooſe one to be argued; which done, the ſtudents firſt argue it, and after them the barriſters. It is inferior to *mooting*; and may be derived from the Saxon word *bolt*, a houſe, becauſe done privately in the houſe for inſtruction. In Lincoln's inn, Monday and Wedneſdays are the bolting days in vacation time; and Tueſdays and Thurſdays the moot days.

(2.) BOLTING, or BOULTING, among millers, the act of ſeparating the flour from the bran, by means of a ſieve or bolter. See BOLTER, § 2.

(3.) BOLTING, or BOULTING, among ſportſmen, ſignifies diſlodging a coney.

BOLTING-CLOTH, BOLSTER-CLOTH, or BOULTING-CLOTH, a linen or hair cloth for ſifting meal or flour.

* BOLTING-HOUSE. *n. ſ.* [from *bolt* and *houſe*.] The place where meal is ſifted.—The jade is all turned as white, and as powdered, as if ſhe had been at work in a *bolting-houſe*. *Dennis.*

BOLTING-HUTCH, or BUNTING-HUTCH, a cheſt for ſifting meal in. *Bailey.*

BOLTING-MILL, a verſatile engine for ſifting with more eaſe and expedition. The cloth round this is called the BOLTER.

(1.) BOLTON, a pariſh of Scotland, in Haddingtonſhire, extending near 6 miles in length, from N.E. to S. W. and about a mile and a quarter, at a medium, in breadth. It contains about 1,300 acres, of which about 170 were planted; 150 ſown with wheat; 120 with barley; 230 with oats; 100 with clover; and 130 with peaſe and beans, in 1791, according to the rev. Mr Hamilton's report to Sir J. Sinclair. The population, at that period, was 235, which was 124 leſs than it was in 1755. The number of horſes was 83; of cows, 180; and of ſheep, 120. Thirlages and ſucculs are not yet aboliſhed.

(2.) BOLTON, a town of Lancaſhire, in England, ſeated on the river Croell, and pretty well built. It is noted for its medicinal waters, and ſtill more for its manufactures of muſlins, dimities, counterpanes, and fuſtians. It has fairs June 29, July 16, and Auguſt 20; with a market on Monday for cloth and proviſions. It lies 11 miles N. W. of Manchester, and 193 N. N. W. from London. Lon. 2. 15. W. Lat. 53. 55. N.

(3.) BOLTON, a village of Scotland, in the above pariſh, N° 1.

(4.) BOLTON, a village in Cumberland, near Ireby.

(5, 6.) BOLTON is alſo the name of two villages in Lancaſhire, viz. 1. between Bury and Wigan: and, 2. N. of Lancaſter, 237 miles from London.

(7—15.) BOLTON is likewiſe the name of 9 villages in Yorkſhire; viz. 1. in the E. Riding, N. W. of Pocklington, near a river that runs into the Derwent: It has a fair, 28 June: 2. EAST, 3. MIDDLE, and 4. WEST, BOLTONS, in the N. Riding, near Middleham and Wenſlaw-Dale: 5. in the W. Riding, W. of Bernard Caſtle: 6. S. W. of Giſborn: 7. E. of Richmond: 8. N. of Rotherham, and 7 miles W. of Doncaſter: and, 9. N. E. of Skipton.

(16.) BOLTON IN THE SANDS, lies in Weſtmoreland, near Kendal.

(17.) BOLTON, or BOULTON, Edmund, an ingenious Engliſh antiquarian, who lived in the beginning of the 17th century. His principal work is his *Nero Cæſar*, or *Monarchie depraved*, dedicated to the Duke of Buckingham, and printed at London in 1624, folio, and adorned with ſeveral curious prints of valuable medals. It is divided into 12 chapters, in ſome of which are introduced curious remarks and obſervations. In the 24th and 25th chapters he gives an account of the revolt of Britain, againſt the Romans, under the conduct of Boadicea, which he introduces with a recapitulation of the affairs in Britain from the firſt entrance of the Romans, under Julius Cæſar, to the revolt in the reign of Nero. In chapter 26, he treats of the Eaſt India trade in Nero's time, which was then carried on by the river Nile, firſt from thence by caravans over land to the Red Sea, and thence to the Indian ocean; the ready money carried yearly from Rome upon this account amounting, according to Pliny's compilation, to above 300,000 l. ſterling; and the uſual returns in December and January yielding in clear gain a hundred for one. Beſides this he wrote, 1. An Engliſh tranſlation of Lucius Florus's Roman hiſtory. 2. Hypercritica, or a rule of judgment for reading or writing our hiſtories. 3. The elements of armories, &c. and ſome other works.

(18.) BOLTON, Robert, D. D. was born in Northamptonſhire, about 1690, and educated at Oxford, where he took his degrees. In 1720, he became acquainted with Mr Pope, and in 1724, with the celebrated Mr Whiſton, through whoſe recommendation, partly, he became chaplain to Sir Joſ. Jekyll, who introduced him to Lord Hardwicke, by whoſe patronage, in 1735, he was made Dean of Carliſle, and, in 1738, vicar of St Mary's, Reading. He was a good preacher, charitable to the poor, and beloved by his pariſhioners. Though well qualified for an author, he was advanced in life before he publiſhed any thing; his 1ſt work being, A Letter to a Lady on Card-playing on the Lord's Day; 8vo. 1748. 2. The Employment of time; 8vo. 1750: dedicated to Lord Hardwicke. 3. The Deity's Delay in puniſhing the Guilty, conſidered on the principles of reaſon; 8vo. 1751. 4. A treatiſe on Lewdneſs; 8vo. 1755. 5. A letter on travelling on Sundays; 8vo. 1757. 6. The Ghoſt of Erneſt, great grandfather to the Princeſs Dowager of Wales: with ſome account of his life; 8vo. 7. Letters and Tracts on the Choice of Company, &c. He died at London, Nov. 26, 1763.

BOLTON-PERCY, a village in Yorkſhire, near Nun-Appleton.

(1.) * BOLT-ROPE. *n. ſ.* [from *bolt* and *rope.*] The rope on which the ſail of a ſhip is ſewed and faſtened. *Sea Dict.*

(2.) BOLT-ROPE, in naval affairs, a rope paſſing round the ſail, to which the edges of it are ſewed, to prevent the ſail from tearing: the bottom part of it is called the *foot-rope*; the ſides, *leeches*; and if the ſail be oblong or ſquare, the upper part is called the *head-rope.*

* BOLTSPRIT. BOWSPRIT. *n. ſ.* A maſt running out at the head of a ſhip, not ſtanding upright, but aſlope. The but end of it is generally ſet againſt the foot of the foremaſt; ſo that they are a ſtay to one another. The length without board is ſufficient to let its ſails hang clear of all incumbrances. If the *boltſprit* fail in bad weather, the foremaſt cannot hold long after. *Bowſprit* is perhaps the right ſpelling. *Sea Dictionary.*—

Sometimes I'd divide,
And burn in many places; on the topmaſt,
The yards, and *boltſprit*, would I flame diſtinctly. *Shakeſpeare.*

BOLUC BASSI, the chief of a company among the Turks, or a captain over 100 Janizaries.

* BOLUS. *n. ſ.* [βολος.] A form of medicine, in which the ingredients are made up into a ſoft maſs, larger than pills, to be ſwallowed at once. —Keep their bodies ſoluble the while by clyſters, lenitive *boluſes* of caſſia and manna, with ſyrup of violets. *Wiſeman.*—

By poets we are well aſſur'd,
That love, alas! can ne'er be cur'd;
A complicated heap of ills,
Deſpiſing *boluſes* and pills. *Swift.*

BOLZANO,

BOLZANO, a town of Auſtria, in Tyrol.

BOLZAS, in commerce, a kind of ticking brought from the Eaſt Indies.

BOM, in zoology, the name of an American ſerpent, remarkable for its noiſe, which is like the ſound of the word uſed as its name. It grows to a vaſt ſize, but is perfectly harmleſs.

* BOMAL, a town of France, in the ci-devant province of Luxemburg, now included in one of the new departments lately added to the republic; ſituated on the Ourt. Lon. 5. 30. E. Lat. 50. 20. N.

BOMARIN, in zoology, a name uſed by ſome for the HIPPOPOTAMUS, or river-horſe.

(1.) * BOMB. *n. ſ.* [*bombus*, Lat.] 1. A loud noiſe.—An upper chamber being thought weak, was ſupported by a pillar of iron, of the bigneſs of one's arm in the midſt; which, if you had ſtruck, would make a little flat noiſe in the room, but a great *bomb* in the chamber beneath. *Bacon.* 2. A hollow iron ball, or ſhell, filled with gunpowder, and furniſhed with a vent for a fuſee, or wooden tube, filled with combuſtible matter, to be thrown out from a mortar; which has its name from the noiſe it makes. The fuſee, being ſet on fire, burns ſlowly till it reach the gunpowder, which goes off at once, burſting the ſhell to pieces with incredible violence; whence the uſe of *bombs* in beſieging towns. The largeſt are about 18 inches in diameter. By whom they were invented is not known, and the time is uncertain, ſome fixing it to 1588, and others to 1495. *Chambers.*—

The loud cannon miſſive iron pours,
And in the ſlaught'ring *bomb* Gradivus roars.
Rowe.

(2.) BOMBS, METHODS OF USING. The ſhell being filled with gunpowder, the fuſee is driven into the vent or aperture, within an inch of the head, and faſtened with a cement made of quick lime, aſhes, brick-duſt, and ſteel filings, worked together in a glutinous water; or of four parts of pitch, two of colophony, one of turpentine, and one of wax. This tube is filled with a combuſtible matter, made of two ounces of nitre, one of ſulphur, and 3 of gunpowder-duſt, well rammed. To preſerve the fuſee, they pitch it over, but uncaſe it, when they put it into the mortar, and cover it with gunpowder-duſt; which, having taken fire by the flaſh of the powder in the chamber of the mortar, burns all the time the bomb is in the air; and the compoſition in the fuſee being ſpent, it fires the powder in the bomb, which burſts with great force, blowing up whatever is about it. The great height a bomb goes in the air, and the force with which it falls, makes it go deep into the earth. Bombs may be uſed without mortar-pieces, as was done by the Venetians at Candia, when the Turks had poſſeſſed themſelves of the ditch, rolling down bombs upon them along a plank ſet ſloping towards their works, with ledges on the ſides, to keep the bomb right forward. They are ſometimes alſo buried under ground to blow up. See CAISSON. Bombs were not commonly uſed before 1634, and then only in the Dutch and Spaniſh armies. One Malthus, an Engliſh engineer, is ſaid to have carried them firſt into France, where they were uſed at the ſiege of Collioure. The French have lately invented a new ſort of bombs of vaſt weight, called COMMINGES.—The art of throwing bombs makes a branch of gunnery, founded on the theory of projectiles, and the qualities of gunpowder. See GUNNERY, PROJECTILES, GUNPOWDER, &c.

* *To* BOMB. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fall upon with bombs; to bombard.—

Our king thus trembles at Namur,
Whilſt Villeroy, who ne'er afraid is,
To Bruxelles marches on ſecure,
To *bomb* the monks, and ſcare the ladies.
Prior.

(1.) * BOMBARD. *n. ſ.* [*bombardus*, Latin.] 1 A great gun; a cannon: it is a word now obſolete —They planted in divers places 12 great *bombards* wherewith they threw huge ſtones into the air which falling down upon the city, might breal down the houſes. *Knolles.* 2. A barrel. Obſolete

(2.) *A* BOMBARD was a piece of ordnance an ciently in uſe, exceeding ſhort and thick, and witl a very large mouth. There have been bombard which have thrown a ball of 300 pound weight Cranes were uſed to load them. The bombard i by ſome called *baſiliſk*, and by the Dutch *donder baſs*.

* *To* BOMBARD. *v. a.* [from the noun.] T attack with bombs.—A medal is ſtruck on th Engliſh failing in their attempts on Dunkirk, whe they endeavoured to blow up a fort, and to *bom bard* the town. *Addiſon.*

BOMBARDE, or BOMHARDE, a pariſh in S Domingo, with a fort, which was taken from th French on the 18th June 1796, by Major Gener Gordon Forbes.

(1.) * BOMBARDIER. *n. ſ.* [from *bombard* The engineer whoſe employment is to ſhoo bombs.—The *bombardier* toſſes his ball ſometim into the midſt of a city, with a deſign to fill all round him with terror and combuſtion. *Tatler.*

(2.) *A* BOMBARDIER has to drive the fuſee, f the ſhell, and load and fire the mortar.

(3.) BOMBARDIER, in entomology. See CA BUS.

* BOMBARDMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *bombard* An attack made upon any city, by throwing bom into it.—Genoa is not yet ſecure from *bombar ment*, though it is not ſo expoſed as formerly. *A diſon.*

BOMBARDO, a muſical inſtrument of t wind kind, much the ſame as the baſſoon, and uſ as a baſs to the hautboy.

(1.) * BOMBASIN. *n. ſ.* [*bombaſin*, Fr. fro *bombycinus*, ſilken, Lat.] A ſlight ſilken ſtuff, mourning.

(2.) BOMBASINE is alſo applied to ſtuffs croſ of cotton.

BOMBASIUS, Paul, a native of Bologna, ga ed eſteem by the profeſſion of philology about t beginning of the 16th century. He taught La and Greek at Naples, and was profeſſor of Gr at Bologna. His abilities induced Cardinal Pu to make him his ſecretary, with a good ſala He lived very eaſy at Rome with the cardi till that city was plundered under Clement V when he was killed, while endeavouring to into the caſtle of St Angelo. He was an intim friend and correſpondent of Eraſmus, who preſerved ſome of his letters, and gives him a g character.

(1.) * BO

(1.) * BOMBAST. *adj.* [from the ſubſtantive.] High ſounding; of big ſound without meaning.—

He, as loving his own pride and purpoſe,
Evades them with a *bombaſt* circumſtance,
Horribly ſtuff'd with epithets of war. *Shakeſp.*

(2.) * BOMBAST. *n. ſ.* [A ſtuff of ſoft looſe texture uſed formerly to ſwell the garment, and thence uſed to ſignify bulk or ſhew without ſolidity.] Fuſtian; big words, without meaning.—

Not pedants motley tongue, ſoldiers *bombaſt*,
Mountebanks drug-tongue, nor the terms of law,
Are ſtrong enough preparatives to draw
Me to hear this. *Donne.*

—Are all the flights of heroick poetry to be concluded *bombaſt*, unnatural, and mere madneſs, becauſe they are not affected with their excellencies? *Dryden.*

(3.) BOMBAST, in compoſition, is a ſerious endeavour, by ſtrained deſcription, to raiſe a low or familiar ſubject beyond its rank; which, inſtead of being ſublime, never fails to be ridiculous. The mind in ſome animating paſſions is indeed apt to magnify its objects beyond natural bounds: but ſuch hyperbolical deſcriptions has its limits; and, when carried beyond theſe, it degenerates into burleſque, as in the following examples:

"He roar'd ſo loud and look'd ſo wond'rous grim,
"His very ſhadow durſt not follow him."

Ben Jonſon, in his Sejanus, (Act 5.) makes that proud miniſter ſay,

——"Great and high,
The world knows only two, that's Rome and I.
My roof receives me not; 'tis air I tread,
And at each ſtep I feel my advanc'd head
Knock out a ſtar in heaven."

A writer who has no natural elevation of genius is extremely apt to deviate into bombaſt. He ſtrains above his genius, and the violent effort he makes, carries him generally beyond the bound of propriety. But even the beſt poets ſometimes deviate into bombaſt, or ſink into bathos, when they go beyond nature, in aiming at the ſublime. See SUBLIME.

BOMBASTIC, *adj.* ſwelling; high-flown; that which has more ſound than ſenſe.

BOMBASTRY, *n. ſ.* Bombaſt.

(1. 1.) BOMBAX, in botany, the SILK-COTTON TREE: A genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monodelphia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 37th order. *Columniferæ*. The calix is quinquifid: the ſtamina are 5 or many; the capſule is ligneus, quinquelocular, and quinquevalved: the ſeeds are woolly, and the receptacle pentagonous. The ſpecies are,

1. BOMBAX CEIBA, with a prickly ſtalk. See No. 3.

2. BOMBAX HEPTAPHYLLUM, with leaves cut into 7 parts. The cotton is of a fine purple colour, but the ſize of the tree is not particularly mentioned by botanical writers.

3. BOMBAX PENTANDRUM, with a ſmooth ſtalk. This and the CEIBA, (No. 1.) grow naturally in both the Indies, where they arrive at a great magnitude, being ſome of the largeſt trees in theſe parts. Boſman ſays, he has ſeen in Guinea, trees of this kind ſo widely diffuſed, that 20,000 armed men might ſtand under the branches of one. They generally grow with ſtraight ſtems. Thoſe of the ceiba are armed with ſhort ſtrong ſpines; but the pentandrum has very ſmooth ſtems, which in the young plant are of a bright green; but after a few years they are covered with a grey or aſh-coloured bark, which turns brown as they grow older. The branches towards the top are garniſhed with leaves compoſed of 5, 7, or 9, oblong ſmooth little leaves, ſpear-ſhaped, and joined to one common centre at their baſe, where they adhere to the long footſtalk. The flower buds appear at the end of the branches; and ſoon after the flowers expand, which are compoſed of 5 oblong purple petals, with a great number of ſtamina in the centre; when theſe fall off, they are ſucceeded by oval fruit as large as a ſwan's egg, having a thick ligneous cover, which, when ripe, opens in 5 parts, and is full of a dark ſhort cotton, incloſing many roundiſh ſeeds as large as ſmall peas.

4. BOMBAX.—Beſides the ſpecies above deſcribed, Mr Miller mentions another which he ſaw in the gardens of the late duke of Richmond at Goodwood, and was raiſed from ſeeds which came from the Eaſt Indies. The ſtem was very ſtraight and ſmooth, the leaves were produced round the top upon very long footſtalks, each being compoſed of 7 or 9 narrow ſilky ſmall lobes, joined at their baſe to the footſtalk in the ſame manner as the firſt and ſecond; but they were much longer and reflected backward, ſo that at firſt view it appeared very different from either of them.

(2.) BOMBAX, CULTURE OF THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Theſe plants, being natives of warm climates, muſt alway be kept in a ſtove. They are raiſed from ſeeds procured in the capſules from the places where they grow naturally. Theſe are to be ſown in ſpring, in pots of light earth, plunged in a ſubſtantial hot-bed of dung or tan, where the plants will appear in 3 or 4 weeks. They muſt then be placed ſeparately in ſmall pots, plunging them in the bark-bed, giving them ſhade and water, and ſhifting them occaſionally into larger pots with freſh earth. They muſt be watered plentifully in ſummer, but moderately in winter.

(3.) BOMBAX, USES OF THE VARIOUS SPECIES OF. The dark ſhort cotton of the 1ſt and 3d ſpecies is uſed by the poorer inhabitants of thoſe places where ſuch trees grow, to ſtuff pillows or chairs, but is generally deemed unwholeſome to lie upon. The beautiful purple down of the heptaphyllum is ſpun, wrought into clothes, and wore, without being dyed any other colour, by the inhabitants of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, where the tree naturally grows. Large pirogues, or canoes fit to carry a ſail, are made both at Senegal, and in America, of the trunk of the ſilk-cotton tree, the wood of which is very light, and unfit for any other purpoſe. In Columbus's firſt voyage, it was reported that a canoe was ſeen at Cuba made of the hollowed trunk of one of theſe trees,

trees, which was 95 palms long, of a proportional width, and capable of containing 150 men.

(II.) BOMBAX is alſo uſed ſometimes for ſilk or cotton; but the true botanic name of cotton is GOSSYPIUM.

(III.) BOMBAX, in entomology, is applied by Linnæus to ſuch inſects as have incumbent wings, and feelers reſembling a comb.

(IV.) BOMBAX, in zoology, a ſynonime of a ſpecies of CONUS.

(I. 1.) BOMBAY, an iſland of Indoſtan, on the W. coaſt of Decan, 7 miles in length and 20 in circumference. It has its name from the Portugueſe *Buon-babia*, on account of the excellent bay formed by it together with the winding of other iſlands adjacent. The harbour is ſpacious enough to contain any number of ſhips, and has likewiſe excellent anchoring ground, affording alſo, by its land locked ſituation, a ſhelter from any winds to which the mouth may be expoſed. It is 150 miles S. of Surat, and 40 N. W of Rajapour. Lon. 72. 38. E. Lat. 18. 58. N.

(2.) BOMBAY, ADVANTAGES OF. Bombay is the moſt conſiderable Engliſh ſettlement on the Malabar coaſt; and by reaſon of its ſituation, may be ſtyled the grand ſtorehouſe of all the Arabian and Perſian commerce. It is alſo the moſt convenient place in all the Eaſt Indies for careening or heaving down large ſhips; and for ſmall ones they have a very good dock. They have alſo a very good rope yard; and indeed, ſays Mr Ives, "this is the only place, in this diſtant part of the world, for ſhattered ſhips to refit at, having always a good quantity of naval ſtores, and its very name conveying an idea of a ſafe retreat in foul weather."

(3.) BOMBAY, CLIMATE OF. This iſland was formerly reckoned exceedingly unhealthy, inſomuch that it had the name of the burying ground of the Engliſh, though it is now ſo far improved in this reſpect, as to be no worſe than any other place in the Eaſt Indies, under the ſame parallel of latitude. The reaſons of this unhealthineſs and the ſubſequent improvements are enumerated by Mr Groſe. 1. The nature of the climate, and the precautions required by it, being leſs underſtood than they are at preſent. 2. Formerly there obtained a very pernicious practice of employing a ſmall fry of fiſh as manure for the cocoa trees which grow in plenty on the iſland; though this has been denied by others, and perhaps with juſtice, as the putrid effluvia of animal bodies ſeems to be very effectually abſorbed by the earth, (See HUSBANDRY.) when buried in it. All agree, however, that the habitations in the woods or cocoa-nut groves are unwholeſome, by reaſon of the moiſture and want of a free circulation of air. 3. Another cauſe has been aſſigned for the ſuperior healthineſs of this iſland, *viz.* the leſſening of the waters by the banking off a breach of the ſea, though this does not appear ſatisfactory to our author. There is ſtill, ſays he, a great body of ſalt water on the inſide of the breach, the communication of which with the ocean being leſs than before the breach was built, muſt be proportionably more apt to ſtagnate, and to produce noxious vapours. Whatever may be the cauſe however, it is certain, that Bombay no longer deſerves its former character, provided a due degree of temperance be obſerved; without which health cannot be expected in any warm climate. The climate ſeems to be drier than many other parts under the ſame parallel. The rains laſt only 4 months but with ſhort intermiſſions. The ſetting in of the rains is commonly uſhered in by a violent thunder ſtorm, called the ELEPHANTA from its extraordinary violence. The air, however, is then agreeably cooled, and the exceſſive heat, then nearly at its height, much moderated. The rains begin about the end of May, and go off in the beginning of September; after which there never falls any except a ſhort tranſient ſhower, and that but very rarely. A very extraordinary circumſtance is related by Mr Ives concerning this during the rainy ſeaſon, viz. that, ten days after the rains ſet in, every pool and puddle ſwarms with a ſpecies of fiſh about ſix inches long and ſomewhat reſembling a mullet. Such a phenomenon has occaſioned various ſpeculations. Some have imagined that the exhaling power of the ſun is ſo ſtrong in the dry ſeaſons as to be able to raiſe the ſpawn of theſe fiſhes into the atmoſphere, and there ſuſpend and nouriſh it till the rains come on, when it drops down again in the ſtate of living and perfectly formed fiſh. A leſs extravagant ſuppoſition is, that after the ponds become dry, the ſpawn may poſſibly fall into deep fiſſures below the apparent bottom, remaining there during the dry ſeaſon, and being ſupplied with a ſufficient quantity of moiſture to prevent it from corruption. The quantity of rain that falls at Bombay in one ſeaſon has been accurately meaſured by Mr Thomas, Mr Ives's predeceſſor as hoſpital ſurgeon. His apparatus conſiſted of a lead cylinder about 9 inches diameter, and as many deep, marked on the inſide with inches and tenths. To prevent the water from ſplaſhing over, he cut a hole two inches from the bottom, and placed the cylinder in a glazed earthen veſſel; after which a wax cloth was ſecurely tied round it, ſo as to cover the veſſel, and prevent any water from getting in, excepting what paſſed through the cylinder. When more than two inches fell, the hole in the ſide was ſtopped with wax, and the water poured from the veſſel into the cylinder to aſcertain its quantity. It was kept in an open place free from houſes, and meaſured at ſix in the morning, noon, and ſix in the evening. The following table ſhows the total quantity of rain that fell each month from the 25th of May, when it firſt began, (though the ſky looked cloudy ever land from the beginning of the month,) till the 17th Oct. when it ended.

QUANTITY OF RAIN;

	in Inches	*Tenths*
From the 25th to 31ſt May	1	0
In June	44	7
In July	29	9
In Aug.	19	0
In Sept.	11	2
From the 1ſt to 17th October	4	5
Total	110	3

Mr Thomas in this journal makes no mention of the elephanta as the fore-runner of the rainy ſeaſon, though he mentions a ſtorm under that name

of

on the 9th of October. It was an exceſſive hard gale, with violent thunder, lightning, and rain; of which laſt there fell two inches in no more than 4 hours. Neither is the quantity of thunder and lightning at all comparable to what people unacquainted with hot climates might be apt to expect. The only thunder ſtorms mentioned in the journal were on May 31ſt, June 3d, 5th, 12th, 14th; September 7th, October 9th, an elephant; and ſome thunder on the 15th of the ſame month.

(4.) BOMBAY, CURIOSITIES, SNAKES, &c. OF. Among the curioſities of Bombay Mr Ives mentions a large *terapin*, or land tortoiſe, kept at the governor's houſe, the age of which was upwards of 200 years. Frogs, which abound every where through the Eaſt Indies, are very large at Bombay. Our author ſaw one that meaſured 22 inches from the extremities of the fore and hind feet when extended; and he ſuppoſes that its weight would not have been leſs than 4 or 5 lb. On the ſea-ſhore round the iſland are a great variety of beautiful ſhells, particularly the ſort called *wentle-traps* or *wendle-traps*, held in great eſteem among the ladies ſome time ago. Several pounds Sterling are ſaid to have been given by a virtuoſo for one of theſe ſhells when Commodore Ledie's collection of ſhells was ſold by auction. Mr Ives enumerates the following kinds of ſnakes found on this iſland and other parts of the Britiſh empire in the Eaſt Indies. 1. The COBRA DE CAPELLA, which grows from 4 to 8 or 9 feet long. Their bite kills in 15 minutes. 2. The COBRA MANILA is a ſmall bluiſh ſnake, of the ſize of a man's little finger, and about a foot long, frequently ſeen about old walls. A ſpecies of this are found at Bombay kill much ſooner than even the former. 3. The PALMIRA, a very thin beautiful ſnake, of different colours: its head is like that of the common viper, but much thicker than the body. Our author ſaw one that was 4 feet long, and the body not much thicker than a ſwan's quill. 4. The green ſnake is of a very bright green colour, with a ſharp head: towards the tail it is ſmaller than in the middle. The largeſt part of it is no bigger than a tobacco-pipe. 5. The SAND SNAKE is ſmall and ſhort, but not leſs deadly than the others. 6. The COBRA DE AURELIA reſembles an earth-worm, is about ſix inches long, and no bigger than a ſmall crow-quill. It kills by getting into the ear, cauſing madneſs, &c. 7. The MANILA BOMBA is a very beautiful ſnake, of almoſt the ſame ſize throughout the whole length, except at the two ends, where it comes to a point. It is white on the belly, but variegated on the back. It lives in the ſand, and is ſaid to ſting with its tail, which occaſions contractions in the joints.

(5.) BOMBAY, DIVISION, LAND PROPRIETORS, CHURCHES, AND TEMPLES, &c. OF. When the iſland was ceded to the Engliſh by the Portugueſe, it was divided, and ſtill continues to be ſo, into 3 Roman Catholic pariſhes, Bombay, Mahim, and Salvacam. The churches of theſe are governed by prieſts of that religion, and of any nation excepting Portugal, who were expreſsly objected to at the time of ceſſion. The bulk of the land proprietors at that time were Meſtizos and Canarians. The former are a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueſe; the latter purely aborigines of the country converted to the popiſh religion. The other land-owners were Moors, Gentoos, and Perſees; but theſe laſt are of more modern date, having purchaſed eſtates on the iſland. The company has alſo a very conſiderable landed eſtate either by purchaſes, confiſcations for crimes, and ſeizures for debt. The land is laid out in cocoa-nut groves, rice-fields, and onion grounds, which laſt are reckoned of an excellent quality. There is only one Engliſh church at Bombay, a very neat commodious building, ſeated on a ſpacious area, called *the Green*. The pagodas, or temples of the Gentoos, are low mean buildings, having uſually no light but what is admitted by the door; facing which is the principal idol. They imagine that a dark gloomy place inſpires a kind of religious awe and reverence; and are very fond of having theſe pagodas among trees, and near the ſide of a tank or pond, for the ſake of their frequent ablutions. Theſe tanks are often very expenſive; being generally ſquare, and ſurrounded with ſtone ſteps that are very convenient for the bathers.

(6.) BOMBAY, FORTS, WATERS, &c. IN. On this iſland are many little forts and batteries, which carry ſome guns; but the principal fort, which defends the place, has above 100. Mr Groſe finds fault with the ſituation of this laſt fort, which he ſays, not only does not command the harbour ſufficiently, but is itſelf overlooked by an eminence called Dungharee Point. The caſtle itſelf is a regular quadrangle, well built of ſtrong hard ſtone. In one of the baſtions facing Dungharee Point is a large tank, or ciſtern, which contains a great quantity of water conſtantly repleniſhed by the ſtationary rains. There is alſo a well within the fort, but the water is not very good, and liable to be dried up by the heats. The water of Bombay in general indeed is not good, which has been given as a reaſon why the Gentoo merchants were not fond of ſettling upon it; for as they drink no wine nor ſpirituous liquors, they are very nice judges of the taſte and qualities of waters. Next to that of Bombay, the moſt conſiderable fort on the iſland is that of MAHIM. It is ſituated at the oppoſite extremity of the iſland, and commands the paſs of Bandurah, a fort directly oppoſite to it on the coaſt of Salſette. From this iſland Bombay is ſeparated by an arm of the ſea, capable of receiving only ſmall craft. The other forts are capable of making but a ſlight defence. About two miles out of town, towards the middle of the iſland, the ſea had gained ſo far as almoſt to divide it in two, and rendered the roads impaſſable. A great quantity of this water, however, was drained off at a very conſiderable expence, and a cauſeway raiſed which kept it from overflowing again. This cauſeway is above a quarter of a mile in length, and conſiderably broad; "but (ſays Mr Groſe,) there is one groſs fault remarked in it; that, being bending near the middle, the architect has oppoſed to the ſea a re-entering angle inſtead of a ſaliant one." Within the beach, however, there is ſtill a conſiderable body of water, that has a free communication with the ſea, as appears by its ebbing and

flowing; ſo that it is probable the cauſeway itſelf, erected at the expence of at leaſt L. 100,000, may ere long be totally undermined and thrown down.

(7.) BOMBAY, GOVERNMENT OF. } See EAST IN-
(8.) BOMBAY, HISTORY OF. } DIA COMPANY, and INDOSTAN.

(9.) BOMBAY, HOUSES, WALKS, &c. IN. The Green, (§ 5.) extends from the church to the fort, and is pleaſantly laid out in walks planted with trees, round which the houſes of the Engliſh inhabitants are moſtly ſituated. Theſe are generally only ground-floored, with a court yard before and behind, in which are the offices and out-houſes. They are ſubſtantially built of ſtone and lime, and ſmooth plaſtered on the outſide. They are often kept white-waſhed, which, however neat, is in ſome reſpects very diſagreeable, by reaſon of the exceſſive glare it occaſions in reflecting the light of the ſun. Few of them have glaſs windows to any apartment; the laſhes being generally paned with a kind of tranſparent oyſter-ſhells, cut ſquare; which have the ſingular property of tranſmitting ſufficient light, at the ſame time that they exclude the violent glare of the ſun, and have beſides a cool look. The flooring is generally compoſed of a kind of ſtucco, called *chunam*, being a lime made of burnt ſhells, when well tempered, in a peculiar manner known to the natives, is extremely hard and laſting, and takes ſuch a ſmooth poliſh, that one may ſee his own face in it. But where terraces are made of this ſubſtance, unleſs it be duly prepared, which is very expenſive, it is apt to crack by the heat. Some attempts have been made to paint the ſtucco walls in apartments; but theſe have proved abortive through the ignorance of the artiſts, who have not choſen colours capable of reſiſting the alkaline power of the lime. (See COLOUR-MAKING.) In the gardens of Surat this kind of ſtucco is made uſe of inſtead of gravel for the walks. They are a little raiſed above the garden beds, ſo that they muſt be inſtantly dry after the moſt violent rain; though their whiteneſs and poliſh muſt not only produce a diſagreeable reflection in ſunſhine, but be extremely ſlippery to walk on. The houſes of the black merchants are for the moſt part extremely ill built and inconvenient; the windows ſmall, and the apartments ill diſtributed. Some, however, make a better appearance if only one ſtory high; but even the beſt of them have a certain meanneſs in the manner, and clumſineſs in their execution, which renders the architecture contemptible in compariſon of the European. There is one convenience, however, in all the houſes of Bombay, *viz.* ſmall ranges of pillars that ſupport a pent-houſe or ſhed, forming what are called in the Portugueſe language *verandas*, either all round the houſe, or on particular ſides of it, which afford a pleaſing ſhelter from the ſun, and keep the inner apartments cool and refreſhed by the draught of air under them.

(10.) BOMBAY, INHABITANTS OF. The natives of Bombay, though compoſed of almoſt every Aſiatic nation, are ſhorter of ſtature and ſtronger than thoſe of the Coromandel coaſt. A palanquin which requires ſix men to carry it at Madras, Fort St David, is carried by 4 at Bombay. Here are ſome Perſees, who, like their ancient forefathers the Perſians, are followers of Zoroaſter, who is ſaid to have reduced into order the religion of the Perſian magi; the fundamental maxim of which was the worſhipping of one God under the ſymbol of light. They adore the ſun, particulary when riſing, with the moſt profound reverence and veneration; and likewiſe pay a kind of adoration to common fire. See § 13.

(11.) BOMBAY, OXEN OF. In Bombay, as well as in many other places of the Eaſt Indies, oxen are generally uſed inſtead of horſes, not only for drawing carriages but for riding; and, however ridiculous ſuch a practice may ſeem to us, they are not in this reſpect inferior to ordinary horſes, being capable of going at the rate of 7 or 8 miles an hour. They are commonly of a white colour, with large perpendicular horns, and black noſes. The only inconvenience that attends them, is, that, being naturally ſubject to a lax habit of body, they ſometimes incommode the rider with filth thrown upon him by the continual motion of their tails. In other reſpects they are far preferable to Indian horſes, and will trot and gallop as naturally as the horſes of this country. Admiral Watſon, while at Bombay, was allowed a chaiſe drawn by two of theſe oxen by the Eaſt India Company. At the end of every ſtage the driver always put the near bullock in the place of the other; he then put his hand into both their mouths, to take out the froth; without which precaution they would be in danger of ſuffocation.

(12.) BOMBAY, PRODUCTIONS OF. The vegetable productions of Bombay are of no great value. Mr Ives ſays, that its "ſoil is ſo barren as not to produce any one thing worth mentioning;" but afterwards informs us, that its "natural produce is the cocoa-nut tree, from which they extract a liquor, called TODDY. This is ſoft and mild when drunk immediately: but if it ſtands long, it gathers ſtrength, and becomes very intoxicating; whence probably aroſe the term *toddy-bedded*. For each tree a tax of 20s. a-year is paid to the company, which is appropriated towards maintaining the garriſon and ſhips of war." Mr Groſe gives an account ſomewhat different.—"The OARTS or cocoa-nut groves, makes the moſt conſiderable part of the landed property, being planted wherever the ſituation and ſoil is favourable to them. When a number of theſe groves lie contiguous to each other, they form what is called the *woods*, through which there is a due ſpace left for road and path-ways, where one is pleaſantly defended from the ſun at all hours in the day. They are alſo thick ſet with houſes belonging to the reſpective proprietors as well as with the huts of the poorer ſort of people; but are very unwholeſome for the reaſons already given. (§ 2.) As to the cocoa-nut tree itſelf, not all the minute deſcriptions I have met with in many authors ſeem to me to come up to the reality of its wonderful properties and ute. The cultivation of it is extremely eaſy, by means of channels conveying water to the roots, and by the manure already mentioned laid round them. An owner of 200 cocoa-nut trees is ſuppoſed to have a competency to live on. As to the rice fields, they differ in value according to the fineneſs and quantity of rice they produce. The

grow

growth of this grain has a peculiarity not unworthy of notice, viz. that as it loves a watery ſoil, ſo to whatever height the water riſes, wherever it is planted, the growth of the rice keeps meaſure with it, even to that of 12 and 14 feet; the ſummit always appearing above the ſurface of the water. It is alſo remarked, that the eating of new rice affects the eyes. The fact is certain, though the phyſical reaſon of it is unknown. Here and there are interſperſed ſome few BRAB trees, or rather wild palm trees, the word *brab* being derived from *brabo*, which in the Portugueſe ſignifies *wild*. They bear an inſipid kind of fruit, about the bigneſs of a common pear; but the chief profit from them is the toddy, or liquor drawn from them by inciſions at the top, of which the arrack is reckoned better than that produced by the cocoa-nut tree. They are generally near the ſea-ſide, as they delight moſt in a ſandy ſoil. It is on this tree that the *toddy birds*, ſo called from their attachment to it, make their exquiſitely curious neſts, wrought out of the thinneſt reeds and filaments of branches, with an inimitable mechaniſm. The birds themſelves are about the ſize of a partridge, but are of no value either for plumage, ſong, or the table.—This iſland is a ſtrong inſtance of the benefits of a good government, and a numerous population, by not a ſpot of it remaining uncultivated: ſo that, though it is far from producing ſufficient for the conſumption of its inhabitants, and notwithſtanding its many diſadvantages of ſituation and ſoil, it yields incomparably more than the adjacent iſland of Salſette."

13. BOMBAY, SUPERSTITIONS OBSERVED IN. Mr Ives had once an opportunity of obſerving the manner in which the Perſees perform their devotions to fire. A large braſs pan was placed in the middle of the houſe with fire in it; before this fire, or rather on each ſide of it, two men were kneeling at their devotions, pronouncing their prayers with great rapidity. He was afterwards informed, that one of them was a prieſt, at that time on a viſit to another prieſt in a fit of ſickneſs. He was likewiſe informed, that the Perſees have ſuch a veneration for fire, that they never put it out, or even breathe upon it; and he obſerved, that while the two prieſts were at their prayers over the pan of coals, they had a little white bib over their mouths, as he ſuppoſed to prevent their breath from approaching their favourite element. The prayers, however, from the ſimilarity of the ſounds, appeared to him only to be a repetition of the ſame ſet of words. The viſiting prieſt uſed many geſtures with his hands over the fire, and afterwards ſtroked down the face of the ſick prieſt, which Mr Ives conſidered as the final benediction, as the ceremony ended immediately. As the Gentoos bury their dead, one would imagine that the Perſees, who have ſuch a veneration for fire, would be deſirous of having their bodies conſumed by that element; but inſtead of this, they expoſe their dead bodies to be devoured by birds of prey; becauſe, ſay they, a living man is compoſed of all the elements; ſo that it is but reaſonable, after he is dead, that every particular element ſhould receive its own again. On the top of Malabar hill, about two miles from the town of Bombay, there are two round buildings for receiving the dead bodies of the Perſees, which remain there till the bones are clean picked by the birds. This is certainly an abominable cuſtom, and affords ſhocking ſpectacles; however, a guard is always placed at a little diſtance to prevent people from prying too narrowly into theſe matters, or, as Mr Ives ſays, to enſure the vultures of their repaſt without any diſturbance. Mr Groſe ſays, that on his going to look into one of theſe repoſitories, a Perſee adviſed him in a friendly manner to let it alone, as no perſon, who was not a party concerned, would long ſurvive ſuch curioſity. He tells us alſo, that the perſon appointed to look after the dead, carefully obſerves which eye is firſt picked out by the birds, and from thence judge of the ſituation of the ſoul of the deceaſed; a ſtate of happineſs being indicated by the right eye being firſt picked out. Mr Ives obſerves, that by reaſon of the heat of the ſun, much leſs noxious vapour is emitted by theſe bodies than might be expected; the fleſh being ſoon ſhrivelled up, and the bones turning quite black. At the extreme point of Malabar hill there is a rock, on the deſcent to the ſea, flat on the top, in which there is a natural crevice, which communicates with a hollow terminating at an exterior opening to the ſea. This place is uſed by the Gentoos as a purifier from their ſins. This purification is effected by their going in at the opening, and coming through the crevice, though it ſeems too ſmall for people of any corpulence to paſs.

(II.) BOMBAY, the capital of the iſland, (N. I.) is a large city with a ſtrong caſtle. See § 6. When this town began to increaſe conſiderably, it was judged proper to add the ſecurity of a wall round it to the ſtrength of the fort it had before. Even then, however, it was neglected to take in the dangerous poſt of Dungharee, which now evidently commands both the town and fort. There has ſince that time been added, at a great expence, a ditch that encompaſſes the wall, and can be flooded at pleaſure, by letting in the ſea, which terminates the ditch on two ſides, ſo that the town is now entirely ſurrounded with water, and is one of the ſtrongeſt places in India. Lon. 72. 38. E. Lat. 18. 58. N.

BOMB-BATTERY. See BATTERY, § V. N°2, and 16.

(1.) * BOMB-CHEST. *n. ſ.* [from *bomb* and *cheſt*.] A kind of cheſt filled uſually with bombs, and ſometimes only with gunpowder, placed under ground, to tear and blow it up in the air, with thoſe who ſtand on it. *Chambers.*

(2.) BOMB-CHESTS were formerly much uſed to drive enemies from a poſt they had ſeized, or were about to take poſſeſſion of: they were ſet on fire by means of a ſauciſſee faſtened at one end; but they are now much diſuſed.

BOMBERG, Daniel, an eminent printer, born at Antwerp. He was the firſt, who printed Hebrew books at Venice. He began with an edition of the Bible in 4to, in 1511; and afterwards printed many others in folio, 4to, and 8vo. He printed a folio edition in 1517, with the commentaries of the rabbins, dedicated to pope Leo X. and another under the inſpection of Rabbi Jacob Haiim, in 4 vols folio, in 1525. He alſo printed three editions of the Talmud, each of which coſt him

100,000

100,000 crowns. One of these editions was begun in 1520, and consisted of 11 vols folio. He brought the art of printing Hebrew books to such perfection, says Mr Bayle, that the Jews alledge, that since his death the Hebrew printing has continually grown worse.

* BOMBILATION. *n. s.* [from *bombus*, Lat.] Sound; noise; report.—How to abate the vigour, or silence the *bombilation* of guns, a way is said to be by borax and butter, mixt in a due proportion, which will almost take off the report, and also the force of the charge. *Brown's Vulgar Er.*

BOMBINA, in zoology, a species of RANA.

* BOMB-KETCH. BOMB-VESSEL. *n. s* A kind of ship, strongly built, to bear the shock of a mortar, when bombs are to be fired into a town. —Nor could an ordinary fleet, with *bomb-vessels*, hope to succeed against a place that has in its arsenal gallies and men of war. *Addison on Italy.*

BOMBON, a province of S. America in Peru.

(1.) * BOMB-VESSEL. See BOMB-KETCH.

(2.) BOMB-VESSEL. See KETCH.

(1.) BOMBUS, in medicine, denotes a murmuring noise, as of wind breaking out of a narrow into a larger cavity, frequently heard in the thick intestines. The bombus heard in the ears, in acute diseases, is laid down by Hippocrates as a sign of death.

(2.) BOMBUS, in music, an artificial motion with the hands, imitating in cadence and harmony the buzzing of bees. The word is originally Greek, and signifies the buz or noise of bees, gnats, and the like. In this sense, bombus made one of the species of applause used by ancient auditories.

* BOMBYCINOUS. *adj.* [*bombycinus*, Lat.] Silken; made of silk.

BOMBYCINUM, in ancient writers, a species of silk, brought from Assyria and the island of Cos.

BOMBYLIUS, in zoology, the HUMBLE BEE. a genus of insects belonging to the order of diptera. The rostrum is long, bristly and bivalved; the bristles being fixed between the horizontal valves. See *Plate* XLII, *Fig.* 8. Mr Ray reckons 19 species, but Linnæus only 5; viz.

1. BOMBYLIUS ATER, has red wings, but a little blackish at the base; and green feet.

2. BOMBYLIUS CAPENSIS, with the wings spotted with black, an ash-coloured body, and white behind. It is a native of the Cape of Good Hope.

3. BOMBYLIUS MAJOR, with black wings.

4. BOMBYLIUS MEDIUS, with a yellowish body, white behind, and the wings spotted with yellow.

5. BOMBYLIUS MINOR, with unspotted wings. These 3 and the ATER, (N. 1.) are natives of Europe.

BOMBYLOPHAGUS, the humble bee eater, in zoology, the name of a fly of the TIPULA kind, which is larger and stronger than the common kinds; and loving honey, it seizes on the humble bees, and destroys them, in order to get at the bag of honey which they contain. It is of a blackish colour in the body; its head is of a bright red, and the eyes very large and prominent. It is chiefly found in mountainous places.

BOMBYLUS TEREDO, in zoology, a species of humble-bee, which eats its way into wood, and ere makes its nest.

BOMBYSINE, *adj.* made of silk.

(1.) BOMBYX, among ancient naturalists, signifies indifferently either silk or cotton.

(2.) BOMBYX, in ancient music, a kind of instrument, which in Aristotle's time, was made of a reed, and by reason of its length, was difficult to play on: 2. a contrivance of horn for shutting and opening the holes of wind instruments.

(3.) BOMBYX, in zoology, a name given by some authors to a species of winged insect, armed with a sting like those of bees and wasps. It is of the shape of a wasp, but black; it stings very severely, always leaving the sting in the wound. It builds its nest of clay, which it works up to a very hard consistence, and fastens to a stone.

(4.) BOMBYX is also a name given to the silk-worm.

BOMENE, a sea port of Zealand, on the N. shore of the island of Schonen, opposite to that of Goree. Lon. 4. 0. E. Lat. 51. 50. N.

BOMHARDE. See BOMBARDE.

BOMILCAR, the son of Hamilcar a Carthaginian general, who, being suspected of conspiring with Agathocles, was crucified in the midst of Carthage.

BOMMEL, a town of Dutch Guelderland, situated on the N. shore of the river Waal, 4 m. N. E. of Nimeguen. Lon. 4. 0. E. Lat. 52. 6. N.

BOMONICI, [from βωμος, an altar, and νικη, victory; *q. d.* conquerors at the altar,] in Grecian antiquity, young men of Lacedæmon, who contended at the sacrifices of Diana which of them was able to endure the most lashes; being scourged at the altar of the goddess. Plutarch relates that some of them would have endured this discipline the whole day, and even to death itself. Such were the barbarous foundations of Spartan heroism, which some moderns affect to admire; but which, after all, produced no such eminent heroes as Athens, where such barbarous discipline was never practised.

BOMSTON, a village in Dorsetshire, near Bochampton.

(1.) BON, a yearly feast celebrated by the Japanese in honour of the dead.

(2.) BON, in botany, or BAN, a name given by some authors to the tree, the kernel of whose fruit is the coffee. The fruit they call BUNA.

(3.) BON, in geography. See BONN.

(1.) BONA, John, a cardinal, eminent for learning and piety, was born at Mondovi, in Piedmont, in 1609. He was devoted to solitude from his infancy almost. At 15 he joined the friars of St Bernard, at Pignerol, and in 1651, was made general of the order. Cardinal Fabius Chigi, afterwards Pope Alexander VII, was his great friend, and upon his resigning his generalship, gave him some considerable places. Clement IX. made him a cardinal in 1669. Bona corresponded with most of the literati in Europe, and wrote several tracts on devotion, which have been translated into French. He died in 1674, aged 65.

(11. 1.) BONA, in geography, a province of the ancient kingdom of Constantina in Africa.

(2.) BONA, by the Moors called *Balederna*, a sea port of Algiers, formerly rich and populous, and the capital of the province (N. 1.) It is supposed by some to be the ancient Hippo, the seat of St Austin, and a sea port built by the Romans.

The

BIQUADRATIC PARABOLA.

Fig. 1. Dr. PRIESTLEY'S ELECTRICAL BATTERY.

The Discharger.

Fig. 4.

BACK STAFF
Fig. 10.

Fig. 17. BUCCO.
The Bull faced Barbet.

Fig. 18.

Fig. 9.
Buprestis.

BURSERA Gummifera.

BRICKS.

Fig. 11.

Fig. 12.

Fig. 13.

Fig. 15.

Fig. 14.

Fig. 16.

The inhabitants, however, deny it to be the ancient Hippo, which had been ſo often taken, retaken, and deſtroyed by the wars; and ſay that it was ſince rebuilt at the diſtance of 2 or 3 miles from Hippo, out of its ruins, and called *Baleed-el-Ma*, from a ſort of trees of that name that grow in the neighbourhood. It is now a very mean place, poorly built, and thinly inhabited, with ſcarce any traces of its former grandeur, except the ruins of a cathedral, or as others gueſs, of a monaſtery built by St Auſtin about 3 miles from the city. Near theſe ruins is a famed ſpring called by his name, which uſed to be much reſorted to by the French and Italian ſailors, who came to drink of its waters, and pay their devotions to a ſtained ſtatue ſaid alſo to belong to the ſaint, but ſo mutilated that no traces either of face or dreſs remain; and as each viſitor ſtrives to break off ſome ſplinter on account of its ſuppoſed ſanctity, it will probably be ſoon reduced to a ſtate of non-exiſtence. Bona was taken by the pirate Barboroſſa, and joined to Algiers; but as quickly left, and recovered by its old maſters the Tuniſeens, who did not keep it long. Charles V. landed in it when he invaded Algiers. It is commanded by a little fort, in which is a garriſon of about 300 Turks, under the command of an aga, who is alſo the governor of the town. The road for the ſhips is good for nothing before the town, but a little farther weſt is very deep and ſafe. Dr Shaw tells us, that the continual diſcharging of ballaſt into the road, and the neglect of cleanſing the port which came to the very walls, is the cauſe of both becoming ſo unſafe and incommodious; though this might be eaſily remedied ſo as to make the town one of the moſt flouriſhing in Barbary. It is 200 m. E. of Algiers. Lon. 7. 59. E. Lat. 37. 5. N.

(2.) BONA, a promontory on the E. coaſt of Africa, nearly oppoſite to Sicily.

III. BONA DEA, in heathen mythology, the good goddeſs, one of the names of Cybele — Others ſay, ſhe was a Roman lady, the wife of one Faunus, and famous for her chaſtity, and that after her death ſhe was deified. Her ſacrifices were performed only by matrons; and in ſo ſecret a manner, that it was no leſs than death for any man to be preſent at the aſſembly. See CYBELE. Cicero reproaches Clodius with having entered into this temple diſguiſed as a ſinging woman, and having by his preſence polluted the myſteries of the good goddeſs. What kind of myſteries theſe were, we may learn from Juvenal, (Sat. VI. 313.) where he mentions the adventure of Clodius, in terms rather too indelicate to be quoted.

IV. BONA, in law, [from *bonus*, Lat. good,] is variouſly applied; *e. g.*

1. BONA FIDES. When a perſon performs any action, which he believes at the time to be juſt and lawful, he is ſaid to have acted *bona fide*.

2. BONA GRATIA was anciently uſed reſpecting divorces, which were brought about amicably for ſome juſt reaſon, with the conſent of both parties and without any crime on the part of either; as in caſes of old age, diſeaſe, barrenneſs, monaſtic, captivity, or the like.

3. BONA MOBILIA, moveable effects.

4. BONA NOTABILIA, ſuch goods as a perſon dying has in another dioceſe than that wherein he dies, amounting to the value of 5 l. at leaſt; in which caſe the will of the deceaſed muſt be proved, or adminiſtration granted in the court of the archbiſhop of the province, unleſs by compoſition or cuſtom, any dioceſes are authorized to do it, when rated at a greater ſum.

5. BONA PATRIA, an aſſize of countrymen or good neighbours, where 12 or more are choſen out of the country to paſs upon an aſſize, being ſworn judicially in the preſence of the party.

6. BONA PERITURA, periſhable goods. By ſtat. 13. Ed. I. cap. 4. the cargo of a ſhip that has been caſt away ſhall be kept for a year and a day, and reſtored to the rightful owner; but if the goods be ſuch as will not endure ſo long, they are *bona peritura*, which the ſheriff is allowed to ſell, and to account in money for the value.

7. BONA VACANTIA, goods in which no perſon can claim a property, ſuch as royal fiſh, ſhipwrecks, treaſure-trove, waifs and eſtrays. Theſe goods by the law of nature, and by the imperial law, belonged to the firſt occupant or finder; but in the modern conſtitutions of European governments, they are annexed to the ſupreme power by the poſitive laws of the ſtate.

BONAIR, *adj.* [Fr.] courteous; cheerful.

BONAIRE, an iſland of S. America, near the N. coaſt of TerraFirma. It belongs to the Dutch; and abounds in kabritoes and ſalt. It is 15 miles E. of Curaſſow, and 40 N. W. of fort Laguaira. Lon. 67. 22. W. Lat. 12. 36. N.

BONAIS, very high mountains of France, in the department of Mount Blanc, and ci-devant duchy of Savoy, near Laſſoreburg. In ſome ſeaſons they cannot be aſcended without great danger.

BONAMES, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Rhine near the Lahn, where the French, under Gen. Jourdan, had their head quarters, in July 1796.

BONANA, or BANANA. See MUSA.

BONAR, a rivulet in Roſsſhire.

BONARELLI, Gui Ubaldo, an Italian count. He was intruſted with ſeveral important negociations, and was eſteemed an able politician and learned philoſopher. He was the author of a fine Italian paſtoral, intitled, *Filli di Sciro*. He died at Fano, in 1608, aged 45.

* BONA ROBA. *n. ſ.* [Ital. a fine gown.] A ſhewy wanton.—

We knew where the *bona robas* were. *Shake.*

BONASIA, in ornithology, a ſpecies of the TETRAO.

(1.) * BONASUS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A kind of buffalo, or wild bull.

(2.) BONASUS, in zoology, a ſpecies of wild ox, of the ſize of the tame kind, but of a thicker body, and having on its neck a mane like that of a horſe, and horns very ſhort and crooked, ſo as to be of no uſe to him in fighting. When he is purſued, he is able to throw out his dung a great way, and it is then of a hot and corroſive nature, though not ſo at other times; and this is his method of defending himſelf: a thing hardly credible, as Mr Ray juſtly obſerves, if we had not inſtances of other animals, which poſſeſs the like faculty. See GLAMA.

(1

(1.) BONAVENTURA, a ſea port of S. America, on the coaſt of Papayan, in Terra Firma. The climate is very unhealthy. Lon. 75. 18. W. Lat. 3. 20. N.

(2.) BONAVENTURA BAY lies on the above coaſt (N. 1.) next the South Sea.

(1.) BONAVENTURE, a learned cardinal, born in Padua, in 1332. He ſtudied at Paris, and joined the order of St Auguſtine, of which he was made general in 1377. In 1378, Pope Urban VI. made him a cardinal, which engaged him to defend the rights of the church againſt Francis de Carraris of Padua; which ſo enraged that petty deſpot, that he cauſed him to be murdered by an arrow, as he paſſed St Angelo's bridge at Rome, A. D. 1386. He wrote, 1. Commentaries on the Epiſtles of St John and St James: 2. Lives of the Saints: 3. *Speculum Mariæ*: 4. Sermons, &c.

(2.) BONAVENTURE, ST, a celebrated cardinal, originally named *John Fidanza*, and called from his works, the *ſeraphic doctor*. He was born at Bagnarea, in 1221, and became a monk of the order of St Francis, in 1243, a doctor of Paris, in 1255, and general of his order, in 1256. After the death of Clement IV. the cardinals, diſagreeing about the election of a new pope, ſolemnly engaged to elect him who ſhould be named by Bonaventure, even though it ſhould be himſelf; but he choſe Theobald archdeacon of Liege, who was then in the Holy Land, and took the name of *Gregory X.* This pope, in return, in 1272, made him cardinal and biſhop of Alba, and appointed him to aſſiſt at the 2d general council of Lyons, where he died in 1274. His works, which are chiefly on divinity, were printed at Rome in 8 vols. folio. Bellarmine praiſes him highly, and even Luther ſtiles him *vir præſtantiſſimus*, a moſt excellent man. He was canonized by Sixtus IV. in 1482.

BONAUGHT, in the Iriſh cuſtoms, a tax paid to the lord of a manor.

(1.) BONAVISTA, an iſland in the Atlantic ocean, the moſt eaſterly and firſt diſcovered of the Cape de Verd iſlands. It is 20 miles long, and 13 broad; has plenty of goats and cotton, with ſome indigo; and belongs to Portugal. The inhabitants are remarkable for ſlothfulneſs: they have a town and two roads where ſhips come to an anchor. It lies 200 miles W. of the African coaſt. Lon. 23. 6. W. Lat. 16. 5. N.

(2, 3.) BONAVISTA, 1. a ſpacious bay; and, 2. a cape on the E. ſide of Newfoundland.

BONAVITUS. See BENAVIDUS.

BONCASTON, a village in Somerſetſhire, near Bath.

* BONCHRETIEN. *n. ſ.* [French.] A ſpecies of pear, ſo called, probably, from the name of a gardener.

BONCIARIUS, Mark Antony, a diſciple of Muretus, and a good Latin writer, was born in 1555, near Perugia, where he taught languages. Among his ſcholars was his own father, originally a ſhoe-maker, who wiſhing to turn Jeſuit, at 47 years of age, was obliged to acquire ſome learning from his ſon. Bonciarius was afflicted with the gout, and at laſt loſt his ſight. He died in 1616. He wrote, 1. *De Arte Grammatica*: 2. *Triumphus Auguſtus*, a poem in 4 books: 3. *Letters*, printed at Marpurg in 1604. Some of theſe ſhow the method he took to inſtruct his father in a ſhort time. 4. *Epicurus, ſive Dialogus de antiqua Philoſophia*; wherein he ſhowed, that Epicurus came nearer the truth, than the other philoſophers; and that the Stoics were fartheſt from it.

(1.) * BOND. *adj.* [from *bind*, perhaps for *bound*; from *gebonden*, Sax.] Captive; in a ſervile ſtate.—Whether we be Jews or Gentiles, whether we be *bond* or free. 1 *Cor.* xii. 13.

(2.) * BOND. *n. ſ.* [*bond*, Sax. *bound*; it is written indifferently, in many of its ſenſes, *bond*, or *band*. See BAND.] 1. Cords, or chains, with which any one is bound.—

There left me, and my man, both bound together;
Till, gnawing with my teeth my *bonds* aſunder,
I gain'd my freedom. *Shakeſpeare.*

2. Ligament that holds any thing together.—Let any one ſend his contemplation to the extremities of the univerſe, and ſee what conceivable hoops, what *bond* he can imagine to hold this maſs of matter in ſo cloſe a preſſure together. *Locke.*—3. Union; connexion: a workman's term.—Obſerve, in working up the walls, that no ſide of the houſe, nor any part of the walls, be brought up three feet above the other, before the next adjoining wall be wrought up to it, ſo that they may be all joined together, and make a good *bond*. *Mortimer's Huſbandry.* 4. [In the plural.] Chains; impriſonment; captivity.—Whom I perceived to have nothing laid to his charge worthy of death, or of *bonds*. *Acts* xxiii. 29. 5. Cement of union; cauſe of union; link of connexion.—

Wedding is great Juno's crown;
O bleſſed *bond* of board and bed! *Shakeſpeare.*

—Love cools, brothers divide, and the *bond* is cracked 'twixt ſon and father. *Shakeſ. King Lear.* 6. A writing of obligation to pay a ſum, or perform a contract.—

Go with me to a notary, ſeal me there
Your ſingle *bond*. *Shakeſpeare*

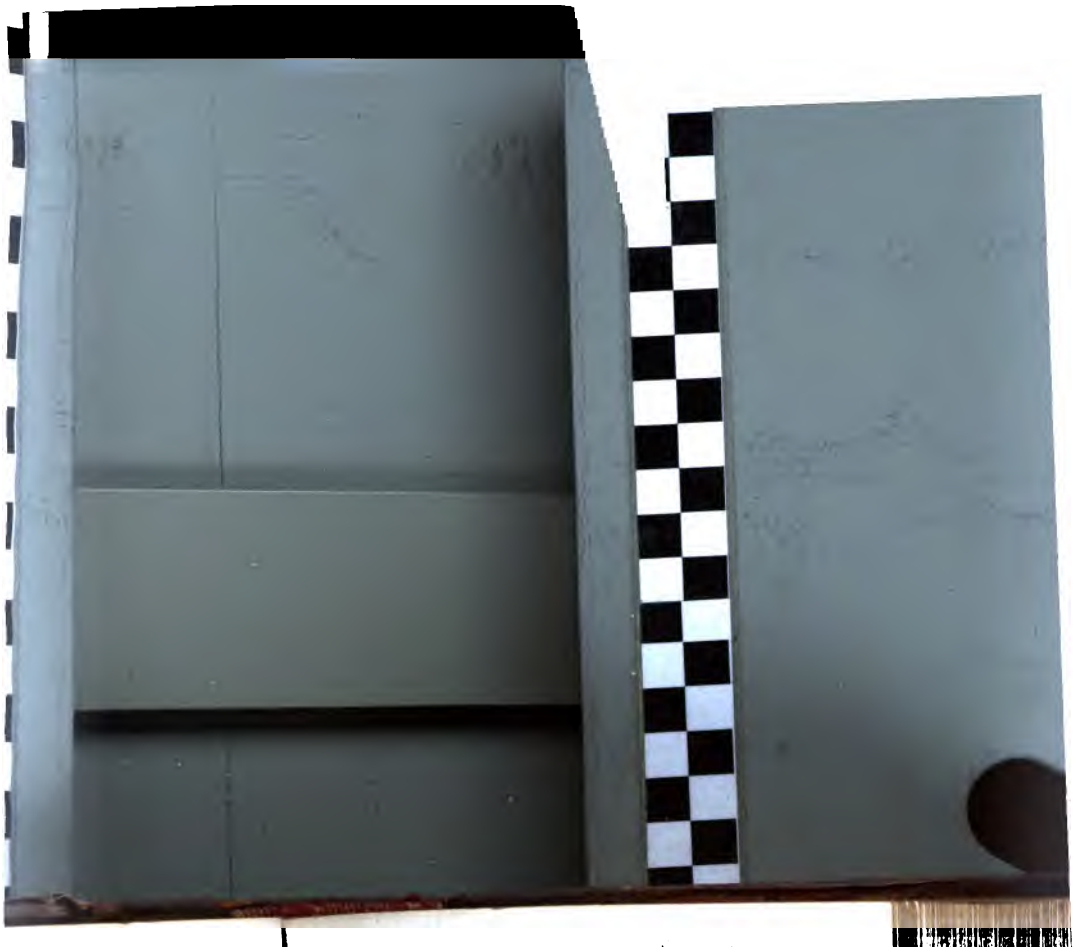
What if I ne'er conſent to make you mine;
My father's promiſe ties me not to time;
And *bonds* without a date, they ſay, are void.
Dryden

7. Obligation; law by which any man is obliged

Unhappy that I am! I cannot heave
My heart into my mouth: I love your majeſty
According to my *bond*, no more nor leſs. *Shak.*

—Take which you pleaſe, it diſſolves the *bonds* of government and obedience. *Locke.*

(3.) BOND, in law, is a deed whereby the obligor obliges himſelf, his heirs, executors, and adminiſtrators, to pay a certain ſum of money to another at a day appointed. If this be all, the bond is called a ſimple one, *ſimplex obligatio*. But there is generally a condition added, that if the obligor does ſome particular act, the obligation ſhall be void, or elſe ſhall remain in full force: as payment of rent; performance of covenants in deed; or repayment of a principal ſum of money borrowed of the obligee, with intereſt; which principal ſum is uſually one half of the penal ſum ſpecified in the bond. In caſe this condition is not performed, the bond becomes forfeited, abſolute at law, and charges the obligor while living; and after his death the obligation deſcends up



printed at Marpurg in 1604. Some of the method he took to infect in short time. 4. *Epicurus, sive Democritus Philosophia*; wherein he shewed, the came nearer the truth, than the other phers; and that the Stoics were farthest

(1.) * BOND. *adj.* [from find, *bound*; from *gebonden*, Sax.] Captive; s state.—Whether we be Jews or Gentiles, we be *bond* or free. 1 *Cor.* xii. 13.

(2.) * BOND. *n. s.* [*band*, Sax. *bond* ten indifferently, in many of its senses, *band*. See BAND.] 1. Cords, or chains, any one is bound.—

There left me, and my mate, bound gether;
Till, gnawing with my teeth my *bonds* I gain'd my freedom.

2. Ligament that holds any thing toge any one fend his contemplation to the of the univerſe, and ſee what connexion what *bond* he can imagine to hold matter in ſo cloſe a preſſure together.

3. Union; connexion: a workman's ſ ſerve, in working up the walls, he houſe, nor any part of the walls, be three feet above the other, before the ing wall be wrought up to it, ſo that all joined together, and make a good *timer*'; *Huſbandry*. 4. Captivity; priſonment; captivity.—Whom I have nothing laid to his charge worthy or of *bonds*. *Act.* xxiii. 29. 5. Cement cauſe of union; link of connexion.—

Wedding is great Juno's crown;
O bleſſed *bond* of board and bed! cracked 'twixt ſon and father. 6. A writing of obligation to pay a form a contract.—

Go with me to a notary, ſeal me Your ſingle *bond*.
What if I ne'er confent to make My father's promiſe tick me not to And *bonds* without a date, they

7. Obligation; law by which any My heart into my mouth: I know According to my *bond*, no more government and obedience.—Take which you pleaſe, I do not.

(3.) BOND, in law, is a deed whe ligor obliges himſelf, his heirs, executo miniſtrators, to pay a certain ſum of nother at a day appointed. If this bond is called a ſimple one, ſingle bond; there is generally a condition added, the obligor does ſome particular act, ſ ſhall be void, or elſe ſhall remain in f payment of rent; performance of cov deed; or repayment of a principal ſ borrowed of the obligee, with intere principal ſum is uſually one half of the ſpecified in the bond. In caſe the not performed, the bond becomes abſolute at law, and after his death the

upon his heir, who (on defect of perſonal aſſets) is bound to diſcharge it, provided he has real aſſets by deſcent as a recompenſe. If the condition of a bond be impoſſible at the time of making it, or be to do a thing contrary to ſome rule of law that is merely poſitive, or be uncertain, or inſenſible, the condition alone is void, and the bond ſhall ſtand ſingle and unconditional: for it is the folly of the obligor to enter into ſuch an obligation from which he can never be releaſed. If it be to do a thing that is *malum in ſe*, the obligation itſelf is void: for the whole is an unlawful contract, and the obligee ſhall take no advantage from ſuch a tranſaction. And if the condition be poſſible at the time of making it, and afterwards becomes impoſſible by the act of God, the act of the law, or the act of the obligee himſelf, there the penalty of the obligation is ſaved: for no prudence or foreſight of the obligor could guard againſt ſuch a contingency. On the forfeiture of a bond, or its becoming ſingle, the whole penalty was recoverable at law: but here the courts of equity interpoſed, and would not permit a man to take more than in conſcience he ought, *viz.* his principal, intereſt, and expences, in caſe the forfeiture accrued by non-payment of money borrowed; the damages ſuſtained upon non-performance of covenants; and the like. And the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ann. c. 16. hath alſo enacted, in the ſame ſpirit of equity, that in caſe of a bond, conditioned for the payment of money, the payment or tender of the principal ſum due, with intereſt and coſts, even though the bond be forfeited and a ſuit commenced thereon, ſhall be a full ſatisfaction and diſcharge.

(4.) BOND, in maſonry and brick-laying, is when bricks or ſtones are ſo it were knit and interwoven; and when they ſay, make *good bond*, they mean that the joints are not made over, or upon other joints; but reach at leaſt ſix inches, both acroſs the wall and on the ſurface, as the art of building requires.

(5.) BOND, John, a commentator on Horace and Perſius, was born in Somerſetſhire, in 1550, and educated at Wincheſter. In 1569, he was entered a ſtudent of Oxford. He took his degree of B. A. in 1573, and that of M. A. in 1579; in the year after which he was appointed maſter of the free-ſchool in Taunton, Somerſetſhire. In this employment he continued many years with great reputation; but being at length weary of his laborious employment, he commenced phyſician, and became eminent in that capacity. He died in 1612, poſſeſſed of ſeveral lands and tenements in his neighbourhood. He wrote, 1. *Commentarii in Horatii Flacci Epiſtolas*; Lond. 1612, 8vo. 2. *Commentarii in ſex priores Horatii Satyras*; Lond. 1614, 8vo.

(6.) * BONDAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *bond*.] 1. Captivity; impriſonment; ſtate of reſtraint.—You only have overthrown me, and in my *bondage* conſiſts my glory. *Sidney.*—

Say, gentle princeſs, would you not ſuppoſe Your *bondage* happy, to be made a queen?—
To be a queen in *bondage*, is more vile
Than is a ſlave in baſe ſervility. *Shakeſpeare.*

Our cage
We make a choir, as doth the priſon'd bird,
And ſing our *bondage* freely. *Shakeſp. Cymb.*

The king, when he deſign'd you for my guard,
Reſolv'd he would not make my *bondage* hard. *Dryden.*

2. Obligation; tye of duty.—If ſhe has a ſtruggle for honour, ſhe is in a *bondage* to love; which gives the ſtory its turn that way. *Pope.*—He muſt reſolve by no means to be enſlaved, and brought under the *bondage* of obſerving oaths, which ought to vaniſh when they ſtand in competition with eating and drinking, or taking money. *South.*

(2.) BONDAGE properly ſignifies the ſame with ſlavery, but in old law books is uſed for villenage. See VILLENAGE. Tenants in bondage paid kenots, and did fealty; they were not to fell trees in their own garden, without licence of the lord: The widow of a tenant in bondage held her huſband's eſtate *quam diu vixerit ſine marito*, as long as ſhe lived ſingle.

(3.) BONDAGE BY THE FORELOCK, (*Bondagium per anteriores crines capitis,*) was when a freeman renounced his liberty, and became a vaſſal to ſome great man: which was done by the ceremony of cutting off a lock of hair from the forehead, and delivering it to his lord; denoting that he was to be maintained by him for the future. Such a bondman, if he reclaimed his liberty, or was fugitive from his maſter, might be drawn again to his ſervitude by the noſe; whence the origin of the menace to pull a man by the noſe.

BONDBUSK, a hamlet of Cokeney, in the county of Nottingham.

* BONDMAID. *n. ſ.* [from *bond*, captive, and *maid*.] A woman ſlave.—

Good ſifter, wrong me not, nor wrong your-ſelf,
To make a *bondmaid* and a ſlave of me. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) * BONDMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *man*.] A man ſlave.—Amongſt the Romans, in making of a *bondman* free, was it not wondered wherefore ſo great ado ſhould be made? the maſter to preſent his ſlave in ſome court, to take him by the hand, and not only to ſay, in the hearing of the publick magiſtrate, I will that this man become free; but, after thoſe ſolemn words uttered, to ſtrike him on the cheek, to turn him round, the hair of his head to be ſhaved off, the magiſtrate to touch him thrice with a rod; in the end, a cap and a white garment given him. *Hooker.*—

O freedom! firſt delight of human kind;
Not that which *bondmen* from their maſters find. *Dryden.*

(2.) BOND-MAN, in the Engliſh law, is uſed for a villain, or tenant in villenage. See VILLAIN, and VILLENAGE.

(3.) BOND-MEN, in Roman antiquity, were of two kinds; the one called SERVI, who were thoſe either bought for money, taken in war, left by ſucceſſion, or purchaſed by ſome other lawful acquiſition; the others born of their *bond-women*, and called VERNÆ. We may add a 3d kind, mentioned by Juſtinian, called *adſcriptitii glebæ*, or *agriceniſti*; who were not bound to the perſon, but to the ground or place, and followed by him who had the land. Theſe in our law are called *villains regardants*, as belonging to the manor or place.

* BONDSERVANT. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *ſervant*.] A ſlave; a ſervant without the liberty of quitting his maſter.—And if thy brother, that

dwelleth by thee, be waxen poor, and be ſold unto thee, thou ſhalt not compel him to ſerve as a *bondſervant*. *Leviticus* xxv. 39.

* BONDSERVICE. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *ſervice*.] The condition of a bondſervant; ſlavery.—Upon thoſe did Solomon levy a tribute of *bondſervice*. *Kings*.

* BONDSLAVE. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *ſlave*.] A man in ſlavery; one of ſervile condition who cannot change his maſter.—Love enjoined ſuch diligence, that no apprentice, no, no *bondſlave*, could ever be, by fear, more ready at all commands than that young princeſs was. *Sidney*.—All her ornaments are taken away; of a freewoman ſhe is become a *bondſlave*. 1 *Macc.* ii. 11.—Commonly the *bondſlave* is fed by his lord, but here the lord was fed by his *bondſlave*. *Sir J. Davies*.

* BONDSMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *man*.] 1. A ſlave.—Carnal greedy people, without ſuch a precept, would have no mercy upon their poor *bondſmen* and beaſts. *Derham*. 2. A perſon bound, or giving ſecurity for another.

BOND-SOCOME, an old law term, ſignifying an obligation to grind at the mill of the lord of the manor. See THIRLAGE.

* BONDSWOMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *woman*.] A woman ſlave.—

My lords, the ſenators
Are ſold for ſlaves, and their wives for *bondſwomen*. *Ben Jonſon's Catiline*.

BONDUC, in botany, the name given by Plumier to a genus of plants, characteriſed by Linnæus under the name of GUILANDINA.

BONDUCH, in the materia medica, a name by which many authors have called the Molucca, Marſao, or Bezoar nuts.

(1.) * BONE. *n. ſ.* [*ban*, Saxon.] 1. The ſolid parts of the body of an animal made up of hard fibres, tied one to another by ſmall tranſverſe fibres, as thoſe of the muſcles. In a fœtus they are porous, ſoft, and eaſily diſcerned. As their pores fill with a ſubſtance of their own nature, ſo they increaſe, harden, and grow cloſe to one another. They are all ſpongy, and full of little cells, or are of a conſiderable firm thickneſs, with a large cavity, except the teeth; and where they are articulated, they are covered with a thin and ſtrong membrane, called the perioſteum. Each *bone* is much bigger at its extremity than in the middle, that the articulations might be firm, and the *bones* not eaſily put out of joint. But, becauſe the middle of the *bone* ſhould be ſtrong, to ſuſtain its allotted weight, and reſiſt accidents, the fibres are there more cloſely compacted together, ſupporting one another; and the *bone* is made hollow, and conſequently not ſo eaſily broken, as it muſt have been, had it been ſolid and ſmaller. *Quincy*.—

Thy *bones* are marrowleſs, thy blood is cold. *Macbeth*.

—There was lately a young gentleman bit to the *bone*. *Tatler*. 2. A fragment of meat; a bone with as much fleſh as adheres to it.—

Like Æſop's hounds, contending for the *bone*,
Each pleaded right, and would be lord alone. *Dryden*.

To be upon the bones. To attack.—Puſs had a tooth's mind *to be upon the bones* of him, but was not willing to pick a quarrel. *L'Eſtrange*. 4. *To make no bones*. To make no ſcruple: a metaphor taken from a dog, who readily ſwallows meat that has no bones. 5. *Bones*. A ſort of *bobbins*, made of trotter bones, for weaving bonelace. 6. *Bones*. Dice.

But then my ſtudy was to cog the dice,
And dext'rouſly to throw the lucky ſice:
To ſhun ames ace that ſwept my ſtakes away;
And watch the box, for fear they ſhould convey
Falſe *bones*, and put upon me in the play. *Dryd*.

(2.) BONES, ACCOUNT OF THE HUMAN. See ANATOMY, INDEX.

(3.) BONES, ACID OF. From a diſcovery made by Mr Scheele, of a method of producing the phoſphoric acid in large quantity from bones, it has been aſſerted, that this acid is naturally contained in the bones, united with a calcareous earth. From many experiments, however, it appears that no acid is naturally contained in calcined bones; nor can the acid of phoſphorus be extracted from them but by means of the vitriolic acid: whence it ſeems probable, that the phoſphoric acid in this caſe is produced by the combination of a certain quantity of earth with the vitriolic acid. See § 6.

(4.) BONES, ANCIENT CEREMONIES RESPECTING. Divers uſages and ceremonies relating to the bones of the dead have obtained in different ages; as gathering them from the funeral pile, waſhing, anointing, and depoſiting them in urns, and thence into tombs; tranſlating them, which was not to be done without the authority of the pontiffs; not to add, worſhipping them, ſtill practiſed to the bones of ſaints in the Romiſh church. Among the ancients, the bones of travellers and ſoldiers dying in foreign countries were brought home to be buried; till, by an expreſs decree of the ſenate, made during the Italian war, it was forbid, and the ſoldiers bodies ordered to be buried where they died. The Romans, who had a peculiar deity preſiding over every thing, worſhipped OSSILAGO as the god of the bones.

(5.) BONES, COLOURING OF. Bones may be ſtained of a variety of colours by the common dyeing infuſions and decoctions of animal and vegetable ſubſtances. They are ſtained alſo, without heat, by metallic ſolutions; and by means of theſe may be ſpotted or variegated at pleaſure. Thus, ſolution of ſilver in aquafortis gives a brown or black according to its quantity; ſolution of gold in aqua regia, or in ſpirit of ſalt, a fine purple; ſolution of copper in the acetous acid, a fine green; and ſolutions of the ſame metal in volatile alkalis, a blue, which at firſt is deep and beautiful, but changes, upon expoſure to the air, into a green or bluiſh green. If the bone is but touched with the two firſt ſolutions, and expoſed to the air, it does not fail to acquire the colour in a few hours: In the two latter, it requires to be ſteeped for a day or longer in order to its imbibing the colour. In theſe and other caſes, where immerſion for ſome time is neceſſary, the bone may be variegated, by covering ſuch parts as are to remain white, with wax or any other matter that the liquor will not diſſolve or penetrate.

(6.) BONES, EARTH OF, appears to be very different from the calcareous kind: it is much more ſoluble in the vitriolic acid, and may be precipitated

epitated from that or any other, by means of the caustic volatile alkali, which cannot be done with the calcareous earth. See § 9.

(7.) BONES, EXTRANEOUS, or PRETERNATURAL, have been found in the meninges, the duplicatures of the dura mater, between the cerebrum and cerebellum, in the matrices of women, does, hares, cows, omentum of swine, &c. See *Hist. Acad. Sc. an.* 1711, 1713. *Plott's Hist.* § 56, 63, and 74.

(8.) BONES, FOSSILE. See § 10.

(9.) BONES, INDURATION AND MOLLIFICATION OF. Boerhaave observes, that alkaline salts render bones harder and firmer, and that acids make them softer and more flexible. These effects succeed in certain circumstances, but not universally; for bones may be hardened and softened both by acids and by alkalis, according to the quantity of saline matter employed, and the manner in which it is applied. Newmann made bones harder and more compact by treating them with the strongest of the mineral acids; though, when the acid is in sufficient proportion, it destroys or dissolves them. In Papin's digester (a strong close vessel, in which the steam of boiling liquors is confined, and the fluid by this means made to undergo a greater degree of heat than it could otherwise sustain,) the hardest bones are reduced in a short time, by the action of simple water, into a soft pap or jelly; and alkaline liquors produce this effect still sooner. In the history of the French Academy for the years 1742 and 1743, there is an account that Mr Geoffroy produced before the academy a small ivory spoon, which by long lying in mustard, was become flexible and transparent like horn; and that Mr Pouchy saw an ivory spoon, which, by lying for a considerable time in milk, was become supple like leather; and that Mr Hunauld produced bones, which had been softened by steeping in vinegar, afterwards hardened to their natural state by steeping in water, and softened a second time by steeping in vinegar. Dr Lewis observed, that the nitrous and marine acids diluted, and the acetous acid, make bones flexible and tough like leather; but that the diluted vitriolic acid, though it renders them notably soft, makes them at the same time brittle. It seems as if a great part of the earthy matter, which is the basis of the bone, and on which its hardness depends, was dissolved and extracted by the three first; while the latter, incapable of dissolving this kind of earth into a liquid form, only corrodes it into a kind of selenitic concrete, which remains intermixed in minute particles among the gelatinous matter. Dr Lewis did not find that the softened bones, whatever acid they were softened by, recovered their hardness by steeping in water. Slips of softened ivory, after lying above a month in water, continued nearly as soft as when they were taken out of the acid liquor. A singular induration of bones is produced by fire; the effects of which are here remarkably different according to its degree and the circumstances of its application. Bones exposed to a moderate fire, either in open vessels, or in contact with the burning fuel, become opaque, white, and friable throughout; and an increase of fire, after they have once suffered this change, renders them only more and more friable. But if they are urged at first with a strong fire, such as that in which copper or iron melts, they become hard, semitransparent, and sonorous, like the hard mineral stones. This curious experiment deserves to be further prosecuted.

(10.) BONES, PETRIFIED, or FOSSILE, are found in the earth, frequently at great depths, in all the strata, and even in stones and rocks: Some of them are of a huge size, usually supposed to be the bones of giants, but more truly of elephants or hippopotami. It is supposed they were deposited in those strata when all things were in a state of solution by the general deluge; and that they afterwards incorporated and petrified with the bodies where they happened to be lodged. In the museum of the Russian Academy of Sciences, there is a vast collection of fossil bones, teeth, and horns, of the elephant, rhinoceros, and buffalo, which have been found in different parts of that empire, but more particularly in the southern regions of Siberia. Naturalists have been puzzled to account for so great a variety being found in a country, where the animals of which they formerly made a part, were never known to exist. It was the opinion of Peter I. who, though he deserves to be esteemed a great monarch, was certainly no great naturalist, that the teeth found near Voronetz were the remains of elephants belonging to the army of Alexander the Great, who, according to some historians, crossed the Don, and advanced as far as Kostinka. The celebrated Bayer, whose authority carries greater weight in the literary world, conjectures, that the bones and teeth found in Siberia belonged to elephants common to that country, during the wars which the Mogul monarchs carried on with the Persians; and this plausible supposition seems in some measure corroborated, by the discovery of the entire skeleton of an elephant in one of the Siberian tombs. But this opion, as Mr Pallas very justly observes, (in his *Nov. Comm. De Ossibus Siberiæ fossilibus, p.* 440,) is sufficiently refuted by the consideration, that the elephants employed in the armies of all India could never have afforded the vast quantities of teeth which have been discovered, not to mention those which it is justly to be presumed may still be buried. They have been already dug up in such plenty as to make a considerable article of trade. The same ingenious naturalist has given an ample description of these fossil bones, and has endeavoured to account for their origin. Upon examining those in the museum, he was led to conclude, that as these bones are equally dispersed in all the northern regions of Europe, the climate probably was in the earlier ages less severe than at present, and then possibly sufficiently warm to be the native countries of the elephant, rhinoceros, and other quadrupeds, now found only in the southern climates. But when he visited, during his travels, the spots where the fossil bodies were dug up, and could form a judgment from his own observations, and not from the accounts of others, he renounced his former hypothesis; and, in conformity with the opinions of many modern philosophers, asserted, that they must have been brought by the waters; and that nothing but a sudden and general inundation, such as the deluge, could

have transported them from their native countries in the south, to the regions of the north. In proof of this assertion, he adds, that the bones are generally found separate, as if they had been scattered by the waves, covered with a stratum of mud evidently formed by the waters, and commonly intermixed with the remains of marine plants, and similar substances; instances of which he himself observed during his progress through Siberia, and which sufficiently prove that these regions of Asia were once overwhelmed by the sea. We often find in the earth, petrified bones, the greatest part of their gelatinous matter being extracted by the moisture, and a stony one introduced in its room. In some parts of France, petrified bones are met with, which have an impregnation of copper. Hence, on being calcined in an open fire, a volatile salt is produced from the remains of their gelatinous principle, and the bone is tinged throughout of a fine greenish blue colour, copper always striking a blue with volatile alkalis. The French turcoise stones are no other than these bones prepared by calcination; they are very durable, and bear to be worked and polished nearly in the same manner as glass; without the imperfection, inseparable from grassy bodies, of being brittle. See TURCOISE. There have been lately discovered several enormous skeletons, 5 or 6 feet beneath the surface, on the banks of the Ohio, near the river Miame in America, 700 miles from the sea coast. Some of the tusks are near 7 feet long; one foot nine inches at the base, and one foot near the point; the cavity at the root or base, 19 inches deep. Besides their size, there are several other differences, which will not allow the supposition of their having been elephants: the tusks of the true elephant have sometimes a very slight lateral bend; these have a larger twist, or spiral curve, towards the smaller end: but the great and specific difference consists in the shape of the grinding teeth; which, in these newly found, are fashioned like the teeth of a carnivorous animal; not flat and ribbed transversely on their surface like those of the elephant, but furnished with a double row of high and conic processes, as if intended to masticate, not to grind, their food. A third difference is in the thigh-bone, which is of great disproportionable thickness to that of the elephant; and has also some other anatomical variations. These fossile bones have been also found in Peru and the Brazils; and when cut and polished by the workers in ivory, appear in every respect similar. It is the opinion of Dr Hunter, that they must have belonged to a larger animal than the elephant; and differing from it, in being carnivorous. But as yet this formidable creature has evaded our search; and if, indeed, such an animal exists, it is happy for man that it keeps at a distance; since what ravage might not be expected from a creature, endowed with more than the strength of the elephant, and all the rapacity of the tiger? See MAMMOTH.

(11.) BONES, USES OF. Bones are a very useful article, not only for making different kinds of toys, but likewise in several of the chemical arts; as, for making cast iron malleable, for absorbing the sulphur of sulphureous ores; for forming tests and cupels, or vessels for refining gold and silver with lead; (burnt bones composing a mass of a porous texture, which absorbs the vitrified lead and other matters, while the gold and silver, being unvitrescible, remain entire behind;) for the preparation of milky glasses and porcelains; for the rectification of volatile salts and empyreumatic oils; and for making glue. The bones of different animals are not equally fit for these uses: even the glue, or gelatinous part of the bones of one animal being remarkably different both in quantity and cohesiveness from that of another. The human skull-bone, or cranium, the natural defence of the seat of sensation and perception in the noblest animal, has been recommended medicinally as a cure for epilepsies, deliria, and all disorders of the senses, by the same false philosophy which ascribed anti-asthmatic virtues to the lungs of the long-winded fox; and expected, because fowls are said to digest even small stones, that the skin of the gizard, dried and powdered, would produce a similar effect in the human stomach. To such extravagances have physicians been led by the superstitions of former ages!

(12.) BONES, WHITENING OF. Two processes are described in the *Acta Hoffmanienfia* for whitening bones, for skeletons. Professor Rau had a method of giving them a great degree of whiteness. By bare exposure to the air, sun, and rain, for a length of time, they become notably white; but the whitest bones, kept in rooms tainted with smoke or fuliginous vapours, grow in a little time yellowish, brownish, and unsightly. It is customary for the putrification of bones, to boil them in alkaline liquors; which, by dissolving and extracting the superfluous fat, improve their whiteness.

* *To* BONE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To take out the bones from the flesh; as, the cooks *boned* the veal.

BONE-ACE, a game at cards played thus: The dealer deals out two cards to the first hand, and turns up the third, and so on through all the players, who may be 7, 8, or as many as the card will permit: he that has the highest card turned up to him carries the bone; that is, one half of the stake; the other half remaining to be played for. Again, if there be three kings, three queens, three tens, &c. turned up, the eldest hand wins the bone. But the ace of diamonds is bone ace and wins all other cards whatever. Thus much for the bone; and as for the other half of the stake, the nearest to 31 wins it; and he that turns up or draws 31 wins it immediately.

BONE-BREAKER, in ornithology, a name given to the Offifrage, a species of eagle.

BONE-CHURCH, a village of the Isle of Wight, East Medina.

* BONELACE. *n. f.* [from *bone* and *lace*; the bobbins with which lace is woven being frequently made of bones.] Flaxen lace, such as women wear on their linen.—The things you follow, are make songs on now, should be sent to knit, or to bobbins or *bonelace*. *Tatler*.—We destroy the symmetry of the human figure, and foolish contrive to call off the eye from great and real beauties, to childish gewgaw ribbands and *bone lace*. *Spectator*.

* BONI

* BONELESS. *adj.* [from *bone.*] Wanting bones.—

I would, while it was ſmiling in my face,
Have plackt my nipple from his *boneleſs* gums,
And dasht his brains out. *Shakeſ.*

* †BONESET. † *v. n.* [from *bone* and *ſet.*] To reſtore a bone out of joint to its place; or join a bone broken to the other part.—A fractured leg ſet in the country by one pretending to *boneſetting*. *Wiſeman's Surgery.*

(1.) * BONESETTER. *n. ſ.* [from *boneſet.*] A chirurgeon; one who particularly profeſſes the art of reſtoring broken or luxated bones.—At preſent my deſire is to have a good *Boneſetter*. *Denh.*

(2.) BONESETTERS. See BARBER, § 3.

BONE-SETTING, *n. ſ.* the art of replacing diſlocated bones, and of joining the parts of fractured ones. See SURGERY, INDEX.

BONE-SPAVIN, *n. ſ.* a diſeaſe incident to horſes. See FARRIERY, INDEX.

BON-ESPERANCE, the Cape of Good Hope. See GOOD HOPE.

BONET, Theophilus, an eminent phyſician born at Geneva, March 15th, 1620. He took his degree of M. D. in 1643, after he had gone through moſt of the famous univerſities, and was for ſome time phyſician to the duke of Longueville. Mean while his ſkill in his profeſſion got him conſiderable practice; but being ſeized with deafneſs, it obliged him to retire from buſineſs, which gave him leiſure to collect all the obſervations he had made during a practice of 40 years. He wrote, 1. *Polyalthes, ſive Theſaurus Medico-practicus*, 3 vols folio. 2. *Labyrinthi Medici extricati.* 3. *Medicina Septentrionalis Collatitia*; and other works.

BONEWELL, a village in Herefordſhire, near Croft-Caſtle.

BONFADIO, or BONFADIUS, James, one of the moſt polite writers of the 16th century, was born in Italy, near the lake Garda. He was ſecretary to the cardinal de Bari, and after his death to the cardinal Ghinucci. He afterwards read public lectures on Ariſtotle's politics, and on rhetoric; and was made hiſtoriographer to the republic of Genoa. He applied himſelf to compoſe the annals of that ſtate, in which he wrote ſo ſatirically on ſome great families. This creating him enemies who were reſolved to ruin him, they accuſed him of the unnatural ſin; and, as they ſuborned witneſſes to convict him, he was condemned to be burnt. Some ſay that this ſentence was executed; and others, that his puniſhment was changed, and that he was beheaded, A. D. 1550. Upon the day of his execution he wrote a note to John Baptiſt Grimaldi, to teſtify his gratitude to the perſons who had endeavoured to ſerve him; and promiſed to inform them, how he found himſelf in the other world, if it could be done without frightening them. But it does not appear, that he performed his promiſe, any more than the many who had promiſed the like before him.—His hiſtory of Genoa is eſteemed. We have alſo ſome letters, ſome orations, and Latin and Italian poems of his, which were printed at Bologna, in 1744, 8vo

BONFINIUS, Anthony, flouriſhed in the 15th century. He was a native of Aſcoli in Italy, and attached himſelf to the belles lettres. Matthias Corvinus king of Hungary, having heard of his learning, ſent for him, retained him, and ſettled upon him a penſion. He wrote, 1. A hiſtory of Aſcoli; 2. A treatiſe of virginity and conjugal chaſtity; 3. a hiſtory of Hungary; and other works.

* BONFIRE. *n. ſ.* [from *bon*, good, Fr. and *fire.*] A fire made for ſome publick cauſe of triumph or exultation.—

Ring ye the bells to make it wear away,
And *bonfires* make all day. *Spenſer.*

—How came ſo many *bonfires* to be made in queen Mary's days? Why, ſhe had abuſed and deceived her people. *South.*—

Full ſoon by *bonfire*, and by bell,
We learnt our liege was paſſing well. *Gay.*

BONFRERIUS, James, a learned Jeſuit, born at Dinant, in 1573. He wrote a commentary on the Pentateuch, and learned notes on the Onomaſticon of the places and towns mentioned in the Scripture. He died at Tournay in 1643, aged 70.

BONGARS, or BONGARSIAS, James, a native of Orleans, was one of the moſt learned men of the 16th century. He applied himſelf to the ſtudy of critical learning, and was for near 30 years employed in the moſt important negociations of Henry IV. whoſe reſident he was ſeveral times at the courts of the princes of Germany, and at length his ambaſſador. He was of the Proteſtant religion; and, when very young, had courage to write and poſt up in Rome a very ſpirited anſwer to a bull of Pope Sixtus V. The public is obliged to him for the edition of ſeveral authors, who had written the Hiſtory of the Expeditions to the Holy Land; he alſo publiſhed, among other works, an edition of Juſtin, in which he reſtored ſeveral paſſages that had been corrupted, by conſulting valuable M. SS. and added notes which explained many difficulties. He died in 1612, aged 58.

(1.) BONGO, an iſland of Japan.

(2.) BONGO, or BUNGO, a town in the iſle of Ximo.

(3.) BONGO, the capital of the iſland, (N. 1.) It is a ſea port, and lies on the E. ſide, oppoſite to *Tonſa*.

BONGOMILES, a monk who founded the heretical ſect of the Bogomili. See BOGOMILI.

BONGO-PALMA, a name given by ſome to the nutmeg tree.

BON-GOUT, [Fr.] a fine taſte.

(1.) * BONGRACE. *n. ſ.* [*bonne grace*, Fr.] A forehead-cloth, or covering for the forehead. Not now uſed. *Skinner.*—I have ſeen her beſet all over with emeralds, and pearls, ranged in rows about her cawl, her peruke, her *bongrace*, and chaplet. *Hakewill on Providence.*

(2.) BONGRACE, in ſea language, a frame of old ropes, or junks of cables, laid along the bows, ſterns

† *This verb appears to have as little authority as* TO BLOOD-LET. *See our note on that article*, p. 65. *In both caſes*, Dr Johnſon *ſeems to have taken the exiſtence of the* verbs *for granted, becauſe the* nouns, BLOOD-LETTING *and* BONE-SETTING, *have the terminations of* participles.

ſterns and ſides of ſhips, ſailing in cold latitudes, to preſerve them from damage by the flakes of ice.

BONHA, a river of S. America, which falls into the Pacific Ocean.

BONHIL, a pariſh of Scotland in Dumbartonſhire, 4½ m. long, and 4 broad. The Leven and the S. end of Loch-Lomond divide it nearly into two equal parts, and ſupply with ſalmon, parr, trouts, &c. The ground is all incloſed and ſubdivided. The ſoil is various, and produces the uſual crops. About 250 acres are planted with larix and firs, and the natural wood is ſo plentiful, that a cutting of it, at 40 years, is worth about L. 2450. The population in 1791, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Gordon Stewart, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2310, and had increaſed no leſs than 1409 within the preceding 36 years. This increaſe appears to have been chiefly owing to the eſtabliſhment of 3 printfields and 4 bleachfields on the banks of the Leven, which flouriſhed greatly before the war, and have been of late much improved. The duties paid to government, for one year preceding 5th July 1791, amounted to L. 13,296. 8ſh. 4d. There are about 100 ſheep and 160 horſes in Bonhil, beſides black cattle, the number of which fluctuates much.

BONIFACE, I. pope of Rome, was elected A. D. 418, and exerted himſelf much to eſtabliſh the ſupremacy of Rome over the other churches. St Auguſtine dedicated to him his book againſt the Pelagians. He died A. D. 423.

BONIFACE, II. governed the papal ſee only a year and 2 days. He was elected on the death of Felix IV. A. D. 530, but was oppoſed by the antipope, Dioſcorus. He appointed Vigilius his ſucceſſor, but afterwards annulled his appointment, finding Vigilius not popular. He died in 531.

BONIFACE, III. was elected A. D. 606, and reigned only 8 months and 20 days; yet in that ſhort period, by favouring the Emperor Phocas, he got the important title of *Univerſal Biſhop* exclusively conferred on himſelf and his ſucceſſors. Aſtedius dates the beginning of the reign of the *Beaſt* under this Pope; "*Incipit regnum beſtiæ*; (ſays he) *quia Boniſacius aperuit os ſuum ut ambitioſa beſtia.*" He was ſucceeded by

BONIFACE, IV. who obtained the additional favour from Phocas, of converting the famous heathen temple, built by Agrippa, called the *Pantheon*, into a church. Several literary works are aſcribed to him, but they are ſuſpected to be ſpurious. He died, A. Dom. 615, in the 9th year of his pontificate, and was canonized.

BONIFACE, V. was elected pope on the death of Deuſdedit, A. D. 618, and was ſucceeded by Honorius, in 626.

BONIFACE, VI. was raiſed to the papal chair on the death of Formoſus, A. D. 895, but enjoyed his pontifical dignity only 15 days.

BONIFACE, VII. has the title of *Antipope*: becauſe, in 974, he cauſed Benedict VI. to be ſtrangled in priſon, and after the election of Benedict VII. removed the treaſures of the church to Conſtantinople. He, however, returned after the death of Benedict, and cauſed his ſucceſſor John XIV. to be murdered; but died himſelf ſoon after, and his body was dragged by the feet about the ſtreets.

BONIFACE, VIII. obtained the pontifical dignity in 1294, upon the uncommon event of pope Celeſtine V. Alſtedius ſays, that "he entered like a fox, reigned like a lion, and died like a dog." In 1297, he canonized St Lewis king of France; and in 1300, inſtituted a jubilee to be held every 100 years thereafter. At this jubilee he dreſſed himſelf the one day in his pontifical habit, and the next in imperial robes; telling the emperor Albert's ambaſſadors, that their maſter's election was of no avail, without his authority. He boaſted that he was the keeper of the keys of heaven: and cauſed two drawn ſwords to be carried before him, as emblems of his two-fold authority. He was killed in 1303.

BONIFACE, IX. was elected Pope, A. D. 1389, on the death of Urban VI, and enjoyed the papal dignity 14 years and 11 months, but not without competitors; for at this time there was a ſucceſſion of antipopes at Avignon, for about 50 years, which Roman Catholic writers ſtile *the Grand Schiſm*, and ſometimes there were three popes exiſting at once. He died A. D. 1404.

(1.) BONIFACE, ST, an Engliſhman, born at Kirton in Devonſhire, and originally named WINIFRED. He preached the goſpel among the barbarous nations; and though created Abp. of Mentz, by Gregory II. ſoon after reſigned his office, to go and preach in Eaſt Frieſland, where he was martyred by the Pagans on the 5th of June 754. His letters were publiſhed by Senarius.

(2.) BONIFACE, ST, an Italian, who came to Scotland, about A. D. 693 or 697, to make our forefathers acquainted with the church of Rome. For this pious purpoſe, he is ſaid to have built a church on the ſpot where he landed, at the mouth of a rivulet between the counties of Angus and Mearns; another at Felin; a 3d at Reſtennoth and a 4th at Roſemarkie, in Roſs-ſhire; where being taken with the pleaſantneſs of the place, he took up his reſidence till he died. Biſhop Leſlie ſpeaks of his relics, and thoſe of his parents, being preſerved in ancient monuments at Roſemarkie. Mr Wood the miniſter of that pariſh mentions, that they have a well and an annual fair denominated after him, and that the public ſeal of the burgh bears his image. *Stat. Acc. Vol.* IX. *p.* 343.

BONIFACIA, in botany, a name given by Bauhine and others, to the broad leafed RUSCUS, or Butcher's broom.

(1.) BONIFACIO, a diſtrict of Corſica, at the S. extremity of the iſland, from which the ſtrait between Corſica and Sardinia has its name.

(2.) BONIFACIO, a town in the diſtrict, (N. 1. beyond the mountains, near the ſtrait called *Bocca di Boniface*. It is well fortified and populous. Lon. 9. 20. E. Lat. 41. 25. N.

BONINGALE, a village in Shropſhire, near Albrighton.

(1.) BONINGTON, a village of Mid-Lothian in the pariſh of Ratho.

(2, 3.) BONINGTON, two villages in Kent viz. 1. in Romney-marſh, near Wye: 2. united to Fakenhurſt.

(1.) BONIS ARRESTANDIS. See ARRESTANDIS.

(2.) BONIS, ARRESTO, &c. See ARRESTO.

(3.) BONIS NON AMOVENDIS, in law, is a writ directed to the ſheriffs of London, &c. charging them, that a perſon againſt whom judgment

obtained

obtained, and profecuting a writ of error, be not ſuffered to remove his goods until the error is determined.

BONITO, in ichthyology. See SCOMBER.

BONIUM, the ancient name of BANGOR.

BONKLE and PRESTON, two united pariſhes of Scotland in Berwickſhire, extending about 6 m. every way, and containing 8,900 acres. The ſoil on the high ground is dry, thin and poor, but has been much improved of late. The reſt is naturally fertile. The climate is healthy. The ſheep and cattle are much improved by Engliſh breeds. The farms are large; from L. 200 to L. 600 a-year. The population, of conſequence, has not increaſed: there being, by the rev. Mr Douglas's ſtatement to Sir J. Sinclair, only 622 ſouls, in 1791; which was 69 below the number in 1755.

BONLACHY, a town of Ireland, in Longford.

BON MOT, [Fr.] a jeſt; a witty repartee.

BONN, or BON, an ancient and ſtrong city of Germany, in the electorate of Cologn, and the uſual reſidence of the elector. It is of great conſequence in the time of war; becauſe it is ſituated on the Rhine, in a place where it can ſtop every thing that comes down that river. It was well fortified by the elector, who had a fine palace and beautiful gardens in the city: but notwithſtanding its ſtrength, it was taken by the French republican army, in 1795. Lon. 7. 5. E. Lat. 50. 45. N.

1. BONNA, in ancient geography, one of the citadels built by Druſus on the Rhine; ſuppoſed by ſome to be the ſame with the *Ara Ubiorum*; now called BONN.

2. BONNA, in zoology, a name given by Pliny and others to the BONASUS.

BONNAGE, in our old feudal cuſtoms, not yet wholly aboliſhed, an obligation on the part of a tenant to cut down part of the proprietor's corn, when called on. It ſometimes happens, that by reaping the proprietor's crop, the poor tenant loſes the opportunity of cutting down his own. This and ſimilar ſervitudes, ſuch as CARRIAGES, THIRLAGES, &c. are "ſo adverſe to agriculture, and even to the true intereſts of the proprietor, that in a ſhort time, (it is hoped,) their very names will be obſolete." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Ac. Vol.* I. *p.* 433.

1. BONNEFONS, John, a Latin poet, born at Clermont in Auvergne, and lieutenant general of Ile ſur Seine, acquired great reputation by his Amœnitates, and other poems. He died under the reign of Lewis XIII.

2. BONNEFONS, John, another Latin poet, younger brother to the former, N. 1.

BONNER, Edmund, biſhop of London, of infamous memory, was born at Hanley in Worceſterſhire, and generally ſuppoſed to be the natural ſon of one Savage a prieſt; who was the natural ſon of Sir John Savage of Cliſton in the ſame county. Strype, however, ſays, he was poſitively aſſured that Bonner was the legitimate offspring of a poor man, who lived in a cottage known to this day by the name of *Bonner's place*. About 1512, he entered ſtudent of Broadgate Hall in Oxford. In 1519, he was admitted batchelor of the canon and civil law. About the ſame time he took orders, and obtained ſome preferment in the dioceſe of Worceſter. In 1526, he was created doctor of canon law. Having now acquired the character of a ſhrewd politician and civilian, he was ſoon diſtinguiſhed by cardinal Wolſey, who made him his commiſſary for the faculties, and heaped upon him a variety of church preferments. He poſſeſſed at one time the livings of Blaydon and Cherry-Burton in Yorkſhire, Ripple in Worceſterſhire, eaſt Dereham in Norfolk, prebend of St Paul's, and the archdeaconry of Leiceſter. Bonner was with the cardinal at Caw-wood, when he was arreſted for high treaſon. After the death of that miniſter, he ſoon inſinuated himſelf into the favour of Henry VIII. who made him one of his chaplains, and employed him in ſeveral embaſſies, particularly to the pope. In 1532, he was ſent to Rome, with Sir Edward Kame, to anſwer for the king, whom his Holineſs had cited to appear in perſon or by proxy. In 1533, he was again diſpatched to pope Clement VII. at Marſeilles, upon the excommunication of king Henry on account of his divorce. On this occaſion he threatened the pope with ſo much reſolution, that his Holineſs talked of burning him alive, or throwing him into a caldron of melted lead; upon which Bonner thought fit to decamp. His infallibility did not foreſee, that the man, whom he thus threatened was predeſtined to burn heretics in England. In 1538, being ambaſſador at the court of France, he was nominated biſhop of Hereford; but, before conſecration, was tranſlated to the ſee of London, and enthroned in April 1540.—Henry VIII. died in 1547, while Bonner was ambaſſador with the emperor Charles V. During this reign he was conſtantly zealous in his oppoſition to the pope; and, to pleaſe the king, favoured the reformation; but, on the acceſſion of young Edward, he refuſed the oath of ſupremacy, and was committed to the Fleet; however, he ſoon thought fit to promiſe obedience to the laws, and was accordingly releaſed. He continued to comply with the reformation; but with ſuch manifeſt neglect and reluctance, that he was twice reprimanded by the privy council, and in 1549, after a long trial, was committed to the Marſhalſea, and deprived of his biſhopric. The ſucceeding reign gave him ample opportunity of revenge. Mary was ſcarce ſeated on the throne before Bonner was reſtored to his biſhopric; and ſoon after appointed vicegerent and preſident of the convocation. From this time he became the chief inſtrument of papal cruelty; and he is ſaid to have condemned no leſs than 200 Proteſtants to the flames in the ſpace of 3 years. Nor was this monſter of a prieſt more remarkable for his cruelty than his impudence. When Queen Elizabeth came to the crown, he had the inſolence to meet her, with the reſt of the biſhops, at Highgate. But, in the 2d year of her reign, refuſing to take the oath of allegiance and ſupremacy, he was again deprived, and committed to the Marſhalſea; where he died in 1569, after ten years confinement. There cannot be a ſtronger inſtance of the comparative lenity of the Proteſtant church, than its ſuffering this miſcreant to die a natural death. Several pieces were publiſhed under his name.

BON-

BONNESTABLE, a town of France, in the department of Sarte. It carries on a great trade in corn, and is 15 m. N. E. of Mans. Lon. 0. 30. E. Lat. 48. 11. N.

(1.) * BONNET. *n. f.* [*bonet*, Fr.] A covering for the head; a hat; a cap.—

Go to them with this *bonnet* in thy hand,
And thus far having ſtretch'd it, here be with them,
Thy knee buſſing the ſtones; for, in ſuch buſineſs,
Action is eloquence. *Shakeſ. Coriolanus.*

—They had not probably the ceremony of vailing the *bonnet* in their ſalutations; for, in medals, they ſtill have it on their heads. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * BONNET. [In fortification.] A kind of little ravelin, without any ditch, having a parapet three feet high, anciently placed before the points of the ſaliant angles of the glacis.

(3.) * BONNET A PRESTRE, or prieſt's cap, is an outwork, having at the head three ſaliant angles, and two inwards.

(4.) BONNET A PRESTRE differs from the double tenaille only in this, that its ſides, inſtead of being parallel, are like the *queue d'aronde*, or ſwallow's tail, that is, narrowing, or drawing cloſe at the gorge, and opening at the head.

(5.) BONNETS, (§ 1. Def. 1.) are ſtill uſed in many parts of Scotland, inſtead of hats.

(6.) BONNETS, in fortification, (§ 2.) conſiſt of two faces, having only a parapet with two rows of paliſadoes, of about 10 or 12 feet diſtance. They have a communication with the covered way, by a trench cut through the glacis, and paliſadoes on each ſide.

(7.) * BONNETS. [In the ſea language.] Small ſail ſet on the courſes on the mizen, mainſail, and foreſail of a ſhip, when theſe are two narrow or ſhallow to cloath the maſt, or in order to make more way in calm weather. *Chambers.*

BONNET-HILL, a hill near Dundee.

BONNET PEPPER. See CAPSICUM.

(1.) BONNEVAL, a town of France, in the department of Eure and Loire, and ci-devant province of Beauce. It had lately a fine Benedictine abbey. It is ſeated on the Loire, 8 m. N. of Chateaudun. Lon. 1. 20. E. Lat. 48. 12. N.

(2.) BONNEVAL, Claudius Alexander, count de, known in the latter part of his life by the name of OSMAN BASHAW, deſcended from a family related to the blood-royal of France, entered at the age of 16 in the ſervice of that crown, and married the daughter of marſhal de Biron. He made the campaign in Flanders in 1690; but ſoon after left the French army, and entered into the imperial ſervice under prince Eugene, who honoured him with an intimate friendſhip. The intrigues of the marquis de Prié, his inveterate enemy, ruined his credit, however, at the court of Vienna, and cauſed him to be baniſhed the empire. He then offered his ſervice to the republic of Venice and to Ruſſia; which being declined, his next tender was to the Grand Signor, who gladly received him. It was ſtipulated, that he ſhould have a body of 30,000 men at his diſpoſal; that a government ſhould be conferred on him, with the rank of Baſhaw of three tails, and a ſalary of 10,000 aſpers a-day; and that, in caſe of a war, he ſhould be commander in chief. The firſt expedition he engaged in, after his arrival at Conſtantinople, was to quell an inſurrection of Arabia Petræa, which he effected; and at his return had large offers made him by Kouli Khan, but did not chooſe to accept them. Some time after he commanded the Turkiſh army againſt the emperor, over whoſe forces he gained a victory on the Danube. But ſucceſs does not always protect a perſon againſt diſgrace; for Bonneval, notwithſtanding his ſervices, was firſt impriſoned, and then baniſhed to the iſland of Chio. The ſultan however continued his friend; and the evening before his departure made him Baſhaw-general of the Archipelago, which, with his former appointment of beglerbeg of Arabia, rendered him one of the moſt powerful perſons in the Ottoman empire. In this iſland he found a retirement quite agreeable to his wiſhes; but did not long enjoy it, being ſent for back, and made *topigi* or maſter of the ordnance, a poſt of great honour and profit. He died in this employment, aged 75, in 1747, and wrote the memoirs of his own life.

BONNEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of Mount Blanc, ſeated on the N. ſide of the river Arve, at the foot of a mountain, called the Mole.

BONNEY. See BONNY, No. 2.

* BONNILY. *adv.* [from *bonny*.] Gayly; handſomely; plumply.

* BONNINESS. *n. f.* [from *bonny*.] Gayety; handſomeneſs; plumpneſs.

(1.) BONNITON, a diſtrict in Lanarkſhire.

(2.) BONNITON FALL, or BONNITON LINN, } a beautiful cataract in the above diſtrict (No. 1.) where the whole water of the river Clyde falls over a rock upwards of 12 feet perpendicular about 2½ m. above Lanark. The romantic ſcenery around this and CORRA LIN, which is farther down the Clyde, is elegantly deſcribed by Mr Lockhart of Baronald, in the *Stat. Acc.* XV. 20—22.

(1.) * BONNY. *adj.* [from *bon*, *bonne*, Fr.] is a word now almoſt confined to the Scottiſh dialect. 1. Handſome; beautiful.—

Match to match I have encounter'd him,
And made a prey for carrion kites and crows
Ev'n of the *bonny* beaſt he lov'd ſo well.
Shakeſpear.

Thus wail'd the louts in melancholy ſtrain
Till *bonny* Suſan ſpread acroſs the plain. *Gay.*

2. Gay; merry; frolickſome; cheerful; blithe.

Then ſigh not ſo, but let them go,
And be you blithe and *bonny*. *Shakeſpear.*

3. It ſeems to be generally uſed in converſation for *plump*.

(2.) BONNY, *n. f.* among miners, a bed of ore, differing only from a ſquat as being round, whereas the ſquat is flat. See SQUAT.

(3.) BONNY, a river of France.

(4.) BONNY, a town of France, in the department of Loiret and ci-devant province of Gatinois, ſeated on the confluence of the Bonny, (No. 3.) and the Loire. Lon. 2. 54. E. Lat. 47. 36.

* BONNY-CLABBER, *n. f.* A word uſed in Ireland for ſour buttermilk.—

We ſcorn, for want of talk, to jabber
Of parties o'er our *bonny-clabber*;

Nor are we ſtudious to enquire,
Who votes for manors, who for hire. *Swift.*

BONNYTOWN, a village of Fifeſhire, in the pariſh of Carnock.

BONO ET MALO, WRIT DE. A ſpecial writ of goal delivery was anciently uſed for each particular priſoner under this title; but theſe things being found inconvenient and oppreſſive, a general commiſſion for all the priſoners has long been eſtabliſhed in their ſtead.

BONONCINI, Giovanni, an eminent compoſer of muſic, who for ſome time divided the opinions of the *connoiſcenti* of this kingdom with reſpect to the comparative merits of himſelf and the great Handel; which gave occaſion for the well known epigram, on the diſputes between *Tweedle Dum* and *Tweedle Dee*, ſaid to have been written by Dr Swift. An Italian opera was publiſhed with Bononcini's name prefixed to it, intitled *Pharamond*; but whether the words, or only the muſic, are his compoſition, is uncertain; and indeed, in general, the language of thoſe pieces, written merely for muſical repreſentation, is ſo extremely paltry, that the greateſt compliment that can be paid to their authors is, to ſuffer their names to lie buried in obſcurity.

(1.) BONONIA, an ancient town of Gallia Belgica, ſuppoſed to be the *Portus Itcius* of Cæſar, and the *Geſſoriacum* of Mela. Peutinger's map correctly calls Geſſoriacum *Bononia*. It is now called BOLOGNE.

(2.) BONONIA, a town of Italy, in Gallia Ciſpadana; a name probably given by the Gauls, to diſtinguiſh it from BONONIA, (No. 1.) Its ancient name when in the hands of the Tuſcans, who were expelled by the Gauls, was FALSINA. In A. U. C. 559, the Romans led a colony thither; which, about the beginning of the Actian war, was increaſed by Auguſtus, and was the *Colonia Bononienſis* of Tacitus. It is now called Bologna. See BOLOGNA, No. 1.

(3.) BONONIA, a town of Mœſia Superior, on the Danube; now called *Bodon* in Bulgaria. See BODON.

(4.) BONONIA, a town of Pannonia Inferior, between Murſa to the N. W. and Taurinum to the E.

(5.) BONONIA, John de, a native of Sicily, archdean of Palermo, and chaplain to Charles V. He was deputed by the emperor to an aſſembly of divines, who met in 1553, to decide the queſtion whether the people ſhould be allowed to read the Bible in their native language. Bononia violently eſpouſed the *negative* ſide, and the aſſembly decided accordingly. He publiſhed a work on Predeſtination at Louvain, in 1555.

BONONIAN STONES. See BOLOGNIAN.

BONORUM ATTACHIAMENTA. See ATTACHIAMENTA.

BONOSIACI, or BONOSIANI, } an ancient branch of ADOPTIANI, in the 4th century, denominated from their leader BONOSUS a biſhop of Macedonia. The Bonoſiani were prior to the Felicians, and even to Neſtorius; whence ſome rather conſider them as a branch of Arians. See ADOPTIANI.

BONPOURNICKEL, a coarſe kind of bread uſed in Weſtphalia. See BREAD.

BONS-HOMMES, or BON-HOMMES, a ſort of hermits of St Auguſtin, founded by F. de Paula. They were brought over into England in 1283, by Emund earl of Cornwall, and ſettled at Aſhorug in Bucks, beſides which, they had only one houſe more at Edington in Wiltſhire. They followed the rule of St Auſtin, and wore a blue habit. The name is ſaid to have ariſen from Lewis XI. of France, who uſed to call F. de Paula, prior to the order, *Le bon homme*. Till then they had been called the *Minimi*, or the order of Grammont.

BONTES-HALL, a village of Derbyſhire, 6 m. N. of Wirkſworth.

BONTIA, WILD OLIVE OF BARBADOES, a genus of the angioſpermia order, belonging to the didynamia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 40th order, *Perſonatæ*. The calyx is quinquepartite; the corolla is bilabiated, the inferior lip tripartite and revolute; the plum is ovate and monoſpermous, with the apex turned to one ſide. There are two ſpecies.

1. BONTIA DAPHNOIDES has a woody ſtem and branches; riſing to the height of ten feet, with narrow, ſmooth, thickiſh leaves, crenated at the edges; and flowers from the ſides of the branches, ſucceeded by large oval fruit that ſometimes ripen in England. This ſpecies is generally cultivated in the gardens at Barbadoes for hedges; for which it is exceedingly proper, being an evergreen of very quick growth. It is ſaid, that from cuttings planted there in the rainy ſeaſon, when they have immediately taken root, there has been a complete hedge 4 or 5 feet high, in 18 months.

2. BONTIA GERMINANS grows in ſwamps, from which it has been reckoned a ſpecies of the mangrove tree. By others it has been ſuppoſed to be the plant that produces the MOLUCCA BEAN. It riſes 14 or 16 feet high, ſending out ſmall branches, which incline downward to the water, and as ſoon as they reach it, put out roots into the mud, whereby they propagate very faſt: theſe branches are garniſhed with leaves placed oppoſite; they are of a thick ſubſtance, like thoſe of the bay tree, about two inches long and one broad, very ſmooth on their ſurface: the flowers are white, and come out in the ſpikes from the upper branches. Theſe plants are eaſily propagated, either by ſeeds or cuttings, ſown or planted on a hot-bed; but they muſt be kept conſtantly in the ſtove.

BONT-VISCH, in ichthyology, the name given by the Dutch to an Eaſt Indian fiſh, ſeeming to approach to the nature of the European TURDUS, but that it has no ſcales.

BONVINCINO, Alexander, called Le MORETTO, hiſtory and portrait painter, was born at Rovate in 1514. He was the diſciple of Titian, but having ſeen the deſigns of Raphael, he gave himſelf up entirely to ſtudy thoſe maſter-pieces of art and genius; which he did with ſuch judgement, that he became an exceeding good painter. His works were eagerly bought up, being extremely admired for the tenderneſs of the pencilling; the correctneſs, and ſpirited expreſſion of the figures; the neatneſs of the finiſhing; and the rich variety of the draperies; which uſually conſiſted of velvets, damaſks, or ſattins, copied after nature. He was equally excellent in portrait, and by many was placed in competition with Titian himſelf. He died in 1564.

(1.) * BONUM MAGNUM. *n. ſ.* A ſpecies of plum.

(2.) BONUM MAGNUM [*i. e.* great good,] is alſo applied in a convivial or ludicrous ſenſe to a pint bottle of wine.

BONUS, [*i. e.* good, *Lat.*] among Stock-jobbers, a præmium given on the nominal terms of government loans. Thus, the miniſter contracts for money to be lent to government on ſpecified terms, in addition to which, he propoſes certain benefits to the lenders, as a *bonus*, in addition to the original terms; *ex. gr.* a certain number of Lottery Tickets conſiderably under the price they would fetch at market, is a very common article in the *bonus* of the loan.

BONUS HENRICUS. See CHENOPODIUM.

* BONY. *adj.* [from *bone.*] 1. Conſiſting of bones.—At the end of this hole is a membrane, faſtened to a round *bony* limb, and ſtretched like the head of a drum; and therefore, by anatomiſts, called *tympanum*. *Ray*. 2. Full of bones.

BONYCK, a village in Suſſex, N. of Horſham.

BONYE, a village in Nottinghamſhire, near Widmer Pool.

BONYNESS. *n. ſ.* the quality of being bony.

BONYTHON, a town in Cornwall, near Gunwallo, N. of Lizard Point.

(1.) BONZES, Indian prieſts. The Tonquineſe have a pagod or temple in each town; and each pagod has at leaſt two bonzes belonging to it; ſome have 30 or 40. Theſe bonzes, to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the laity, wear a chaplet about their necks conſiſting of 100 beads; and carry a ſtaff, at the end of which is a wooden bird. They live upon the alms of the people; yet are very charitably diſpoſed, and maintain ſeveral orphans and widows out of their own collections.

(2.) BONZES OF CHINA are the prieſts of the Fohiſts, or ſect of Fohi. It is one of their eſtabliſhed tenets, that great rewards are allotted for the righteous, and puniſhments for the wicked, in the next world; and that there are various manſions in which the ſouls of men will reſide, according to their different degrees of merit. But, in order to deſerve the favour of heaven, the bonzes inſtruct the people to treat the prieſts with reſpect and reverence, to ſupport and maintain them, and to erect temples and monaſteries for them. They tell them, that unleſs they comply with their injunctions, they will be cruelly tormented after death, and paſs through a diſagreeable variety of tranſmigrations: that they will be changed into mules, aſſes, rats, mice, &c. The Chineſe bonzes, according to F. le Compte, are a gang of diſſolute idle fellows. All their aim is to incite people to commiſerate their abject condition: to which end they have recourſe to various impoſtures. When the common arts of addreſs fail them, they try what public acts of penance will do. Some of them drag heavy chains 30 feet long after them; ſome ſit in the highway knocking their heads againſt flint ſtones; others ſet particular drugs on fire upon their heads; all theſe are ſeveral ways of drawing the attention and exciting the compaſſion of the people, and they ſeldom fail of ſucceſs. F. Navarette tells us, that the bonzes are obliged to chaſtity; and that, on the 2d of April, 1667, a petty king of Canton had condemned 11 of them to be burnt alive for incontinence. He adds, that it was reported of an empreſs of the laſt reigning family, who had a particular kindneſs for the bonzes, that ſhe granted them a diſpenſation for the uſe of women during three days. The bonzes of China, according to the ſame author, are computed at 50,000.

(3.) BONZES OF JAPAN are, for the generality, gentlemen of the higheſt extraction; for when a gentleman of quality finds his family grow too numerous, nay, when he has only two ſons, he generally makes the youngeſt a bonze, to prevent all domeſtic broils and confuſions. Theſe prieſts are dreſſed in various colours; their apartments are very commodious, and ſituated in the healthieſt parts of the country.

(1.) * BOOBY. *n. ſ.* [a word of no certain etymology; *Henſhaw* thinks it a corruption of *bull-beef* ridiculouſly; *Skinner* imagines it to be derived from *bobo*, fooliſh, Span. *Junius* finds *bowbard* to be an old Scottiſh word for a *coward*, a *contemptible fellow*; from which he naturally deduces *booby*; but the original of *bowbard* is not known.] A dull, heavy, ſtupid fellow; a lubber.—

But one exception to this fact we find,
That *booby* Phaon only was unkind,
An ill-bred boatman, rough as waves and wind.
Prior.

Young maſter next muſt riſe to fill him wine,
And ſtarve himſelf to ſee the *booby* dine. *King.*

(2.) BOOBY, in ornithology. See PELICANUS.

BOOD, *v. præt. obſ.* Did abide. *Chauc.*

BOODGE-BOODGE, a town of Indoſtan proper, capital of the Rajah of Cutch; 330 m. N. E. by E. of Surat. Lon. 68. 0. E. Lat. 23. 16. N.

(1.) * BOOK. *n. ſ.* [*boc*, Sax. ſuppoſe from *boc*, a beech; becauſe they wrote on *beechen* boards, as *liber* in Latin, from the rind of a tree.] 1. A volume in which we read or write.—

See a *book* of prayer in his hand;
True ornaments to know a holy man. *Shakeſp.*

Receive the ſentence of the law for ſins,
Such as by God's *book* are adjudg'd to death.
Shakeſpeare.

—In the coffin that had the *books*, they were found as freſh as if they had been but newly written; being written on parchment, and covered over with watch candles of wax. *Bacon.*—*Books* are a ſort of dumb teachers; they cannot anſwer ſuddain queſtions, or explain preſent doubts: this is properly the work of a living inſtructor. *Watts.* 2. A particular part of a work.—The firſt *book* we divide into ſections; whereof the firſt is the chapters paſt. *Burnet's Theory.* 3. The regiſter in which a trader keeps an account of his debts.—

This life
Is nobler than attending for a bauble;
Prouder, than ruſtling in unpaid-for ſilk;
Such gain the cap of him that makes them fine,
Yet keeps his *book* uncroſs'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

4. *In books.* In kind remembrance.—I was much *in his books*, that, at his deceaſe, he left me the lamp by which he uſed to write his luculbrations. *Addiſon.* 5. *Without book.* By memory by repetition; without reading.—Sermons read they abhor in the church; but ſermons *without book*, ſermons which ſpend their life in their birth and may have publick audience but once. *Hooker.*

(2.) BOOK is the general name of almoſt every literary compoſition; but, in a more limited ſenſe

is applied only to ſuch compoſitions as are large enough to make a volume; ſmall tracts being ſtiled *Pamphlets*.

(5.) BOOKS, ANCIENT. The books of Moſes are undoubtedly the moſt ancient extant: But Moſes himſelf cites the *Book of the Wars of the Lord*, (Num. xxi. 14.) which muſt have been written before his time, unleſs, as ſome commentators judiciouſly ſuppoſe, this book had been previouſly wrote by himſelf. Of profane books, the oldeſt extant are Homer's poems, which were ſo even in the time of Sextus Empiricus; though we find mention in Greek writers of 70 others prior to Homer; as Hermes, Orpheus, Daphne, Horus, Linus, Muſæus, Palamedes, Zoroaſter, &c. but of the greater part of theſe there is not the leaſt fragment remaining; and of others, the pieces which go under their names are generally held, by the learned, to be ſuppoſititious.

(4.) BOOKS, ANCIENT MATERIALS OF. Several ſorts of materials were uſed formerly in making books: Plates of lead and copper, the barks of trees, bricks, ſtone, and wood, were the firſt materials employed to engrave ſuch things upon, as men wiſhed to tranſmit to poſterity. Joſephus ſpeaks of two columns, the one of ſtone, the other of brick, on which the children of Seth wrote their inventions and aſtronomical diſcoveries: Porphyry mentions ſome pillars, preſerved in Crete, on which the ceremonies practiſed by the Corybantes in their ſacrifices were recorded. Heſiod's works were originally written upon tables of lead, and depoſited in the temple of the Muſes, in Beotia: The ten commandments, delivered to Moſes, were written upon ſtone; and Solon's laws upon wooden planks. Tables of wood, box, and ivory, were common among the ancients: When of wood, they were frequently covered with wax, that people might write upon them with more eaſe, or blot out what they had written. The leaves of the palm-tree were afterwards uſed inſtead of wooden planks, and the fineſt and thinneſt part of the bark of trees, particularly of the tilia, ſalix, papyrus, the lime, the aſh, the mapple, and the elm. Hence the word *liber*, which ſignifies the inner bark of trees: and as theſe barks were rolled up, in order to be removed with greater eaſe, theſe rolls were called *volumina*, volumes; a name afterwards given to rolls of paper and parchment. Linen, ſilk, and horn, have alſo been uſed for writing, and laſtly paper itſelf. Barks appear ſtill in ſome meaſure retained for books in certain northern countries, as among the Calmuc Tartars where a library was diſcovered by the Ruſſians. The books were exceedingly long, but of no breadth: the leaves very thick, and made of barks of trees, ſmeared over with double vermilion; the ink, or writing, being white on a black ground.

(5.) BOOKS, APOCRYPHAL. See APOCRYPHA, § 2. and BIBLE, § VII.

(6.) BOOKS, BURNING OF, was a puniſhment much uſed among the Romans, by legal ſentence. Sometimes the care of the execution was committed to *triumviri* appointed on purpoſe; ſometimes to the prætors, and ſometimes to the ædiles. Labienus is ſaid to have been the firſt who underwent the ſeverity of it. See LABIENUS. Various other ancient teſtimonies concerning the burning of books are given in *Reimm. Idea Syſt. Antiq. Liter. p.* 389.

(7.) BOOKS, EVERLASTING. We find in Signior Caſtagnatta's account of ASBESTOS, a ſcheme for making books, which from the imperiſhable nature of their materials, he is for calling the *books of eternity*. The leaves he propoſes to be of the aſbeſtos paper; the covers of a thicker ſort of work of the ſame matter, and the whole ſewed together with thread ſpun from the ſame ſubſtance. The things to be commemorated in them were to be written in letters of gold; ſo that the whole matter being incombuſtible and everlaſtingly permanent againſt the force of all the elements, and ſubject to no changes from fire, water, or air, muſt remain for ever, and always preſerve the writings committed to them. He carried his project ſo far as to make paper from the aſbeſtos, quite ſoft and tractable, and capable of being thickened or thinned at pleaſure, yet in either ſtate equally reſiſting the fire.

(8.) BOOKS, FORMS OF. The firſt books were in the form of blocks and tables; (§ 4.) but as flexible matter came to be wrote on, it was found more convenient to make them in the form of rolls: Theſe were compoſed of ſeveral ſheets faſtened to each other, and rolled upon a ſtick, or *umbilicus*; the whole making a kind of column, or cylinder, which was to be managed by the umbilicus as a handle, it being reputed a crime to take hold of the roll itſelf: The outſide of the volume was called *frons*; the ends of the umbilicus, *cornua*, which were uſually carved, and adorned with ſilver, ivory, or even gold and precious ſtones: The title, σιλλαβος, was ſtuck on the outſide; the whole volume, when extended, might make a yard and a half wide, and 50 long. This form was long in uſe among the ancient Jews, Greeks, Indians, Perſians, and Romans. The form which now prevails is the ſquare, compoſed of ſeparate leaves; which was alſo known, though little uſed, by the ancients; having been invented by Attalus king of Pergamus, who alſo invented parchment. This form has now prevailed for ſo many ages, that few MSS. in the roll form are extant. Montfaucon only met with two among all the ancient Greek MSS. he had ſeen.

(9.) BOOKS, INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF. The order and arrangement of letters into lines and pages, with points, margins, and other appurtenants, have undergone many variations. At firſt the letters were only divided into lines; then into ſeparate words; which by degrees were noted with accents, and diſtributed, by points and ſtops, into periods, paragraphs, chapters, &c. In ſome countries, as among the orientals, the lines began from the right and ran leftward; in others, as the northern and weſtern nations, from left to right; others, as the Greeks, followed both directions, alternately going in the one, and returning in the other, called BOUSTROPHEDON: In moſt countries, the lines run from one ſide to the other; in ſome, particularly the Chineſe, from top to bottom.

(10.) BOOKS, MULTITUDE OF, has been long complained of: the complaint is as old as Solomon, who lived 3000 years ago: they are grown

too numerous not only to procure and read, but to ſee, to learn the names of, or even to number. As knowledge, however, is naturally advantageous, and as every man ought to be in the way of information, even a ſuperfluity of books is not without its uſe, ſince hereby they are brought to obtrude themſelves on us, and engage us when we have leaſt deſign. This advantage, an ancient father obſerves, we owe to the multiplicity of books on the ſame ſubject, that one falls in the way of one man, and another beſt ſuits the level or the apprehenſion of another. "Every thing that is written (ſays he) does not come into the hands of all perſons: perhaps ſome may meet with my books, who may hear nothing of others, which have treated better of the ſame ſubject. It is of ſervice, therefore, that the ſame queſtions be handled by ſeveral perſons, and after different methods, though all on the ſame principles, that the explications of difficulties and arguments for the truth, may come to the knowledge of every one by one way or other." The multitude of books, before the invention of printing was the only ſecurity againſt the total loſs of them: it is this that has preſerved them againſt the injuries of time, the rage of tyrants, the zeal of perſecutors, and the ravages of barbarians; and handed them down, through long intervals of darkneſs and ignorance, ſafe to our days. *Solaque non norunt hæc monumenta mori:* Books are the only immortal monuments.

(11.) BOOKS, SCARCITY OF. Of the ſcarcity and value of books during the 7th and many ſubſequent centuries, the following curious account is given by Mr Warton in his hiſtory of Engliſh Poetry, vol. i. "Towards the cloſe of the 7th century, (ſays he,) even in the papal library at Rome, the number of books was ſo inconſiderable, that pope St Martin requeſted Sanctamand biſhop of Maeſtricht, if poſſible, to ſupply this defect from the remoteſt parts of Germany. In 855, Lupus, abbot of Ferrieres in France, ſent two of his monks to Pope Benedict III. to beg a copy of *Cicero de Oratore*, and Quintilian's Inſtitutes, and ſome other books: 'for (ſays the abbot,) although we have part of theſe books, yet there is no whole or complete copy of them in all France.' Albert, abbot of Gemblours, who with incredible labour and immenſe expence had collected 100 volumes on theological, and 50 on profane, ſubjects, imagined he had formed a ſplendid library. About A. D. 790, Charlemagne granted an unlimited right of hunting to the abbot and monks of Sithin, for making covers for their books of the ſkins of the deer they killed. Theſe religious were probably more fond of hunting than reading; and, under theſe circumſtances, did not manufacture many volumes. At the beginning of the 10th century books were ſo ſcarce in Spain, that one copy of the bible, St Jerom's epiſtles, and ſome volumes of eccleſiaſtical offices and martyrologies, often ſerved ſeveral different monaſteries. In an inventory of the goods of John de Pontiſſara, biſhop of Wincheſter, in his palace of Wulveſey, all the books are only *Septemdecim peciem librorum de diverſis ſcientiis*. This was in 1294. The ſame prelate, in 1299, borrows of his cathedral convent of St Swithin at Wincheſter, *Bibliam bene gloſſatam;* i. e. the Bible with marginal Annotations, in 2 large folio volumes; but gives a bond for due return of the loan, drawn up with great ſolemnity. This Bible had been bequeathed to the convent by Pontiſſara's predeceſſor, biſhop Nicholas de Ely: and in conſideration of ſo important a bequeſt, *pro bona Biblia dicti epiſcopi bene gloſſata*, and 100 marks in money, the monks founded a daily maſs for the ſoul of the donor. When a ſingle book was bequeathed to a friend, it was ſeldom without many reſtrictions. If any perſon gave a book to a religious houſe, he believed that ſo valuable a donation merited eternal ſalvation; and he offered it on the altar with great ceremony. The moſt formidable anathemas were peremptorily denounced, againſt thoſe who ſhould dare to alienate a book preſented to the cloiſter or library of a religious houſe. The prior and convent of Rocheſter declare, that they will every year pronounce the irrevocable ſentence of *damnation* on him who ſhall purloin or conceal a Latin tranſlation of Ariſtotle's Phyſics, or even obliterate the title. Sometimes a book was given to a monaſtery on condition that the donor ſhould have the uſe of it during his life; and ſometimes to a private perſon, on the terms that he who received it ſhould pray for the ſoul of his benefactor. When a book was bought, the affair was of ſo much importance, that it was cuſtomary to aſſemble perſons of conſequence and character, and to make a formal record that they were preſent. Among the royal MSS. in the book of the Sentences of Peter Lombard, an archdeacon of Lincoln has left this entry. 'This book of the Sentences belongs to maſter Robert archdeacon of Lincoln, which he bought of Geoffrey the chaplain, brother of Henry vicar of Northelking ton, in the preſence of maſter Robert de Ler maſter John of Lirling, Richard of Luda clerk Richard the almoner, the ſaid Henry the vicar and his clerk, and others: and the ſaid archdeacon gave the ſaid book to God and Saint Oſwald and to Peter abbot of Barton, and the convent o Barden.' The diſputed property of a book often occaſioned the moſt violent altercations. Many claims appear to have been made to a MS. of Matthew Paris, belonging to the laſt mentioned library; in which John Ruſſell, biſhop of Lincoln conditionally defends or explains his right of poſſeſſion; and concludes thus; A. D. 1488, "Whoever ſhall obliterate or deſtroy this writing, le him be anathema." About 1225, Roger de In ſula, dean of York, gave ſeveral Latin bibles to the univerſity of Oxford, on the condition, tha the ſtudents who peruſed them ſhould depoſite a cautionary pledge. The library of that univerſity, before A. D. 1300, conſiſted only of a few tracts, chained or kept in cheſts in the choir o St Mary's church. In 1327, the ſcholars and citizens of Oxford pillaged the opulent Benedictin abbey of the neighbouring town of Abingdon Among the books they found there, were 10 pſalters, as many grayles, 40 miſſals, which un doubtedly belonged to the choir of the church and 22 codices, on common ſubjects. And al though the invention of paper, at the cloſe of th 11th century, contributed to multiply MSS. an conſequently to facilitate knowledge, yet, even ſo late as the reign of Henry VI. the following re

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markable inſtance occurred of the inconveniences and impediments to ſtudy, which muſt have been produced by a ſcarcity of books. It is in the ſtatutes of St Mary's college at Oxford, founded as a ſeminary to Oſeney abbey in 1446: 'Let no ſcholar occupy a book in the library above one hour, or two hours at moſt; ſo that others ſhall not be hindered from the uſe of the ſame.' The famous library eſtabliſhed in the univerſity of Oxford by that munificent patron of literature, Humphrey duke of Glouceſter, contained only 600 vols. About the commencement of the 14th century there were only 4 claſſics in the royal library at Paris. Theſe were one copy of Cicero, Ovid, Lucan, and Boethius. The reſt were chiefly books of devotion, which included but few of the fathers: many treatiſes of aſtrology, geomancy, chiromancy, and medicine, originally written in Arabic, and tranſlated into Latin or French: pandects, chronicles, and romances. This collection was principally made by Charles V. who began his reign in 1365. This monarch was paſſionately fond of reading; and it was the cuſtom to ſend him preſents of books from every part of the kingdom of France. Theſe he ordered to be elegantly tranſcribed and richly illuminated; and he placed them in a tower of the Louvre, from thence called *La Toure de la Libraire*. The whole conſiſted of 900 volumes. They were depoſited in 3 chambers, wainſcotted with Iriſh oak, and ceiled with cypreſs curiouſly carved. The windows were of painted glaſs, fenced with iron bars and copper wire. The Engliſh became maſters of Paris in the year 1425; on which event the Duke of Bedford, regent of France, ſent the whole library, then conſiſting of only 853 volumes, and valued at 2223 livres, into England; where perhaps they became the ground-work of Duke Humphrey's library. Even ſo late as the year 1471, when Louis XI. of France borrowed the works of the Arabian phyſician, Rhaſis, from the faculty of medicine at Paris, he not only depoſited by way of pledge a quantity of valuable plate, but was obliged to procure a nobleman to join with him as a ſurety in a deed, by which he bound himſelf to return it, under a conſiderable forfeiture. The exceſſive prices of books in the middle ages afford numerous and curious proofs. In 1174, Water, prior of St Swithin's at Wincheſter, a writer in Latin of the lives of the biſhops who were his patrons, purchaſed of the monks of Dorcheſter in Oxfordſhire, Bede's Homilies and St Austin's Pſalter, for 32 meaſures of barley, and a cow on which was embroidered in ſilver the hiſtory of St Birinus converting a Saxon king. Among the royal MSS. in the Britiſh muſeum there is Comeſtor's Scholaſtic Hiſtory in French; which, as it is recorded in a blank page at the beginning, was taken from the king of France at the battle of Poictiers; and being purchaſed by William Montague Earl of Saliſbury for 100 marcs, was ordered to be ſold by the laſt will of his counteſs Elizabeth for 40 livres. About A. D. 1400, a copy of Jean of Meun's *Roman de la Roze* was ſold before the palace gate at Paris for 40 crs. or 33l. 6s. 6d."

(12.) Books, Sybilline, in Roman antiquity, were books ſaid to have been compoſed by thoſe pretended prophetеſſes, the Sybils, and carefully depoſited in the Capitol, to be conſulted in all extraordinary emergencies. See Sybils.

* *To* Book. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To regiſter in a book.—I beſeech your grace, let it be *booked* with the reſt of this day's deeds; or I will have it in a particular ballad elſe, with mine own picture on the top of it. *Shakeſpeare.*—He made wilful murder high treaſon; he cauſed the marchers to *book* their men, for whom they ſhould make anſwer. *Davies on Ireland.*—

* BOOKBINDER. *n. ſ.* [from *book* and *bind.*] A man whoſe profeſſion it is to cover books.

BOOK-BINDING, the art of gathering together and ſewing the ſheets of a book, and covering it with a back, &c. It is performed thus: The leaves are firſt folded with a folding-ſtick, and laid over each other in the order of the ſignature; then beaten on a ſtone with an hammer, to make them ſmooth and open well; and afterwards preſſed. They are ſewed upon bands, which are pieces of cord or packthread; fix bands to a folio book; five to a 4to, 8vo, &c. which is done by drawing a thread through the middle of each ſheet, and giving it a turn round each band, beginning with the firſt and proceeding to the laſt. After this the books are glued, and the bands opened and ſcraped, for the better fixing the paſteboards; the back is turned with a hammer, and the book fixed in a preſs between two boards, in order to make a groove for fixing the paſteboards; theſe being applied to the ſides of the book, holes are made for faſtening them to it, when it is preſſed a third time. Then the book is at laſt put to the cutting preſs, betwixt two boards; the one lying even with the preſs, for the knife to run upon; the other above it, for the knife to run againſt: after which the paſteboards are ſquared. The next operation is the ſprinkling the leaves of the book; which is done by dipping a bruſh into vermillion or ſap-green, holding the bruſh in one hand, and ſpreading the hair with the other; by which motion the edges of the leaves are ſprinkled in a regular manner, without any ſpots being bigger than the others. There remain the covers, which are either of calf-ſkin or of ſheep ſkin: theſe being moiſtened in water, are cut out to the ſize of the book; then ſmeared over with paſte made of wheat-flour; and afterwards ſtretched over the paſteboard on the outſide, and doubled over the edges within-ſide; after having firſt taken off the four angles, and indented and platted the cover at the head-band; which done, the book is covered, and bound firmly between two boards, and then ſet to dry. Afterwards it is waſhed over with a little paſte and water, and then ſprinkled with a fine bruſh, unleſs it ſhould be marbled; when the ſpots are to be made larger by mixing the ink with vitriol. After this the book is glazed twice with the white of an egg beaten, and at laſt poliſhed with a poliſhing iron paſſed hot over the glazed cover.

* BOOKFUL. *adj.* [from *book* and *full.*] Full of notions gleaned from books; crowded with undigeſted knowledge.—

The *bookful* blockhead, ignorantly read,
With loads of learned lumber in his head,
With his own tongue ſtill edifies his ears,
And always liſt'ning to himſelf appears.

* BOOKISH. *adj.* [from *book*.] Given to books; acquainted only with books. It is generally uſed contemptuouſly.—

I'll make him yield the crown,
Whoſe *bookiſh* rule hath pull'd fair England down. *Shakeſpeare.*

—I'm not *bookiſh*, yet I can read waiting-gentlewoman in the 'ſcape. *Shakeſpeare's Winter's Tale.*

—Xantippe follows her nameſake; being married to a *bookiſh* man, who has no knowledge of the world. *Spectator.*

* BOOKISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bookiſh*.] Much application to books; over-ſtudiouſneſs.

BOOK-KEEPER, *n. ſ.* one who keeps the accounts of another. *Aſh.*

BOOK-KEEPING.

INTRODUCTION.

DEFINITION, *and* GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) * BOOK-KEEPING. *n. ſ.* [from *book* and *keep*.] The art of keeping accounts, or recording pecuniary tranſactions, in ſuch a manner, that at any time a man may thereby know the true ſtate of the whole, or any part, of his affairs, with clearneſs and expedition. *Harris.*

(2.) A merchant's books ſhould contain every particular which relates to his affairs. They ſhould exhibit the ſtate of his buſineſs, the connection of the different parts, the amount and ſucceſs of the whole. They ſhould be ſo arranged, as to afford ready information in every point for which they may be conſulted.

(3.) The matter they ſhould contain is comprehended under the following heads: I. The debts owing to the owner, and the debts he owes to others. II. The articles of property which belonged to him; the quantity and value ſold, or otherwiſe diſpoſed of; and the quantity and value which ſtill remain in his poſſeſſion. III. The amount of his ſtock when the books were opened; the profits he has obtained, and the loſſes he has ſuffered, ſince; and the amount of his ſtock at preſent.

(4.) That method of book-keeping which anſwers theſe purpoſes moſt clearly and conciſely, is the beſt. The ITALIAN METHOD, by DOUBLE ENTRY, is generally preferred; at leaſt, it is founded upon the moſt univerſal principles, and is the moſt convenient in extenſive and complicated buſineſs: and the accountant who underſtands it, will find little difficulty in following, or even in inventing other methods that are better accommodated to any particular purpoſe.

(5.) But as the method by SINGLE ENTRY, has alſo its advantages, being more convenient for tradeſmen, and all others who do not carry on buſineſs very extenſively, we ſhall ſubjoin directions reſpecting that method; and conclude with an account of the SUBSIDIARY BOOKS, moſt of which are equally neceſſary in both methods.

PART I.

OF THE ITALIAN METHOD BY DOUBLE ENTRY.

(6.) The Italian method requires three principal books, *viz.* the Waſte Book, Journal and Leger.

SECT. I. *Of the* WASTE BOOK.

(7.) The waſte book, or day book, contains an inſter of all occurrences in buſineſs in the ſame order as they take place. It begins with an inventory of every thing belonging to the owner, a liſt of the debts due to him, and of the debts he owes to others: It is carried on with a full relation of all the money he receives or pays; of all the goods he buys or ſells; and of every other occurrence in his buſineſs. Each article ſhould be entered as ſoon as the tranſaction takes place, and ſhould be clearly expreſſed in the plaineſt language. It ſhould require no ſupply from the accountant's memory, but ſhould be fully intelligible to any perſon, however unacquainted with the buſineſs: at the ſame time, it ſhould be written with all convenient brevity; and, therefore, ſometimes refers to invoices and other accounts, for particulars. The accountant's firſt care ſhould be to have nothing defective or ambiguous; his ſecond, to have nothing ſuperfluous.

(8.) The date is written in text on the top of each page. The articles are ſeparated from each other by a line; and the tranſactions of one day are ſeparated from thoſe of another by a double line, in the middle of which there is a blank ſpace for inſerting the day of the month. This book muſt be kept with the greater care and accuracy, as it contains the materials from which the other books are compoſed. Beſides, it is the book whoſe authority is truſted to, and which muſt be exhibited to judges, or arbiters, when an account is diſputed. As the journal is filled up from the waſte-book, the authority of the latter is eſteemed more authentic, unleſs there be an obvious miſtake through hurry; and either of theſe books is depended on rather than the leger, which, from its form, is more liable to error, and may be more eaſily vitiated by a fraudulent deſign.

(9.) As the waſte-book contains the whole ſubſtance of the buſineſs, it may be applied ſo as to afford any information that can be wanted: but the labour of conſulting it would be very great, and much expoſed to the riſk of omiſſions. To prevent this inconvenience, the leger is uſed, in which the articles are arranged in a methodical order. We ſhall conſider it next; becauſe the journal, though it comes before it in the order of writing, cannot be well underſtood till the nature of the leger be explained.

SECT. II. *Of the* LEGER.

(10.) In the leger, articles of the ſame kind are collected together; and, for that purpoſe, it is divided into many accounts, under which the different branches of buſineſs are arranged. Each account is introduced by a proper title, to explain the nature of the articles it contains; and articles

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of oppoſite kinds, which belong to the ſame account, are placed on the oppoſite pages of the ſame folio: for inſtance, money received on the one ſide, and money paid on the other; or goods bought on the one ſide, and goods ſold on the other. The left-hand page is called the *Debtor* ſide of the account, and the right hand page the *Creditor* ſide. The difference between the ſums of the Dr. and Cr. ſide is called the *Balance*.

(11.) Accounts in the leger are of three kinds, which anſwer to the three purpoſes of book-keeping mentioned § 3.

(12.) I. PERSONAL Accounts. It is neceſſary to open an account for every perſon or company with whom there are any dealings on credit. At opening the books, if they be indebted to the owner, the debt is entered on the Dr.; but, if he be indebted to them, it is entered on the Cr. During the courſe of the buſineſs, goods ſold on truſt, money paid, and every thing for which they are accountable to him, is entered on the Dr.; but goods bought on truſt, money received, and every thing for which he is accountable to them, is entered on the Cr. The balance ſhows how much they owe him, when the Dr. ſide is greateſt; and how much he owes them, when the Cr. ſide is greater.

(13.) II. REAL accounts. By this we underſtand accounts of property of whatever kind, ſuch as ready money, goods, houſes, lands, ſhips, ſhares in public companies, and the like.

(14.) The account of ready money is intitled *Caſh*. On the Dr. ſide, the money on hand at opening the books is entered, and afterwards every article of money received. On the Cr. ſide, there is entered every article of money paid out; and the balance ſhows how much ought to be on hand. The ſum of the Dr. ſide of this account is always greater than that of the Cr. ſide.

(15.) Accounts of goods are generally ruled with inner columns for entering the quantities. When the books are opened, the goods on hand are entered on the Dr. ſide of the reſpective accounts; the quantities being placed in the inner, and the values in the outer column. Goods bought are entered in the ſame manner, and goods ſold are entered on the Cr. ſide; the quantities and values being placed in the proper columns. Charges laid out on goods are entered on the Dr. ſide; and, when an incidental advantage ariſes from them, ſuch as the public bounty, it is entered on the Cr. If the ſums of the inner columns on the oppoſite ſides be equal, it ſhows that the goods are all ſold, and then the balance of the outer column ſhows the gain or loſs. If the Cr. ſide be greater, it is gain; if the Dr. ſide be greater, it is loſs. If the ſum of the inner column be greater on the Dr. ſide, it ſhows that part of the goods are on hand; and their value muſt be added to the ſum of the Cr. ſide, in order to determine the gain or loſs.

(16.) If there be two or more kinds of the ſame ſort of goods, they may be entered in the ſame account, allowing as many inner columns as there are kinds, and entering the quantities of each kind in the inner column reſerved for it. This method exhibits the gain or loſs on the whole goods; but does not ſhow how much of it ariſes from each kind. Or, a ſeparate account may be opened for each kind, diſtinguiſhing the titles by the qualities, or by ſome other mark. Thus, one account may be kept for fine linen, another for coarſe linen; &c. and thus the gain or loſs on each kind, will be ſeen.

(17.) When there are more kinds than can be conveniently introduced in the ſame account, they may be divided into ſeveral claſſes, each claſs being placed in a ſeparate account; and the particular kinds diſtinguiſhed in inner columns. Thus the account of fine linen may be divided into ſeveral columns, for different kinds, diſtinguiſhed by the number of threads in the breadth, or by any other convenient character.

(18.) Accounts of ſhips contain on the Dr. the value of the ſhip when the books are opened, and all expences laid out thereon; on the Cr. all freights received. In like manner, accounts of houſes or lands have the value of the ſubject, and all repairs, or other charges, entered on the Dr. and all rents or other profits received on the Cr. If the ſubject be ſold in whole or in part, the ſale is entered on the Cr. And the balance, after valuing the ſubject (if any) on hand, ſhows the gain or loſs.

(19.) Accounts of property in the public funds, or ſhares in companies, public or private, contain the value, or money paid in, on the Dr. and the dividends received on the Cr. and are balanced as other real accounts. Some perſons open accounts for houſehold furniture, plate, jewels, books, or the like. The entries on theſe accounts are made in the ſame manner. In general, real accounts contain the value of the property, and all charges, on the Dr. and the ſales and other returns on the Cr. When the account is to be balanced, if any property remains, the value thereof is placed on the Cr.; and then the balance ſhows the loſs or gain, according as the Dr. or Cr. ſide is greateſt.

(20.) III. Accounts of STOCK, PROFIT and LOSS, and their ſubſidiary accounts, which are ſometimes called *fictitious accounts*.

(21.) The STOCK account contains on the Dr. the amount of the debts which the owner owes when the books are opened; and on the Cr. the amount of ready money, goods, debts, and property of every kind belonging to him: therefore the balance ſhows what his nett ſtock is; or, in caſe of bankruptcy, how much his debts exceed his effects. There is nothing further entered on this account till the books are balanced: and then, if the buſineſs has yielded profit, the nett gain is entered on the Cr.; if it has been unſucceſsful, the nett loſs is entered on the Dr.: after which the balance ſhows the nett ſtock at the time the books are cloſed.

(22.) The PROFIT *and* LOSS account contains every article of gain on the Cr. and every article of loſs on the Dr. The balance ſhows the nett gain or loſs, and is transferred to the proper ſide of the ſtock-account, as mentioned above. This account is partly compoſed of articles that occur while the books are running. For example, legacies received are entered on the Cr. goods deſtroyed on the Dr. The reſt of the articles are thoſe of

of gain and loſs, ariſing from the real accounts, which are collected, when the books are balanced.

(23.) It has been found convenient to open ſeveral SUBSIDIARY ACCOUNTS, in order to ſhorten and methodiſe that of profit and loſs. Theſe contain certain articles of gain or loſs, which may be reduced under diſtinct heads. They are in effect ſo many parts of the profit and loſs account, and their balances are entered on the proper ſide of that account when the books are cloſed. Thus,

(24.) The *Intereſt account* contains on the Dr. ſums paid or incurred for intereſt; and on the Cr. ſums received, or become due for it.

(25.) *Commiſſion account* contains on the Cr. articles of gain received or owing for trouble in tranſacting buſineſs for others. There are ſeldom any entries on the Dr.

(26.) *Charges of merchandiſe* contains on the Dr. all charges paid or incurred on the buſineſs, which do not belong to any particular account, as ſhop-rent, public burdens for trade, clerks wages, poſtages, and the like. If any of theſe ſhould afterwards be charged to ſome other account, the ſum ſo charged is entered on the Cr.

(27.) *Account of proper expences* contains on the Dr. money or any thing elſe, withdrawn from the trade for our private uſe. There are ſeldom any entries on the Cr. The amount of this account, as well as the former, is not properly loſs; but as it has the ſame effect in diminiſhing the ſtock, it is placed in the ſame manner to the Dr. of profit and loſs.

(28.) *Loſs by bad debts* contains on the Dr. ſuch debts as we reckon deſperate; and on the Cr. any of theſe which may happen to be unexpectedly recovered.

(29.) *Account of abatements* contains on the Dr. diſcounts allowed by us on payments received; on the Cr. diſcounts allowed to us on payment made. It is particularly uſeful in retail buſineſs, where diſcounts are often given, to ſhow how much they amount to.

(30.) *Inſurance account* contains on the Cr. premiums received for making inſurances; and, on the Dr. loſſes ſuſtained on the ſame; there may be ſeveral accounts of this kind. Inſurances againſt ſea-hazard and fire are the moſt common. The balance ſhews the gain or loſs which ariſes from being concerned in inſurance.

(31.) Every ſimple tranſaction in buſineſs belongs to two accounts, and muſt be entered on the Dr. of the one and on the Cr. of the other. Hence the diſtinguiſhing title of this method, *by double entry*. Thus, when a perſon becomes indebted to us, the article he owes muſt be entered on the Dr. of his account; and, if it be for money paid him, it is alſo entered on the Cr. of caſh; if for goods ſold, it is entered on the Cr. of the account of goods; if for any thing delivered him by another perſon at our deſire, it is entered on the Cr. of the deliverer's account; if for any wager or bargain, by which we are gainers, it is entered on the Cr. of profit and loſs. Thus, in whatever way the debt ariſes, it is entered on the Cr. of ſome other account, as well as on the Dr. of the perſon's account who owes it.

In like manner, when we become indebted to any perſon, the article we owe muſt be entered on the Cr. of his account. If it be for money received, it is alſo entered on the Dr. of caſh; if for goods bought, it is entered on the Dr. of the account of goods; if for any thing delivered to another perſon at our deſire, it is entered on the Dr. of the receiver's account; and if it be in conſequence of a loſing bargain, it is entered on the Dr. of profit and loſs.

(33.) When goods are received, the tranſaction is entered on the Dr. of the account of goods. If they are bought for ready money, it is alſo entered on the Cr. of caſh; if on truſt, it is entered on the Cr. of the ſeller; if they be exchanged for other goods, it is entered on the Cr. of the goods delivered; if they be obtained by ſome profitable buſineſs, without any return, it is entered on the Cr. of profit and loſs.

(34.) When goods are delivered, the tranſaction is entered on the Cr. of the account of goods; and, if they be ſold for ready money, it is alſo entered on the Dr. of caſh; if on credit, it is entered on the Dr. of the purchaſer; if exchanged for other goods, it is entered on the Dr. of the goods received; and, if they be given gratis, or deſtroyed, it is entered on the Dr. of profit and loſs.

(35.) When any loſs occurs, the tranſaction is entered on the Dr. of profit and loſs; and as we muſt either pay it in money or goods, or remain indebted to ſome perſon for it, it muſt be entered on the Cr. of caſh, or of goods delivered, or of the perſon intitled to receive it. And, when an article of gain occurs, it is entered on the Cr. of profit and loſs, and alſo on the Dr. of caſh or goods, if money or goods be received; and on the Dr. of the perſon accountable for it, if not immediately paid.

(36.) Thus, every article in any account, whether perſonal or real, or belonging to profit and loſs, correſponds to ſome other article on the oppoſite of a different account. The ſame ſum is entered on the Dr. of one account and on the Cr of the other; and it follows from this, that, *If all the accounts in the leger be added, the amount of the ſums of the Dr. will be equal to thoſe of the Cr.*

SECT. III. *Of the* JOURNAL.

(37.) The journal is a fair record of all the tranſactions compiled from the waſte-book, in the ſame order as they ſtand there; but expreſſed in a technical ſtyle, that it may be transferred to the leger with more eaſe.

(38.) When we are to enter any article in the journal, we muſt conſider which account in the leger it will require to be placed to, both on the Dr. and Cr. and write *the former account Dr. to the latter account;* then we annex an explanation of the article, and place the ſum in the money column.

(39.) EXAMPLE.—Waſte-book.) Sold for ready money, 30 yards linen, at 3s L.4 10 –

Journal.) *Caſh Dr. to Linen.* Sold 30 yards, at 3s L.4 10 –

Here we conſider, that the article muſt be entered on the Dr. of caſh, becauſe money is received, and on the Cr. of linen, becauſe linen is delivered. Therefore we write *Caſh Dr. to Linen*, to which we annex the nature of the tranſaction. The article

ed to any perſon, the article re
tered on the Cr. of his account.
ney received, it is alſo entered
if for goods bought, it is entered
the account of goods; if for
to another perſon at our
the Dr. of the receiver's
conſequence of a loſing
the Dr. of profit and loſs.

(33.) When goods are received,
is entered on the Dr. of the
they are bought for ready money,
ed on the Cr. of caſh; if on
the Cr. of the ſeller; if they be
ther goods, it is entered on the
delivered; if they be obtained by
buſineſs, without any return,
Cr. of profit and loſs.

(34.) When goods are delivered,
is entered on the Cr. of the
and, if they be ſold for ready money,
tered on the Dr. of caſh; if on
ed on the Dr. of the purchaſer;
other goods, it is entered on the
received; and, if they be given
ed, it is entered on the Dr. of

(35.) When any loſs occurs,
entered on the Dr. of profit and loſs;
muſt either pay it in money or goods,
indebted to ſome perſon for it,
on the Cr. of caſh, or of goods
the perſon intitled to receive it.
article of gain occurs, it is
profit and loſs, and alſo on the
goods, if money or goods be
Dr. of the perſon accountable for
diately paid.

(36.) Thus, every article in
ther perſonal or real, or
loſs, correſponds to ſome
poſite of a different
entered on the Dr. of one
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(39.) EXAMPLE.—Waſte-book.
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Journal.) *Caſh Dr. to Linen.*

Here we conſider, that the article
on the Dr. of caſh, becauſe
and on the Cr. of linen, becauſe
Therefore we write *Caſh Dr. to Linen*
we annex the nature of the

ticle thus entered is called a *journal-poſt*; *Caſh* is called the *Dr.*; *Linen* the *Cr.*; the words "Caſh Dr. to Linen," the *Entry*, and the words that follow, the *Narration*.

(40.) The purpoſe of expreſſing the article in this form, is to point out the accounts in the leger, to which it will require to be poſted, and thereby enable the accountant to write the leger with more eaſe than he could do, if it were filled up immediately from the waſte-book. The learner will be able, from this example, to enter any ſimple article in the journal, providing he knows the accounts to which it ſhould be poſted on the Dr. and Cr. of the leger. This muſt be collected from the deſcription of the leger accounts already given, § 12—40, and the nature and tendency of the article.

(41.) GENERAL RULES *for* JOURNAL ENTRIES.

I. *Every thing received, or perſon accountable to us, is* Dr.

II. *Every thing delivered, or perſon to whom we are accountable, is* Cr.

(42.) As the whole art of writing the journal depends on a proper choice of the Drs. and Crs. we ſhall give ſome particular rules for the moſt common caſes, and a few examples for the illuſtration and practice of each.

(43.) Rule I. *The perſon to whom any thing is delivered, is* Dr. *to the thing delivered, when nothing is received in return.* Therefore when money is paid, the receiver is Dr. to caſh. When goods or other property is ſold on credit, the purchaſer is Dr. to the thing ſold. Thus,

Waſte-book.) Paid Alex. Don in full	L. 52	— —
Journal.) *Alex. Don Dr. to Caſh*, paid him in full	52	— —
Waſte-book.) Sold 30 yards cloth to John Taylor, at 12s	30	— —
Journal.) *J. Taylor Dr. to Cloth*, ſold him 30 yards, at 12s.	30	— —

(44.) Rule II. *A thing received is* Dr. *to the perſon from whom it is received, when nothing is delivered in return.* Therefore, when money is received, Caſh is Dr. to the payer: when goods are bought, the goods are Dr. to the ſeller. Thus,

Waſte-book.) Received from Peter Montgenny, in full	L. 72	— —
Journal.) *Caſh Dr. to P. Monigenny*, received in full	72	— —
Waſte-book.) Bought from S. Shearer 60lb. wool, at 9d	2	5 —
Journal.) *Wool Dr. to S. Shearer*, bought 60lb. at 9d	2	5 —

(45.) Rule III. *A thing received is* Dr. *to the thing given for it.* Therefore goods bought for ready money are Dr. to caſh. When goods are ſold for ready money, Caſh is Dr. to the goods. When goods are bartered, the goods received are Dr. to the goods delivered. Thus,

Waſte-book.) Bought for ready money to hds. wine, at L. 15	L. 150	— —
Journal.) *Wine Dr. to Caſh*, bought to hds. at L. 15	150	— —
Waſte-book.) Sold for ready money 100 gallons rum, at 9s	45	— —
Journal.) *Caſh Dr. to Rum*, ſold 300 gallons, at 9s	45	— —
Waſte-book.) Bartered 3 hds. wine, at L. 15, for 100 gallons rum, at 9s	45	— —
Journal.) *Rum Dr. to Wine*, received 100 gallons at 9s in barter for 3 hds. at L. 15	45	— —

(46.) Rule IV. *Goods and other real accounts are* Dr. *for all charges laid out on them. If money be laid out, they are* Dr. *to Caſh; if any thing elſe be delivered, they are* Dr. *to the thing delivered; if the charge be taken in truſt, they are* Dr. *to the perſon to whom it is due.* Thus,

Waſte-book.) Paid for repairs to ſhip Commerce	L. 18	— —
Journal.) *Ship Commerce Dr. to Caſh*, paid for repairs	18	— —
Waſte-book.) Delivered wood from my timber-yard for repairing the George Inn	15	— —
Journal.) *George Inn Dr. to Wood*, delivered for repairing the ſame	15	— —
Waſte-book.) Due to Will. Wright for repairs to the George Inn	12	— —
Journal.) *George Inn Dr. to William Wright*, due him for repairs	12	— —

(47.) Rule V. *When rents of houſes or lands, freight of ſhips, bounties on goods, or any other profits from real accounts are received, Caſh is* Dr. *to the account from which the profit ariſes: if any thing beſides money be received, the article received is Dr.: if they remain unpaid, the perſon who owes them is* Dr. Thus,

Waſte-book.) Received freight of the ſhip Commerce for a voyage to London	L. 35	— —
Journal.) *Caſh Dr to ſhip Commerce*, received freight to London	35	— —
Waſte-book.) Received 100 barrels ſalmon, being the rent of Tay fiſhery, at 52s	260	— —
Journal.) *Salmon Dr. to Tay fiſhery*, received the rent, being 100 barrels, at 52s	260	— —
Waſte-book.) John Jolly owes me a year's rent of the George Inn	52	— —
Journal.) *John Jolly Dr to George Inn* for a year's rent due by him	52	— —

(48.) Rule VI. *When an article of loſs occurs, Profit and Loſs, or ſome ſubſidiary account, is* Dr. *If the Loſs be paid in ready money, it is* Dr. *to Caſh; if it paid in any thing elſe, it is* Dr. *to the thing delivered. If it remain unpaid, it is* Dr. *to the perſon to whom it is owing.* Thus,

Waſte-book.) Given my daughter Frederica at her marriage	500	— —
Journal.) *Profit and Loſs Dr. to Caſh*, given my daughter at her marriage	500	— —
Waſte-book.) Taken for family uſe from my granary 3 bolls meal, at 13s 4d	2	— —
Journal.) *Profit and Loſs* [or *Proper expences*] *Dr. to Meal*, taken for family uſe, 3 bolls, at 13s 4d	2	— —
Waſte book.) Due William Ritchie, for a year's intereſt on L. 1000 at 4 *per cent.*	40	— —
Journal.) *Profit and Loſs* [or *Intereſt account.*] *Dr. to William Ritchie* due him a year's intereſt on L. 1000 at 4 *per cent.*	40	— —

(49.) Rule VII. *When an article of gain occurs,*

that

that is not immediately connected with any real account, Cash, the article received, or the person accountable for it, is Dr. *to Profit and Loss, or to some subsidiary account.* Thus,

Waste-book.) Received in a gift from my father 100 — —
Journal.) *Cash Dr. to Profit and Loss,* received from my father 100 — —
Waste-book.) Received in like manner at opening shop, 100 yards cloth at 12s 60 — —
Journal.) *Cloth Dr. to Profit and Loss* received from my father at opening shop 100 yards, at 12s 60 — —
Waste-book.) William Nielson owes me a year's interest of L. 1000 50 — —
Journal.) *William Nielson Dr. to Profit and Loss* [or *Interest account*] due by him for a year's interest of L. 1000 50 — —

(50.) Rule VIII. *When one person pays money, or delivers any thing else to another on our account, the person who receives it is* Dr. *to the person who pays it.* Thus,

Waste-book.) John Fairney has paid the bank of Scotland on my account L. 100 — —
Journal.) *Bank of Scotland Dr. to John Fairney,* paid them by him 100 — —
Waste-book.) Arthur M'Ewen has delivered John Baxter 100 quarters wheat, for which I am to account to him, at 30s 150 — —
Journal.) *John Baxter Dr. to Arthur M'Ewen* for 100 quarters wheat delivered him on my account, at 30s 150 — —

Payments of this kind are often transacted by bills of exchange.

(51.) These examples will make the learner acquainted with the form of the journal, and the rules extend to the greatest part of the simple transactions that occur in domestic trade. The technical sense of the words *Dr.* and *Cr.* has a kind of analogy to their meaning in common language, but is not precisely the same. Thus, in *Ex.* 1. Rule VIII. the journal entry is, *Bank of Scotland Dr. to John Fairney;* by which we are not to understand that the bank is indebted to John Fairney; for a debt between them has no connection with our business; and therefore ought not to be entered in our books: the meaning of the entry is, that the bank becomes indebted to us by the transactions narrated; and that we become indebted to John Fairney by the same.

(52.) An article which contains more Drs. or more Crs. than one, is called a COMPLEX POST. The form of these will appear from the following examples.

Ex. 1.] Sold William Webster
25 pieces cloth, at L. 15 per piece L. 375 — —
130 stones wool, at 5s 6d per stone 35 15 —
L. 410 15 —

(53.) If the two articles sold to William Webster were entered separately in the waste-book and transferred to the journal by Rule I. they stand thus:

William Webster Dr. to Cloth, sold him
25 pieces at L. 15 L 375 — —
William Webster Dr to Wool, sold him
150 stones, at 5s 6d 35 15 —

And if these were posted to the leger, there would be two articles placed to the Dr. of William Webster, one to the Cr. of Cloth, and one to the Cr. of Wool. But the sales may be entered in the form of one complex journal post, as follows:

William Webster Dr. to Sundries.
To Cloth, for 25 pieces, at L. 15 L 375 — —
To Wool, for 130 stones, at 5s 6d 35 15 —
L 410 15 —

And then there is only one article on the Dr. of William Webster in the leger.

(54.) *Ex.* 2.] Sold W. Webster
10 pieces cloth at L. 15 L. 150 — —
12 ditto to J. Mercer, at do 180 — —
— — L 330 — —
22

This example also falls under Rule I. But whereas there was one Dr. and two Crs. in the former example, there are two Drs. and one Cr. in this: William Webster and John Mercer, the purchasers, are Drs. for their respective quantities; and cloth, which is the only thing delivered, is Cr. for the whole quantity. The journal post is,

Sundries Drs. to Cloth,
W. Webster, for 10 pieces, at 15l. L 150 — —
J. Mercer, for 12 ditto at 15l. 180 — —
— — L 330 — —
22

(55.) *Ex.* 3.] Bt. from John Duncan,
50 qrs. wheat at 35s L 87 10 —
12 ditto from R. Brown at 36s 21 12 —
— — L 109 2 —
62

This example falls under Rule II. There is only one Dr. wheat being the only thing received; and two Crs. because it is received from different persons.

Wheat Dr. to Sundries.
To J. Duncan, for 50 qrs. at 35s L 87 10 —
To R. Brown, for 12 qrs. at 36s 21 12 —
— — L 109 2 —
62

(56.) *Ex.* 4.] Sold Peter Coke
150 qrs. beans at 13s 4d L 100 — —
75 do. to Octavius Mitchel, at 13s 4d 50 — —
18 do. for ready money, 13s 2d 11 17 —
243 L 161 17 —

Here beans are delivered, some to different purchasers on trust, and some for ready money. The purchasers are Drs. for the quantities sold to each by Rule I.; Cash is Cr. for the quantity sold for ready money, by Rule III; and beans are Cr. for the whole.

Sundries

Sundries Dr. to beans.
P. Cole for 150 qrs. at 38 4d L 100 — —
O. Mitchel, for 75 13s 2d 50 — —
Cash, for 18 13s 2d 11 17 —
L 161 17 —

(57.) *Ex.* 5.] John Clark being bankrupt, I have accepted a compoſition on the debt due by him to me of L 150, and diſcharged the ſame.
The compoſition received, at 15s per L. is L 112 10 —
And the balance loſt 37 10 —
L 150 — —

Here the whole debt of L 150, due by John Clark is cancelled; and he muſt therefore be ſtated as Cr. for that ſum. Caſh is Dr. for the ſum received, by Rule II; and Profit and Loſs, or Loſs by bad debts, for the reſt, by Rule VI.

Sundries Dr. to John Clark.
Cash, for comp. on L150, at 15s *per* L. L 112 10 —
Profit and Loſs, for balance loſt 37 10 —
L 150 — —

(58.) The learner may be aſſiſted in underſtanding theſe and other complex poſts, by reſolving them into ſimple ones. Moſt of them might have been ſtated in that manner; and the complex form is only preferred for abridging the leger. In ſome articles the different clauſes are ſo connected, that they cannot be ſeparated with propriety.

(59.) In ſome articles, there are both more Drs. and more Crs. than one. Theſe may be entered in one journal poſt, *Sundries Drs. to Sundries*, ſpecifying firſt the Drs. and then the Crs. But, as this method is ſomewhat confuſed, we would recommend it as a better way to divide the tranſaction into two journal poſts; ſo that the firſt may contain only one Dr. and the ſecond only one Cr.

(60.) Ex. Bartered with A. Farquharſon 100 pieces Oſnaburgs, at 12s. L. 60 — —
100lb. thread, at 3s 6d 17 10 —
L. 77 10 —
For 10hds. lintſeed, at 50s L. 25 — —
500yds. linen, at 1s 6d 37 10 —
And received the balance in money 15 — —
L. 77 10 —

Sundries Dr. to A. Farquharſon.
Lintſeed, for 10 hds. at 50s L. 25 — —
Linen for 500 yds at 1s 6d 37 10 —
Received in barter
Cash, received balance 15 — —
L. 77 10 —

A. Farquharſon Dr. to Sundries.
To Oſnaburgs, for 100 pieces, at 12s. L. 60 — —
To Thread, for 100 lb. at 3s 6d 17 10 —
Delivered in barter L. 77 10 —

(61.) It is neither practicable nor neceſſary to enumerate all kinds of complex poſts that may occur in buſineſs. We ſhall here only mention the entries which occur at opening the books. The firſt journal poſt contains the ſubſtance of the inventory. The entry is *Sundries Drs. to Stock:* the particular Drs. are Caſh, the different kinds of goods and other property belonging to us, and the perſons indebted to us. The ſecond journal poſt contains the debts due by us. The entry is, *Stock, Dr. to Sundries;* the particular Crs. are the perſons to whom we are indebted. The forms of theſe entries is more fully exhibited at the beginning of the following ſet.

(62.) The journal ſhould be written by one perſon, in a fair hand and at leiſure hours. The articles are ſeparated, and the titles and dates marked in the ſame manner as in the waſte-book, § 7—9. The entries are written in half text, for ornament and diſtinction. In the inventory, the deſignation (or the buſineſs, ſtation, and place of reſidence) of every perſon is mentioned; and the ſame is done the firſt time that any name occurs in journal entry. At other times, it is ſufficient to enter the name without the deſignation, unleſs we have dealings with two perſons of the ſame name; in which caſe, it is always neceſſary to annex the deſignation, in order to diſtinguiſh them. The narration ſhould be complete, without referring to the waſte-book; and ſo clear, that every perſon, acquainted with the ſtyle of the journal, may underſtand it with eaſe. When the poſt is written, we mark a daſh ✓ againſt the article, on the margin of the waſte-book, to ſhow how far the writing of the journal is advanced.

SECT. IV. *Of* POSTING *the* LEGER.

(63.) The firſt thing to be done in the leger, is to allot a proper ſpace for each account. The accounts may be either opened in the ſame order that they occur in the journal; or accounts of the ſame kind may be placed together; the perſonal on one part of the leger, and the real accounts in another. The accounts of Stock, and Profit and Loſs, are generally placed at the beginning.

(64.) The number of the folio is marked in text at each corner of the top-line; and the titles of the accounts are written in text through both folios, if neceſſary. The deſignations of the perſonal accounts may be written in half text, or Italian hand. Some write the titles in Saxon, or German Text, for ornament. The word *Dr.* is prefixed to the title on the left-hand page; and *Contra Cr.* annexed to it on the right-hand page.

(65.) An Index muſt be provided, for pointing out the folios where the accounts are opened. The titles of the accounts are entered alphabetically in the index, and the number of the folio annexed. Perſonal accounts are entered by the firſt letter of the ſirname; companies, by the firſt letter of the ſirname of the firſt partner; and all other accounts, by the firſt letter of the firſt word. The moſt convenient kind of index is a long narrow book, of 24 leaves. A is marked on the top of the firſt leaf, and the paper pared away below it; B on the 2d leaf, under A; and the other letters on the following leaves, in the ſame manner; by means of which we can turn at once to any letter required.

(66.) In posting the leger, First, look for the Dr. of the journal post in the index, under the proper letter, which directs to the folio of the leger where the account is, if it be already opened: if not, you must allot a space for it, write the title, and enter it in the index. Then enter the article on the left-hand page of the account under the title of the former article, by writing the date on the margin, and the name of the creditor on the line, with the word *To* prefixed, and a short narration of the transaction annexed, and inserting the sum in the money column, and the quantity, if it be an account of goods, in the inner column. Then turn to the account of the Cr. of the journal-post, and enter the article in the right hand page, prefixing the word *By* to the name of the Dr.

(67.) This being done, turn to the journal, and mark on the margin the number of the folios to which the article is posted. The figures which point out the reference to the Dr. and Cr. folios should be separated by a line: for example, If the Dr. entry be on the first folio, and the Cr. entry on the eighth, the reference is marked $\frac{1}{8}$. These figures show how far the posting is advanced, and are useful in comparing the books. The figures for dates or references should be written in a lighter hand, than the figures in the columns for money or quantity.

(68.) There is often a reference column ruled in the leger, for pointing out the other entry, corresponding to any article. In this column, the folio of the Cr. entry is marked against the Dr. article, and the folio of the Dr. entry against the Cr. article. Sometimes the accounts are numbered according to their order in the leger; and the references, both in the journal and leger, point out the number of the account instead of the folio.

(69.) In complex posts, turn to the several Drs. or Crs. in their order, and enter the articles according to the foregoing directions; placing the sums belonging to each in the money column, against the respective entries.

(70.) An article in the leger is generally comprehended in one line. The narration should be as full as can be contained in that bounds. If it cannot be narrated completely, the journal is referred to for further particulars, by writing *per Journal*, (or *p. J.*) either after an incomplete narration, or immediately after Dr. or Cr. when there is no room for a proper narration. In complex posts, there can seldom be any narration annexed to the single Dr. or the single Cr. The entry is generally *To Sundries per J.* or, *By Sundries per J.* If the sense of the whole article can be narrated, it should be done; but it is improper to narrate the first or any other part of the article, and omit the others.

(71.) When the space allotted for an account in the leger is filled up, the account must be transported to another folio. For this purpose add the columns on both sides, and write against the sum, *Transferred to folio* , inserting the number of the folio where the new account is opened, in the reference-column, or on the line, if no reference-column be used. Then, after titling the new account, and entering the number of the folio in the index, write on the Dr. *To amount, brought from folio* , inserting the number of the folio where the old account was; and on the Cr. *By amount, brought from folio* ; and place the sums, and quantities, if any, in the proper columns. When either side of an account is full, both sides should be transported, and diagonal lines drawn, to fill up the vacant space of the side which requires it.

(72.) The books should be written up as frequently as can be done conveniently; so that the journal may keep pace nearly with the waste-book, and the leger with the journal. Each book should be carefully revised, and compared with the book from which it is posted. In comparing the leger, observe the following directions.

(73.) Begin with the first journal post, and turn to the folio of the leger where the Dr. is entered, which you are directed to by the marginal reference, and compare the date, entry, and sum. If they correspond, it is well; if not, the leger must be altered till it correspond with the journal. Then place a dot before the reference figure in the journal, and a mark, thus Λ, before the sum in the leger. Proceed in the same manner to compare the Cr. of the journal post, and all the following posts in their order. The dots in the journal show how far the comparison is advanced, and the marks in the leger show what articles are compared. The sums of accounts transported should be left blank till the books be compared; as an error in any article will occasion an alteration in the sum.

(74.) In correcting errors in the leger, observe the following rules: I. If an article be omitted, do not attempt to interline it at the place where it should have been; but insert it under the last article when you discover the omission, and mark a cross × against it on the margin, and another at the place where it should have been. II. If you discover a mistake immediately when committed, correct it without cancelling any thing, as in this example: *To Cash, Jay, To James Spence received to account.* III. If you have written a line entirely wrong, or in a wrong place, write the word *Error* at the end, prefix a cross, and omit or cancel the sum. IV. Cancel errors, by drawing a line lightly through them, so that the old writing may still be legible; by which it will be evident that the book has not been vitiated for a fraudulent purpose. The same method should be followed in correcting errors in the journal.

(75.) When the comparison of the books is finished, glance over the leger, to observe if the mark of comparison be affixed to every article.

(76.) Because the whole sum of the Dr. side of the leger should be equal to the whole sum of the Cr. § 36. it is proper to try if they correspond. For this purpose, you may add the Dr. of every account, except such as are already balanced, placing the sums in an inner column, and extending them at the end of one or more folios, as you find most convenient, to the outer column: and as you go along, add the Cr. in the same manner. If the sum total of both sides be equal, it gives a presumption that the books are right; if they differ, there is certainly some mistake. This is call-

ed

ed the *Trial Balance*. The labour beſtowed upon it is not loſt, as the ſums may be reſerved for aſſiſting to collect the balances.

(77.) If the ſums of the trial-balance do not correſpond, the books muſt be examined again. For this purpoſe, begin with the firſt article on the Dr. ſide of the firſt account, and turn to the account where the correſponding entry is, which you will find by the figure in the reference column. If the articles agree, mark them with a dot. Proceed in like manner with the other articles on the Dr. of the firſt account; then with articles on the Cr. of the ſame; and then with the following accounts in their order, till the error or errors be diſcovered.

(78.) In complex entries, obſerve if the amount of the ſums on one ſide be equal to the ſum on the other. When you come to a dotted article, you may paſs it by, becauſe it has been examined already. If the errors be not diſcovered at the firſt reviſal, you muſt repeat the ſame operation again, till you bring the books to balance. Marks different from the former ones, or differently placed, may be uſed, to ſignify that an article has been examined a 2d or 3d time. As the detection of errors is the moſt tedious and diſagreeable part of book-keeping, the accountant muſt guard againſt them with all poſſible care.

SECT. V. *Of* BALANCING *the* BOOKS.

(79.) Before we explain the method of balancing the books, it will be proper to direct the learner how to balance particular accounts. When we ſettle accounts with any perſon, and aſcertain how much is owing at either hand, it is neceſſary to balance his account in the leger, and open a new one, beginning with the ſum that was due according to the ſettlement; and when we clear accounts again, we muſt go back to that article, and no farther.

(80.) If any article be charged on either ſide, at the time of ſettling, they muſt be immediately entered on the waſte-book; from which they will paſs in courſe to the journal and leger; and a remark muſt be entered in the waſte-book, that the account was ſettled, and the balance transferred to the proper ſide of the new account. This remark is tranſcribed in the journal; and the leger account is balanced, when it occurs, in the courſe of poſting.

(81.) If the balance be due to you, write on the Cr. *By balance due to him to Dr. new account*, and enter the ſum due you; after which, the amount of both ſides will be equal. Add the account, placing the ſums oppoſite to each other; and, if the ſides be unequal, draw a diagonal line through the vacant ſpace of the ſhorter ſide, and cloſe the old account by drawing lines under the ſums. Then open the new account immediately under the old one, or in a new folio, if the old one be full, by writing on the Dr. *To balance of former account due by him.*

(82.) If the balance be due by you to him, the entries are made on the oppoſite ſides, with the neceſſary alterations. When the new account is opened in the ſame folio, it is unneceſſary to repeat the title; but the year and month, as well as the day, muſt be repeated at the date of the firſt article. Sometimes when an account is balanced, one or more articles are left out on purpoſe: For example, goods lately bought on credit may be left out, and the ſettlement may only relate to articles of longer ſtanding. When this is the caſe, if the articles omitted be on the Dr. of the leger, write on the Cr. thus, *By articles ſold him ſince 1ſt January replaced:* and when we have balanced the account, and opened a new one, we write on the Dr. *To articles replaced at ſettling, furniſhed ſince 1ſt January:* or, if the articles were left out for any other reaſon, we explain the ſame in the narration. If the omitted articles be on the Cr. the like entries are made on the oppoſite ſides. It ſhould be noticed in the waſte-book and journal when this operation is neceſſary.

(83.) When we poſt any common article from the journal, we enter the ſum on the Dr. of one account, and on the Cr. of another: when we balance an account, we place the balance ſum on the Dr. of the old account, and on the Cr. of the new one, or contrarywiſe: and when we replace an article, as above directed, to the Dr. or Cr. of the old account, we place it after balancing to the Cr. or Dr. of the new one. Thus, in theſe entries, as well as in common poſts, there are like ſums entered on the Dr. and Cr. of the leger, and the general equality of the ſides is ſtill preſerved.

(84.) Merchants generally balance their books once a-year. The deſign of this operation is, to collect the various branches of their buſineſs, diffuſed through the books, into a conciſe abſtract; to aſcertain their gain or loſs ſince the laſt balance; and exhibit the preſent ſtate of their funds. If the buſineſs be of ſuch a kind, that moſt of the branches naturally come to an iſſue at a certain time of year, that time is the proper one for making the balance. Otherwiſe the end of the year, or the leaſt buſy time, may be choſen.

(85.) Before balancing, it is proper to ſettle as many perſonal accounts as poſſible; to clear all arrears and ſmall charges; to take an exact inventory of the goods on hand, as far as can be done; and affix a moderate value to each article, according to the current prices at the time; ſuch a value as you would be willing at preſent to buy for. It is more proper to value the goods on hand in conformity to the current prices, than at prime coſt: for the deſign of affixing any value is to point out the gain or loſs, and the gain is in reality obtained ſo ſoon as the prices riſe, or the loſs ſuffered ſo ſoon as they fall; therefore it is impoſſible to make up a juſt ſtate of the affairs, unleſs the preſent prices be attended to.

(86.) Theſe things being done, proceed to make the balance as follows: Prepare two ſheets of paper, ruled with money columns, in the form of Dr. and Cr.; write *Profit and Loſs* as the title of the firſt, and *Balance* as the title of the ſecond. Prepare alſo ſome paper for computing the balances, and mark down the folios, titles, and ſums of each account in the leger, in a regular order. If a trial-balance was made, the ſums may be tranſcribed from it. Paſs by ſuch accounts as are already cloſed; alſo the accounts of Stock and Profit and Loſs, which are always the laſt of being

ing balanced. Then ſubtract the leſſer ſum from the greater, and enter the difference on either of the ſheets, that the nature of the article points out, and on the ſide of that ſheet which correſponds to the greater ſum of the account.

(87.) In *perſonal* accounts, enter the difference, which is the debt owing to you, or by you, on the proper ſide of the balance-ſheet. In the *Caſh* account, enter the difference, which is the money in hand, on the Dr ſide of the balance-ſheet. In accounts of *goods* or other *property*, if there be nothing remaining on hand, enter the difference, which is the gain or loſs, on the proper ſide of the profit and loſs ſheet.—If the whole be ſtill on hand, enter the preſent value on the Dr. of the balance-ſheet; and, if this be different from the prime coſt, charges included, enter the difference on the proper ſide of the profit and loſs ſheet. If part be ſold and part on hand, place the value of the quantity on hand under the ſum of the Cr. and add them. The ſum is the whole return that will be obtained, if the reſt of the goods be ſold at the eſtimated value; and this, being compared with the ſum of the Dr. which is the whole expence, ſhows the gain or loſs. Enter the ſame in the proper ſide of the profit and loſs ſheet, and enter the quantity and value on hand on the Dr. of the balance-ſheet.

(88.) Obſerve if the quantities in the inner columns be equal on both ſides, when the goods are all ſold; or, if the difference, when only part is ſold, be equal to the quantity on hand. If they correſpond, you have a juſt account of the goods. If the Dr. be greater, there is ſomething amiſſing, which you muſt enter on the Dr. of the balance-ſheet, and mark the cauſe of the deficiency, as in-lake, waſte, or the like. If the Cr. be greater, there is an exceſs, which you muſt enter on the Cr. of the balance-ſheet, together with the occaſion of it, as difference of meaſure, or the like.

(89.) In accounts ſubſidiary to profit and loſs, enter the difference on the proper ſide of the profit and loſs ſheet. When there is nothing written on one ſide of an account, enter the ſum of the article or articles on that ſheet which the kind of the account points out.

(90.) When you have collected all the balances, ſum up both ſheets, and add to the profit and loſs ſheet the ſums of the profit and loſs account in the leger: then ſubtract the leſſer ſum of each ſheet from the greater. This being done, mark the ſums of the ſtock account on your computation paper, and add thereto the balance of the profit and loſs ſheet, on the ſide which correſponds with the greater ſum of that account: then ſubtract the leſſer ſum from the greater. The remainder will be equal to the difference of the ſides of the balance ſheet, if the books be right, and the balances exactly collected.

(91.) This equality muſt always hold, from the nature of the articles collected: The Dr. of the balance ſheet contains every kind of property belonging to you, and every debt owing to you; and the Cr. contains every debt owing by you: therefore the difference of the ſides ſhows what your nett eſtate amounts to. The profit and loſs ſheet, when the articles from the leger are included, contains every thing you have gained on the Cr. and every thing you have loſt on the Dr. and the difference of your ſides is your nett gain or loſs. The ſtock account contained your effects and debts at the time the books were opened, and therefore, when the gain or loſs is added to the proper ſide, it muſt ſhow the extent of your nett eſtate at preſent. Thus the ſtock account and the balance ſheet both point out how much you are worth at preſent; the one from your former ſtock, allowance being made for your gains or loſſes; the other from a view of your preſent effects and debts; and they will correſpond, becauſe both muſt be agreeable to the truth, if the books be correct.

(92.) Though the books muſt balance, if free from error, yet it is ſometimes difficult to adjuſt them exactly, eſpecially when the buſineſs is extenſive, and the error trifling. If there be ſtill a difference, which we do not think it worth while to make further ſearch for, we may cloſe the books, by making Profit and Loſs Dr. or Cr. for the ſame. This introduces an article on one ſide of the leger, which has none correſponding to it on the other, but is balanced by ſome undiſcovered error.

SECT. VI. *Of* CLOSING *the* BOOKS.

(93.) The balance being ſtruck, the next work is to cloſe the books. Every article in the leger ſhould be poſted from the journal; therefore the moſt regular way of finiſhing both is by inſerting the following articles in the journal, and poſting them in the common manner to the leger.

I. *Profit and Loſs Dr. to Sundries, for loſs, on the following accounts.* The particulars are taken from the Dr. of the Profit and Loſs ſheet.

II. *Sundries Dr. to Profit and Loſs, for Gain on the following accounts.* The particulars are taken from the Cr. of the Profit and Loſs ſheet.

III. *Balance account Dr. to Sundries, for debts and property belonging to me.*

IV. *Sundries Dr. to balance account, for debts due by me.* The particulars of this and the former are taken from the reſpective ſides of the balance ſheet.

V. *Profit and Loſs Dr. to Stock for nett gain; or Stock Dr. to Profit and Loſs, for nett loſs.*

VI. *Balance account Dr. to Stock, for nett eſtate.*

(94.) When the four firſt of theſe articles are poſted in the leger, all the perſonal, real, and ſubſidiary accounts will balance, and you may ſee them as you go along. In accounts of goods, if there be any deficiency, you muſt enter it on the Cr. in the inner column; and, if there be any overcome, you muſt enter it on the Dr. before you add the account. Then the ſums of every account and every column on the oppoſite ſides will be equal.

(95.) The only accounts that remain open are *Profit and Loſs, Stock, and Balance.* The firſt poſt balances the profit and loſs account, and the ſixth balances the ſtock account. It was noticed § 36. that the whole ſums of Dr. and Cr. of the leger are equal; and therefore, if the ſides of every account, except one, be balanced, that one will balance of its own accord. The balance account

al

alone remains open, and, upon trial, you will find that the ſides are equal. This affords an additional proof, or, at leaſt, a different view, of what was demonſtrated, with reſpect to the balance of the books, in § 91.

(96.) The lines above and under the ſums, at a general balance, may be drawn with red ink; and, at the balancing of particular accounts, with black ink, for diſtinction. Some inſert the particulars of the profit and loſs and balance ſheets in the reſpective accounts of the leger. If this be done, it is unneceſſary to enumerate them alſo in the journal.—Some balance the accounts of goods, whenever the quantity is ſold off; and this method leſſens the work at the general balance, which is always ſufficiently laborious.

(97.) Thus is the ſtate of a perſon's affairs brought together, in a ſhort compaſs, under his view: and the articles of the balance ſheet ſupply materials for a new inventory. It is convenient, however, to alter the order, and arrange the real accounts together, and the perſonal ones together.

SECT. VII. SPECIMENS *of the* WASTE-BOOK, JOURNAL, LEGER, *&c.*

(98.) It is not neceſſary to begin new books, or to open the accounts anew, unleſs the old folios be full. The accounts may be continued in the former folios; but it is beſt to begin a new leger, if the old one be not likely to hold all the buſineſs of the next year. When one comes to have ſeveral ſets of books, it is common to diſtinguiſh them by the letters of the alphabet. The firſt waſte-book, journal, and leger, are marked A, the ſecond, B; and ſo on.

(99.) In the following SPECIMENS, the WASTE-BOOK and JOURNAL are placed on oppoſite pages, that the learner may the more eaſily compare them; and the rules are referred to by their numbers.

WASTE-BOOK.

(1) (100.) WASTE BOOK.
Perth, JANUARY 1. 1797.

√ INVENTORY of ready money goods, and debts, belonging to Alex. Harvey merchant in Perth.

Ready money	L 75 10 —		
200 bolls meal, at 13s	L 130 — —		
6 hds Port wine, at L 15	90 — —		
70 reams paper, at 10s 6d	36 15 —		
120 sp. 5 hank yarn, at 28 3d	13 10 —		
	270 5 —		
A house in High-street Perth, value	300 — —		
John Bell merch. Perth, owes per account	L 73 4 —		
J. Purdie writer, Perth, owes per do	12 3 8		
H. Hood, merch. Glasgow per bill	75 — —		
W. Mill manuf. Dundee, per receipt	18 — —		
	178 7 8		
(§ 61.)		824 7 8	

√ LIST of debts by the said Alex. Harvey.

To the bank of Perth per account	L 230 — —		
To Charles Fox merch. London per do	54 — —		
To James Low carpenter Newburgh per do	28 7 5		
(§ 61.)		312 7 5	

1.

√ Bought for ready money 105 yards calicoe, at 3s 2d — 16 12 6
Rule. III.

√ Sold Hugh Cook merch. Aberdeen 50 bolls meal, at 13s 3d — 33 2 6
Rule I.

5.

√ Bartered 60 spindles 5 hank yarn, at 2s 4d, for 80 yards diaper, at 1s 9d — 7 —
Rule III.

10.

√ Paid James Low in full — 28 7 5
Rule I.

13.

√ Bought from Hugh Pringle merch. Leith, 200 bushels salt, at 1s 8d L 16 13 4
320 stone iron, at 3s 4d 53 6 8 — 70 — —
Rule II.

(101.) JOURNAL. (1)
Perth, JANUARY 1. 1797.

Sundries Dr. to Stock for articles belonging to Alex. Harvey merch. Perth.

1 *Cash* on hand	L 75 10 —		
1 *Meal.* For 200 bolls at 13s	L 130 — —		
2 *Port wine.* For 6 hds at L 15	90 — —		
2 *Paper.* For 70 rms, at 10s 6d	36 15 —		
2 *Yarn.* For 120 sp. 5 hank, at 2s 3d	13 10 —		
	270 5 —		
2 *House in High-street* Perth value	300 — —		
2 *John Bell*, mer. Perth, per ac.	L 73 4 —		
2 *J. Purdie* writer Perth per do	12 3 8		
2 *H. Hood* merch. Glas. per bill	75 — —		
2 *W. Mill* manuf. Dundee, per receipt	18 — —		
	178 7 8		824

1.

Stock Dr. to Sundries.

1 *To Bank of Perth* per acc.	L 230 — —		
1 *To Charles Fox* merch. London per account	54 — —		
2 *To James Low* carpenter Newburgh per do	28 7 5		312

3.

Calicoe Dr. to Cash. Bought 105 yards at 3s 2d — 16 12 6

Hugh Cook merchant Aberdeen, *Dr. to Meal*, sold 50 bolls, at 13s 3d — 33

5.

Diaper Dr. to Yarn. Delivered 60 sp. 5 hank in barter for 80 yards, at 1s 9d — 7

10.

James Low Dr. to Cash. Paid him in full — 28

13.

Sundries Dr. to Hugh Pringle merch. Leith.

2 *Salt.* For 200 bushels, at 1s 8d	L 16 13 4		
4 *Iron.* For 320 stones, at 3s 4d	53 6 8		70

(1) WASTE-BOOK.

Perth, JANUARY 15. 1797.

15.

Sold 30 rms paper to John Bell, at 12s L 18 — —
12 to John Hunt ſtationer Edin. at 12s 7 4 —
5 for ready money, at 11s 2 15 —
— 27 19 —
47 *Rules* I. III.

19.

Sold W. Hunt merch. Dunbar 150 bnſhels ſalt, at 1s 9d, L 13 2 6
Received in part L 10 — —
And he owes the balance 3 2 6
Rules I. III. 13 2 6

Received from H. Hood in payment of his bill L 75 — —
And for intereſt on do 2 10 —
Rules II. VII. 77 10 —

Paid the Bank of Perth 100
Rule I.

26.

Bought from W. Wallace merchant Dundee 500 ſp. 4 four hank yarn, at 1s 11d L 47 18 4
Paid him in part L 15 — —
And the balance due him is 32 18 4
Rules II. III. 47 18 4

30.

Received 150 bolls meal, 13s 2d L 98 : 15, in barter for 6 hds Port wine, at L 16 L 96 — —
Paid the balance 2 15 —
Rule III. 98 15 —

Perth, 2d FEB. 1797.

Sold John Bell 48 buſh. ſalt, being the rem. at 1s 8½d L 4 2 —
60 ſp. 5 hank yarn, at 2s 3½d 6 17 6
100 ſtone iron, at 3s 4½d 16 17 6
Rule I. 27 17 —

3.

Received from Hugh Cook in part 30 — —
Rule II.

10.

Bartered 22 reams paper, at 12s L 13 4 —
30 bolls meal, at 13s 6d 20 5 —
L 33 9 —
For 334½ ſp. 4 hank yarn, at 2s
Rule III. 33 9 —

(2) JOURNAL.

Perth, JANUARY 15. 1797.

15.

Sundries Dr. to Paper.
John Bell for 30 rms, at 12s L 18 — — 18 —
John Hunt ſtationer Edin. for 20 12s 7 4 — 7 4
Caſh. For 5 11s 2 15 — 2 15
47 27 19
27 19

19.

Sundries Drs. to Salt, for 150 buſh. at 1s 9d, L 13 2 6
Caſh. Received in part L 10 — — 10 —
W. Hunt merch. Dunbar, for balance due by him 3 2 6
13 2 6

Caſh Dr. to Sundries.
To H. Hood. Recived payment of his bill L 75 — — 75 —
To Profit and Loſs. Rec. intereſt on do 2 10 —
77 10
77 10

Bank of Perth Dr to Caſh. Paid them. 100 — —
100

26.

Yarn Dr to Sundries, for 500 ſp. 4 hank, at 1s 11d. L 47 18 4
To Caſh. Paid in part L 15 — —
To W. Wallace merch. Dundee, for balance 32 18 4
47 18 4
47 18 4

30.

Meal Dr. to Sundries, for 150 bolls, at 13s 2d L 98 : 15
To Port wine. For 6 hds delivered in barter, L 16 L 96 — —
To Caſh. Paid balance 2 15 —
98 15
98 15

Perth, 2d FEB. 1797.

John Bell Dr. to Sundries.
To Salt, for 48 buſh. being the rem. at 1s 8½d L 4 2 —
To Yarn, for 60 ſp. 5 hank, at 2s 3½d 6 17 6
To Iron, for 100 ſtones, at 3s 4½d 16 17 6
27 17
27 17

3.

Caſh Dr. to Hugh Cook. Received in part 30 — —
30

10.

Yarn Dr. to Sundries. For 334½ ſp. 4 hank yarn, at 2s. L 33 : 9s
To Paper. For 22 rms delivered in barter, at 12s L 13 4 —
To Meal. For 30 bolls, at 13s 6d 20 5 —
33 9 —
33 9

(1) WASTE BOOK. *Perth, 8th* APRIL, 1797.

Bell and Caw have paid D. Richards, at my desire, balance of my share of the ship Adventure 117 —
Rule VIII.

—11.—

Sold J. Bell 20 casks train-oil, at 27s. 27 —
Rule I.

—14.—

Sold Will. Gib merch. Stirling
20 casks train-oil, at 28s L.14 — —
1 hd. lint-seed 3 5 —
35 bolls meal, at 13s 8d 23 18 4
L.41 3 4
Received in part L.35 — —
And he owes the balance 6 3 4
Rules I. II. 41 3 4

—16.—

Paid Bell and Caw's bill on me to G. Freer, at sight 38 18 4
Rule I.

—18.—

Taken for the use of my family, the remaining 5 yards cahcoe, at 3s 2d — 15 10
Rule VI.

—22.—

The Bank of Perth have paid Paulus Van Trump's bill on me, 1 mdt. at my desire 28 12 —
Rule VIII.

—25.—

Received my proportion of profits on a voyage to Amsterdam, by the Adventure 33 —
Rule V.

—30.—

Paid for small charges on my business since 1st January L. 5 3 8
Personal & family expences 32 — —
37 3 8
Rule VI.

Due Peter Penman, my clerk, for wages 8 —
Rule VI.

Due the Bank of Perth for interest 2 11 4
Rule VI.

Previous to the balancing of my books, I had taken an inventory of goods in my shop and ware-house,
124 bolls meal, at 13s 6d L.83 14 —
174 spi. 4 hank yarn, at 2s 47 8 —
40 stone iron, at 3s 4d 6 13 4
300 lb. clover-seed, at 6d 7 10 —
L.145 5 4
I value my house at 300 — —
And my share of ship Adventure 140 — —
L.585 5 4

JOURNAL. *Perth, 8th* APRIL, 1797. (3)

Dav. Richards Dr. to Bell and Caw. Paid him by them on my account, being balance of share of ship Adventure 117 —

—11.—

John Bell Dr. to Train-oil. Sold him 20 casks at 27s 27 —

—14.—

Will. Gib Dr. to Sundries.
To Train-oil. For 10 casks, at 28s L.14 — —
To Lint-seed. For 1 hd. 3 5 —
To Meal. For 35 bolls, at 13s 8d 23 18 4 41 3 4

Cash Dr. to W. Gib. Received in part 35 —

—16.—

Bell and Caw Drs. to Cash. Paid their bill on me to Geo. Freer, at sight 38 18 4

—18.—

Proper expences Dr. to Calicoes. For 5 yards taken for family use, at 3s 2d — 15 10

—22.—

Paulus Van Trump Dr. to Bank of Perth. For his bill on me 1 mdt. paid by them 28 12 —

—25.—

Cash Dr. to Share of Ship Adventure. Received my proportion of profits on a voyage to Amsterdam 33 —

—30.—

Sundries Drs. to Cash.
Charges Merchandize. Paid small charges, since Jan. 1. L. 5 3 8
Proper Exp. Paid personal and family charges 32 — — 37 3 8

Charges of Merchandize Dr. to Peter Penman, my clerk. Due him for wages 8 —

Profit and Loss Dr. to Bank of Perth. Due them for interest 2 11 4

Profit and Loss Dr. to Sundries, for articles of loss.
To Salt L. — 11 8
To Charges Merchandize 13 14 3
To Proper Expences 32 15 11
(See § 72.) 47 —

(4) WASTE-BOOK.

Perth, 17*th* MARCH, 1797.

Bartered with John Bell 2 bags clover seed, at L.6, L.12, for 2 hds. lintf. at 55s L.5 10 —
Received in money 5 — —
And he owes the balance 1 10 —
12 —
Rules III. I.

Paid Cha. Fox in full L.19 — —
And for intereſt 1 10 —
20 10 —
Rules I. VI.

—21.—

Sold 140 lb. clover-ſeed to W. Peat, farmer at Duplin, at 7½d L.4 7 6
70 to H. Cook, at 7½d 2 3 9
120 for ready money, at 7¼d 3 12 6
10 3 9
330 *Rules* I. III.

—24.—

John Bell has paid the Bank of Perth on my account 40 —
Rule VIII.

—25.—

Bought from D. Richards merchant Alloa, one third ſhare of the ſhip Adventure, for 150 —
Rule II.

—28.—

Sold Bell and Caw,
150 ſtone Iron, at 38 7d L.26 17 6
1 hd. Port wine 15 5 —
42 2 6
Rule I.

Perth, 2*d* APRIL, 1797.

Sold for ready money
50 yards diaper, at 18 11d L4 15 10
30 bolls meal, at 13s 7d 20 7 6
1 hd. lint-ſeed 3 3 —
160 lb. clover-ſeed, at 7¼d 5 3 4
30 ſtone iron, at 38 6½d 5 6 3
38 15 11
Rule III.

—6.—

Drawn on the Bank of Perth, for 60 —
Rule II.

Bought for ready money
30 caſks train-oil, at 22s L33 — —
30 bolls meal, at 13s L19 10 —
40, at 13s 2d 26 6 8
— 45 16 8
70
78 16 8
Rule III.

Sold Dav. Richards 30 yds. diaper, at 2s L.3 — —
And paid him 30 — —
33 —
Rule I.

JOURNAL.

Perth, 17*th* MARCH, 1797.

Sundries Drs. to Clover-ſeed. For 2 bags, at L.6 L.12 — —
Lint-ſeed, for 2 hds. recd. in bart. 55s 5 10 —
Caſh. In part 5 — —
John Bell, for balance 1 10 —
12 —

Sundries Drs. to Caſh.
C. Fox. Paid him in full L.19 — —
Profit & Loſs. Paid him int. 1 10 —
20 10 —

—21.—

Sundries Drs. to Clover-ſeed.
Will. Peat, farmer at Duplin, for 140 lb. at 7½d L.4 7 6
H. Cook, 70 7½d 2 3 9
Caſh. 120 7¼d 3 12 6
330
10 3 9

—24.—

Bank of Perth Dr. to John Bell. Paid them by him 40 —

—25.—

Share of ſhip Adventure Dr. to D. Richards merchant Alloa, bought one third ſhare for 150 —

—28.—

Bell and Caw Drs. to Sundries.
To Iron. For 150 ſtone, at 38 7d L.26 17 6
To Port wine. For 1 hd. 15 5 —
42 2 6

Perth, 2*d* APRIL, 1797.

Caſh Dr. to Sundries.
To Diaper. For 50 yards, at 18 11d L.4 15 10
To Meal. For 30 bolls, at 13s 7d 20 7 6
To Lint-ſeed. For 1 hd. 3 3 —
To Clover ſeed. For 160 lb. at 7¼d 5 3 4
To Iron. For 30 ſt. at 38 6½d 5 6 3
38 15 11

—6.—

Caſh Dr. to Bank of Perth. Drawn on them for 60 —

Sundries Drs. to Caſh.
Train-oil. For 30 caſks, at 22s L.33 — —
Meal. For 30 bolls, at 13s L19 10 —
And 40 at 13s 2d 26 6 8
— 45 16 8
70
78 16 8

D. Richards Dr. to Sundries.
To Diaper. For 30 yds at 2s L3 — —
To Caſh. Paid him 30 — —
33 —

(5) WASTE-BOOK.

Perth, 8*th* APRIL, 1797.

Bell and Caw have paid D. Richards, at my deſire, balance of my ſhare of the ſhip Adventure — 117 — —
Rule VIII.

—11.—

Sold J. Bell 20 caſks train-oil, at 27s. — 27 — —
Rule I.

—14.—

Sold Will. Gib merch. Stirling
10 caſks train-oil, at 28s L14 — —
1 hd. lint-ſeed 3 5 —
35 bolls meal, at 13s 8d 23 18 4
L41 3 4

Received in part L35 — —
And he owes the balance 6 3 4
Rules I. II. — 41 3 4

—16.—

Paid Bell and Caw's bill on me to G. Freer, at ſight — 38 18 4
Rule I.

—18.—

Taken for the uſe of my family, the remaining 5 yards calicoe, at 3s 2d — 15 10
Rule VI.

—22.—

The Bank of Perth have paid Paulus Van Trump's bill on me, 1 mdt. at my deſire — 28 12 —
Rule VIII.

—25.—

Received my proportion of profits on a voyage to Amſterdam, by the Adventure — 33 — —
Rule V.

—30.—

Paid for ſmall charges on my buſineſs ſince 1ſt January L 5 3 8
Perſonal & family expences 32 — —
Rule VI. — 37 3 8

Due Peter Penman, my clerk, for wages — 8 — —
Rule VI.

Due the Bank of Perth for intereſt — 2 11 4
Rule VI.

Previous to the balancing of my books, I had taken an inventory of goods in my ſhop and ware-houſe,
124 bolls meal, at 13s 6d L83 14 —
174 ſp. 4 hank yarn, at 2s 47 8 —
40 ſtone iron, at 3s 4d 6 13 4
300 lb. clover-ſeed, at 6d 7 10 —
L145 5 4
I value my houſe at 300 — —
And my ſhare of ſhip Adventure 140 — —
L585 5 4

JOURNAL.

Perth, 8*th* APRIL, 1797.

(5)

Dav. Richards Dr. to Bell and Caw. Paid him by them on my account, being balance of ſhare of ſhip Adventure — 117 —

—11.—

John Bell Dr. to Train-oil. Sold him 20 caſks at 27s — 27 —

—14.—

Will. Gib Dr. to Sundries.
To Train-oil. For 10 caſks, at 28s L.14 — —
To Lint-ſeed. For 1 hd. 3 5 —
To Meal. For 35 bolls, at 13s 8d 23 18 4 — 41 —

Caſh Dr. to W. Gib. Received in part — 35 —

—16.—

Bell and Caw Drs. to Caſh. Paid their bill on me to Geo. Freer, at ſight — 38 18 4

—18.—

Proper expences Dr. to Calicoes. For 5 yards taken for family uſe, at 3s 2d — 15 10

—22.—

Paulus Van Trump Dr. to Bank of Perth. For his bill on me 1 mdt. paid by them — 28 12 —

—25.—

Caſh Dr. to Share of Ship Adventure. Received my proportion of profits on a voyage to Amſterdam — 33 — —

—30.—

Sundries Drs. to Caſh.
Charges Merchandize. Paid ſmall charges, ſince Jan. 1. L 5 3 8
Proper Exp. Paid perſonal and family charges 32 — — — 37 3 8

Charges of Merchandize Dr. to Peter Penman, my clerk. Due him for wages — 8 — —

Profit and Loſs Dr. to Bank of Perth. Due them for intereſt — 2 11 4

Profit and Loſs Dr. to Sundries, for articles of loſs.
To Salt L— 11 4
To Charges Merchandize 13 14 2
To Proper Expences 32 15 10
(See § 93.) — 47 —

Pe

(6) JOURNAL

Perth, 30*th* APRIL, 1797.

Sundries Drs to Profit and Loss, for articles of gain.					
Meal	L9	18	—		
Port-wine	6	15	—		
Paper	4	18	6		
Yarn	2	3	2		
Calico	1	13	4		
Dimper	—	15	10		
Iron	2	7	11		
Clover-seed	5	—	1		
Lint-seed	—	18	—		
Share of Ship Adventure	23	—	—		
Train-oil	8	—	—		
				65	9 10
Bal. Account Dr. to Sun. for articles belonging to me.					
To Cash	L8	3	10		
To Meal. For 124 bolls, at 13s 6d	83	14	—		
To Yarn. For 474 sp. at 2s Amiffing ½ spindle.	47	8	—		
To House in Perth	300	—	—		
To John Bell	37	11	—		
To Henry Hood	31	2	6		
To William Mill	18	—	—		
To Hugh Cook	5	6	3		
To Iron. For 40 ſtone, at 3s 4d	6	13	4		
To John Hunt	7	4	—		
To William Hunt	18	13	6		
To Henry Yorke	35	15	—		
To Clover-ſeed. For 300 lb. at 6d Inlake 10 lb.	7	10	—		
To William Peat	4	7	6		
To Share of Ship Adventure	140	—	—		
To William Gib	6	3	4		
				757	12 3
30.					
Sundries Drs to Balance-account.					
Meal. Outcome 3 bolls					
Bank of Perth	L201	3	2		
Hugh Pringle	20	—	—		
Peter Penman	8	—	—		
				229	3 2
Profit and Loss Dr. to Stock, for neat gain				16	13 8
Stock Dr. to Balance-account, for nett ſtock				528	9 1

The next JOURNAL would begin thus.

Perth 1ſt MAY, 1797.

Sundries Drs. to Stock.					
Caſh on hand				L8	3 10
Meal. For 124 bolls, at 13s 6d	L83	14	—		
Yarn. For 474 ſp. 4 hank, at 2s	47	8	—		
Iron. For 40 ſt. at 3s 4d	6	13	4		
Clover-ſeed. For 300 lb. at 6d	7	10	—		
				145	5 4
Houſe in Perth, value	L300	—	—		
Share in Ship Adventure. For one third	140	—	—		
				440	— —
J. Bell, Perth. Due by him	L37	11	—		
H. Hood, Glaſgow Do	31	2	6		
W. Mill, Dundee Do	18	—	—		
H. Cook, Aberdeen Do	5	6	3		
J. Hunt, Edinburgh Do	7	4	—		
W. Hunt, Dunbar Do	18	13	6		
H. Yorke, Manchester Do	35	15	—		
W. Peat, Duplin. Do	4	7	6		
W. Gib, Stirling Do	6	3	4		
				164	3 1
				757	12 3
Stock Dr. to Sundries.					
To Bank of Perth. Due them				L201	3 2
To Hugh Gib, Leith. Due him				20	— —
P. Penman, my clerk, Do.				8	— —
				229	3 2

LEGER. Fo. (3)

Dr. *W. Mill manufacturer Dundee,*

1797					
Jan.	1	To Stock due by him per receipt	1	18	— —

Dr. *Bank of Perth,*

1797					
Jan.	22	To Cash, paid them	1	100	— —
Feb.	16	To Cash, paid them	1	100	— —
Mar.	24	To John Bell, paid them by him	1	40	— —
Apr.	30	To Balance-account	6	201	3 2
				441	3 2

Dr. *Chas. Fox merchant London.*

1797					
Feb.	23	To Cash, paid his bill on me at sight	1	35	— —
Mar.	17	To Cash, in full	1	19	— —
				54	— —

Dr. *J. Low carpenter Newburgh.*

1797					
Jan.	10	To cash, paid him in full	1	28	7 3

Dr. *Calicoes,*

1797			Yds.			
Jan.	1	To Cash, at 3s 2d	105	1	16	12 6
Apr.	30	To Profit and Loss, for gain		1	1	13 4
			105		18	5 10

Dr. *H. Cook merchant Aberdeen.*

1797					
Jan.		To Meal, for 50 bolls, at 13s 3d	1	33	2 6
Mar.	21	To Clover-seed, for 70lb. at 7½d		2	3 9
			4	35	6 3

Dr. *Diaper.*

1797			Yds.			
Jan.	5	To Yarn in barter, at 1s 9d	80	3	7	— —
Apr.	30	To Profit & Loss, for gain		1	—	15 10
			80		7	15 10

Dr. *Salt.*

1797			Bush.			
Jan.	15	To Wm. Gib, at 1s 8d	200	5	16	13 4
Mar.	2	To Cash, paid charges and cellar-rent		1	1	2 6
			200		17	15 10

LEGER. Fo. (3)

Contra Cr.

1797					
Apr.	30	By Balance-account	6	18	— —

Contra Cr.

1797					
Jan.	1	By Stock, due them p. account	1	130	— —
Feb.	2	By Cash, drawn on them	1	120	— —
Apr.	1	By Cash, drawn on them	1	60	— —
	22	By P. Van Trump, for his bill paid them per Journal	5	28	12 —
	30	By Profit and Loss, for interest due them	1	2	11 2
				441	3 2

Contra Cr.

1797					
Jan.	1	By Stock, due him per account	1	54	— —

Contra Cr.

1797					
Jan.	1	By Stock, due him per account	1	28	7 3

Contra Cr.

1797			Yds.			
Feb.	19	By Sundries, p. J. at 3s 6d	100	17	10 —
Apr.	18	By proper Expences taken at 3s 2d	5	—	15 10
			105	18	5 10

Contra Cr.

1797					
Feb.	3	By Cash in part	1	30	— —
Apr.	30	By Balance-account	5	5	6 3
				35	6 3

Contra Cr.

1797			Yds.			
Apr.	2	By Cash at 1s 11d	50	4	11 10
	3	By David Richards, at 2s	30	3	— —
			80	7	15 10

Contra Cr.

1797			Bush.			
Jan.	19	By Sundries, p. J. at 1s 9d	150	13	2 6
Feb.	2	By J. Bell, for the rem. at 1s 8½d	40	4	1 —
Apr.	30	By Profit and Loss Inlake			2
			200	17	15 10

Dr.

(4) LEGER. Fo.

Dr. *H. Pringle merchr. Leith.*

1797						
Feb.	13	To Cash in part	1	50	—	—
Apr.	30	To Balance-account	6	20	—	—
				70	—	—

Dr. *Iron.*

				Stones.			
1797							
Jan.	13	To H. Pringle, at 3s 4d		320	4	53 6	8
Apr.	30	To Profit & Loss, for gain			1	2 7	11
				320		55 14	7

Dr. *John Hunt ſtationer Edinburgh.*

1797						
Jan.	15	To paper, for 12 reams at 12s	2	7	4	—

Dr. *W. Hunt merchant Dunbar.*

1797						
Jan.	19	To Salt, for balance of 150 buſhels, per J.	3	3	2	6
Feb.	19	To Meal, for 27 bolls, at 13s 10d	1	18	13	6

Dr. *W. Wallace merchant Dundee,*

1797						
Feb.	23	To Cash, in full		32	18	4

Dr. *Charges Merchandize,*

1797						
Feb.	10	To paper, taken for ſhop uſe, 1 ream	2	—	10	6
Apr.	30	To caſh, for ſmall charges ſince 1ſt January	1	5	3	8
		To P. Penman, for wages	6	8	—	—
				13	14	2

Dr. *Bell and Caw Banff,*

1797						
Feb.	19	To Meal, for 52 bolls, at 13s 10d	1	35	19	4
Mar.	28	To Sundries, per J.		42	2	6
Apr.	16	To Cash, paid their bill on me to George Freer, ſt	1	38	18	2
				117	—	—

Dr. *Henry Yorke Manchester,*

1797						
Mar.	5	To Yarn, for 360 ſpindles four hank, per J.	2	35	15	—

Dr. *Clover ſeed,*

				lb.			
1797							
Mar.	17	To Sundries, per J. for prime coſt and charges		1200		19 17	—
Apr.	30	To Profit and loſs, for gain			1	—	1
				1200			1

LEGER. Fo. (4)

Contra *Cr.*

1797						
Jan.	13	By Sundries, per J.		70	—	—
				70	—	—

Contra *Cr.*

				Stones.			
1797							
Feb.	2	By John Bell, at 3s 4½d		100	2	16 17	6
Mar.	28	By Bell and Caw, at 3s 7d		150	4	26 17	6
Apr.	2	By Caſh, at 3s 6½d		30	1	5 6	3
	30	By Balance-acct. at 3s 4d		40	6	6 13	4
				320		55 14	7

Contra *Cr.*

1797						
Apr.	30	By Balance account	6	7	4	—

Contra *Cr.*

1797						
Feb.	16	By Caſh in full	1	3	2	6
Apr.	30	By Balance account	6	18	13	6

Contra *Cr.*

1797						
Jan.	26	By Yarn, for balance of 500 ſpindles, per J.	2	32	18	4

Contra *Cr.*

1797						
Apr.	30	By Profit and Loſs	1	13	14	2
				13	14	2

Contra *Cr.*

1797						
Apr.	8	David Richards paid him by them	5	117	—	—
				117	—	—

Contra *Cr.*

1797						
Apr.	7	By Balance account,	6	35	15	—

Contra *Cr.*

				lb.			
1797							
Mar.	17	By Sundries, per J.		400		12	—
	21	By Sundries, per J.		330		10	3 9
Apr.	2	By Caſh, at 7¾d		160	1	5 3	4
	30	By Balance-account, at 6d		300	5	7 10	—
		Inlake		10			
				1200		34 17	1

LEGER.

				Fo.				(5)
Dr.		*P. Van Trump merchr. Amſterd.*						
1797								
Apr.	22	To Perth Bank, for his bill on me paid by them		3	28	12	—	
Dr.		*Lintſeed.*						
1797			Hds.					
Mar.	17	To clover ſeed, in barter at 55s	2	4	5	10	—	
Apr.	30	To Profit and Loſs, for gain				18	—	
			2		6	8	—	
Dr.		*W. Peat farmer at Duplin,*						
1797								
Mar.	21	To clover ſeed, for 140 lb. at 7½d		4	4	7	6	
Dr.		*Share of ſhip Adventure,*						
1797								
Mar.	25	To D. Richards bought ½ ſhare for		1	150	—	—	
Apr.	30	To Profit and Loſs,			23	—	—	
					173	—	—	
Dr.		*D. Richards merch. Alloa,*						
1797								
Apr.	6	To Sundries per J.			33	—	—	
	8	To Bell and Caw, for balance paid him by them		4	117	—	—	
					150	—	—	
Dr.		*Train-oil,*						
1797			Caſks					
Apr.	6	To Caſh, at 22s	30	1	33	—	—	
	30	To profit and Loſs, for gain		1	8	—	—	
			30		41	—	—	
Dr.		*W. Gib merchant Stirling,*						
1797								
Apr.	14	To Sundries, per J.			41	3	4	
					41	3	4	
Dr.		*Proper Expences,*						
1797								
Apr.	18	To Calicoes, for 5 yards, at 3s 2d		3	—	15	10	
	30	To Caſh, for charges ſince 1ſt January		1	32	—	—	
					32	15	10	

LEGER.

				Fo.				(5)
		Contra	*Cr.*					
1797								
Mar.	12	By Clover ſeed, for 6 bags, per J.		4	28	12	—	
		Contra	*Cr.*					
1797			Hds.					
Apr.	2	By Caſh	1	1	3	3		
	14	By William Gib	1	5	3	5		
			2		6	8		
		Contra	*Cr.*					
1797								
Apr.	30	By Balance account		6	4	7		
		Contra	*Cr.*					
1797								
Apr.	25	By Caſh, for ſhare profit of a voyage to Rotterdam		1	33			
	30	By Balance account		6	140			
					173			
		Contra	*Cr.*					
1797								
Mar.	25	By Share of Ship Adventure, for ½ bought from him		5	150			
					150			
		Contra	*Cr.*					
1797			Caſks.					
Apr.	11	By John Bell, at 27s	20	2	27			
	14	By W. Gib, at 28s	10		14			
			30		41			
		Contra	*Cr.*					
1797								
Apr.	14	By Caſh in part		1	35			
	30	By Balance account			6	3		
					41	3		
		Contra	*Cr*					
1797								
Apr.	30	By Profit and Loſs		1	32	15		
					32	15		

LEG

(6) LEGER. Fo

Dr. *Peter Penman, my Clerk,*

1797 Apr. 30	To balance account	6	8	—	—

Dr. *Balance-account,*

1797 Apr. 30	To Sundries, per J.	7	57	12	3
		7	57	12	3

LEGER. Fo. (6)

Contra Cr.

1797 Apr. 30	By Charges Merchandize, due him for wages	4	8	—	—

Contra Cr.

1797 Apr. 30	By Sundries, per J.	1	229	3	2
	By Stock		528	9	1
			757	12	3

(103.) TRIAL-BALANCE.

	Dr				Cr.			
Stock	L 312	7	3		L 824	2	8	
Profit and Loss	4	4	10		2	10	—	
Cash	599	15	11		591	12	1	
				L 916 8 —				L 1418 4 9
Meal	L 277	14	8		L 203	18	8	
Port wine	104	10	—		111	5	—	
Paper	36	15	—		41	13	6	
Yarn	94	17	4		49	12	6	
House in Perth	300	—	—		—	—	—	
				813 17 —				405 9 6
John Bell	L 247	11	—		L 110	—	—	
H. Hood	31	2	6		—	—	—	
William Mill	18	—	—		—	—	—	
Bank of Perth	140	—	—		441	3	2	
				436 13 6				551 3 8
Calicoes	L 16	12	6		L 18	5	10	
Hugh Cook	35	6	3		30	—	—	
Diaper	7	—	—		7	15	10	
Salt	17	15	10		17	4	6	
				76 14 7				73 6 2
Iron	L 53	6	8		L 49	1	3	
Hugh Pringle	50	—	—		70	—	—	
John Hunt	7	4	—		—	—	—	
William Hunt	18	13	6		—	—	—	
Charges Merchandize	13	14	2		—	—	—	
				142 12 4				119 1 3
Henry Yorke	L 35	15	—		L —	—	—	
Clover seed	29	17	—		27	7	1	
Flax-seed	5	10	—		6	8	—	
William Peat	4	7	6		—	—	—	
Share of Ship Adventure	150	—	—		33	—	—	
				225 9 6				66 15 1
Train-oil	L 33	—	—		L 41	—	—	
William Gib	41	3	4		35	—	—	
Proper Expences	32	15	10		—	—	—	
Peter Penman	—	—	—		8	—	—	
				106 19 2				84 — —
				L 2719 — 1				L 2719 — 1

(104.) COMPUTATIONS.

	Dr.	Cr.
1 Caſh	L599 15 11	L591 12 1
	591 12 1	
	L 8 3 10	
Meal	L277 14 8	L203 18 8
Dr. 420 bolls		83 14 —
Cr. 299	L 83 14 —	
121		L287 12 8
124		277 14 8
3 outcome	Profit	L 9 18 —
2 Port wine	L104 10 —	L111 5 —
		104 10 —
	Profit	L 6 15 —
Paper	L 36 15 —	L 41 13 6
		36 15 —
	Profit	L 4 18 6
Yarn	L 94 17 4	L 49 12 6
Spindles		47 8 —
834½ 12d	L 47 8 —	
360 12d		L 91 — 6
474½		94 17 4
Amiſſing ½	Profit	L 2 3 2
Houſe in Perth	L300 — —	
John Bell	L147 11 —	L110 — —
	110 — —	
	L 37 11 —	
H. Hood	31 2 6	
3 W. Mill	L 18 — —	
Bank of Perth	L240 — —	L441 3 2
		240 — —
		L201 3 2
Calicoes	L 16 12 6	L 18 5 10
		16 12 6
	Profit	L 1 13 4
H. Cook	L 35 6 3	
	30 — —	
	L 5 6 3	
Diaper	L 7 — —	L 7 15 10
		7 — —
	Profit	L — 15 10

	Dr.	Cr.
Salt	L 17 15 10	L 17 4 6
	17 4 6	
Loſs	L — 11 4	
4 Hugh Pringle	L 50 — —	L 70 — —
		50 — —
		L 20 — —
Iron	L 53 6 8	L 49 1 3
320 ſtone		6 13 4
280	L 6 13 4	
40		L 55 14 7
		53 6 8
	Profit	L 2 7 11
John Hunt	L 7 4 —	
W. Hunt	L 18 13 6	
Char. Merchan.	L 13 14 2	loſs.
Henry Yorke	L 35 15 —	
Clover ſeed	L 29 17 —	L 27 7 1
1200 lb.		L 7 10 —
890	L 7 10 —	
		L 34 17 1
310		29 17 —
300		
	Profit	L 5 — 1
10 inlake		
6 Lint-ſeed	L 5 10 —	L 6 8 —
		5 10 —
	Profit	L — 18 —
W. Peat	L 4 7 6	
Share Adventure	L150 — —	33 — —
		140 — —
	L140 — —	
		L173 — —
		150 — —
	Profit	L 23 — —
Train-oil	L 33 — —	L 41 — —
		33 — —
	Profit	L 8 — —
W. Gib	L 41 3 4	L 35 — —
	35 — —	
	L 6 3 4	
Proper Ex.	L 32 15 10	loſs.
7 P. Penman		L 8 — —
STOCK	L312 7 3	L824 2
Balance	528 9 1	prof. 16 13
	L840 16 4	L840 16 4

(105.) PROFIT

(105.) PROFIT AND LOSS SHEET.

Salt			L— 11 4	Meal			L 9 18 —
Charges Merchandize			13 14 2	Port-wine			6 15 —
Proper Expences			32 15 10	Paper			4 18 6
				Yarn			2 3 2
			L47 1 4	Calicoes			1 13 4
In Leger			4 4 10	Diaper			— 15 10
				Iron			2 7 11
			L51 6 2	Clover ſeed			5 — —
				Lint ſeed			— 18 —
				Share of ſhip Adventure			23 — —
				Train-oil			8 — —
							L65 9 10
Nett gain			16 13 8		In Leger		2 10 —
			L67 19 10				L 67 19 10

(106.) BALANCE-SHEET.

Caſh			L 8 3 10	Meal, outcome 3 lb.			
Meal, 124 b. at 13s 6d			83 14 —	Bank of Perth			L 201 3 2
Yarn, 274 ſp. at 2s			47 8 —	Hugh Pringle			20 — —
Amiſſing ½				Peter Penman			8 — —
Houſe in Perth			300 — —				
John Bell			37 11 —				L 229 3 2
Henry Hood			31 2 6				
William Mill			18 — —				
Hugh Cook			5 6 3				
Iron, 40 ſtone, at 3s 4d			6 13 4				
John Hunt			7 4 —				
William Hunt			18 13 6				
Henry Yorke			35 15 —				
Clover ſeed, 300 lb. at 6d			7 10 —				
Intake 10 lb.							
William Peat			4 7 6				
Share of ſhip Adventure			140 — —				
William Gib			6 3 4	STOCK			528 9 1
			L757 12 3				L757 12 3

PART. II.

Of BOOK-KEEPING BY SINGLE ENTRY.

(107.) Having explained the method of Book-keeping by DOUBLE ENTRY, we ſhall add a few directions for keeping books by SINGLE ENTRY; becauſe this method although leſs perfect, is yet the ſimpleſt and ſhorteſt. It is generally uſed by ſhop-keepers, and requires two principal books, a DAY BOOK and LEGER.

(108.) The DAY BOOK begins with a liſt of the debts due to the owner, and of the debts due by him to others. Then every tranſaction by which new debts are contracted, or former debts diſcharged, is entered as it occurs with the quantities and prices of goods bought or ſold or other circumſtances neceſſary for explaining the tranſaction.

(109.) When goods are ſold on credit we write *A. B.* [the purchaſer] *Dr.* and then mention the article or articles with the rates and amount. When we pay money we write *C. D.* [the receiver] *Dr. to Caſh*; when we buy goods, *E. F.* [the ſeller] *Cr.* for the articles purchaſed; when we receive money, *G H.* [the payer] *Cr. by Caſh.*

(110.) If debts be diſcharged or contracted by any other means, the perſon who becomes indebted to us, or to whom we pay a debt we formerly owed, is entered *Dr.* and the perſon to whom we become indebted, or who pays a debt he formerly owed, is entered *Cr.* and the nature of the tranſaction explained.

(111.) The LEGER contains an account for every perſon with whom there are dealings on credit, where the articles for which he is accountable to us, and thoſe for which we are accountable to him

him, are placed in oppoſite pages of the ſame folio; the *Dr.* articles on the left hand pages, and the *Cr.* articles on the right hand pages.

(112.) To POST the leger, allot a ſpace for every perſon or company whoſe name occurs in the liſt of debts at the beginning of the day book; write the title and enter the debts on the proper ſide, referring to the page of the former leger, where the account was; and enter the names in an index prepared as directed PART I. § 65; then proceed to poſt the articles from the day-book in their order, in the accounts of the perſons they belong to, allotting a ſpace for the account and writing the title, if it was not opened before. The date of the article is written on the margin, and the tranſaction is entered on the *Dr.* ſide, when the perſon is marked *Dr.* in the day-book; and on the *Cr.* ſide, when he is marked *Cr.* in the day-book.

(113.) When a ſingle article is bought or ſold, we mention it, with the quantity and rate, in the leger; but when ſeveral articles are bought or ſold at the ſame time, it is more uſual to enter only the ſum of the whole, writing *To Sundries*, or *By Sundries*, and referring to the day-book for particulars. The number of the folio, in which each article is poſted, is marked on the margin of the day-book. If the ſpace aſſigned for an account, be filled up, it muſt be transferred to another folio.

(114.) Inſtead of entering the *Dr.* and *Cr.* articles on oppoſite pages, ſome enter them all on the ſame page, and rule two ſets of money columns, one for extending the ſums of the *Dr.* articles and another for the ſums of the *Cr.* articles.

(115.) Thoſe who keep their books upon this plan, ought alſo to have a CASH BOOK, and an INVOICE BOOK; (ſee PART III. § 119, and 122,) which will make it unneceſſary to enter the particulars of ſuch articles in the day-book.

(116.) It is eaſy to collect a ſtate of all the debts due to the owner of the books, and thoſe due by him, once a year, or oftener; from which, together with an inventory of the goods on hand, and ready money, the ſtock of the owner will be eaſily known, and this compared with the amount of his ſtock at the beginning of the year, found in the ſame manner, ſhews the gain or loſs upon his trade during the year.

(117.) Some ſhop-keepers enter all their ſales, thoſe for ready money, as well as thoſe on credit, in their day-book; and when this is done, a column is generally ruled in the day-book for extending the caſh articles, and the amount of money received is entered once a-week, or once a-day in the caſh-book. This method is the beſt, when the articles are not very numerous or minute.

PART III.

OF THE SUBSIDIARY BOOKS.

(118.) Though all merchants accounts may be kept by the WASTE-BOOK, JOURNAL, and LEGER, alone; yet men of great buſineſs find it convenient, either for abridging theſe, or for other ends, to ſome others, generally called SUBSIDIARY or SUBSERVIENT BOOKS; the moſt common of which are the following, *viz.*

(119.) I. *The* CASH-BOOK is kept in a folio form like the leger, and ſerves to abridge the caſh account there. On the left-hand page, or Dr. ſide *Caſh* is charged Dr. for all the ſums received; and on the right-hand page, *Caſh* is made Cr. for all the ſums paid. Once a-week, or, which is more ordinary, once a-month, this book is poſted to the leger; or, firſt to the journal, by two entries *viz. Caſh* Dr. to *Sundries*, for all the receipts, and *Sundries* Drs. to *Caſh*, for all the payments. By this means the caſh account in the leger will be ſo far contracted as to conſiſt of 12 lines, *viz.* one for each month in the year.

(120.) II. *Book of* CHARGES *of* MERCHANDIZE. This book is only paged, and deſigned to abbreviate the caſh-book. It contains particular charges on goods and voyages; ſuch as carriage, cuſtom, freight, cranage, wharfage, &c. alſo other expences that affect trade in general; ſuch as, warehouſe rent, ſhop rent, accountant's wages, poſtage of letters, and the like. At the end of each month the money columns of this book are added up, and the ſum carried to the credit ſide of the caſh book.

(121.) III. *The* BOOK *of* HOUSE EXPENCES is alſo paged, and deſigned to eaſe the caſh book. It contains all diſburſements for family proviſion, ſervants wages, houſe rent, apparel, utenſils, &c. The money columns of this book are alſo added up at the end of each month, and the ſum tranſferred to the credit ſide of the caſh book.

(122.) IV. *The* INVOICE-BOOK, uſed chiefly by factors, is paged, and contains copies of the invoices of goods ſent to ſea, or of goods received from abroad.

(123.) V. *The* SALES-BOOK is alſo chiefly uſed by factors; and into it is poſted, from the waſte book, the particular ſales of every conſigned cargo by which the ſeveral articles of a ſale, that lie ſcattered in the waſte-book, are brought together and repreſented under one view, and that in a manner more full and minute than in the leger. This book exhibits the ſales of every conſignment ſeparately and by themſelves: to which are ſubjoined the reſpective charges, ſuch as freight, cuſtom, the factor's commiſſion, as alſo abatements allowed to buyers, &c. whoſe ſum ſubtracted from the groſs amount of ſales gives the neat proceeds. From this book, when a cargo is ſold off, an account of ſales is drawn out, in order to be tranſmitted to the employer.

(124.) VI. *The* BILL-BOOK, or MONTH-BOOK is intended to furniſh a merchant with a ready way of knowing the time when bills or other debts become payable to or by him. It conſiſts of 12 folios, one for each month in the year. The left hand page contains the debts that fall due to the merchant in the month on the top, and the right hand page contains the debts payable by him to others in the ſame month.

(125.) VII. RECEIPT-BOOK. In this book a merchant takes receipts of the payments he makes. The receipt ſhould contain the date; the ſum received, expreſſed in words at large, and alſo in figures in the money columns; the reaſon why

an

and whether in full or in part; and muſt be ſigned by the perſon receiving.

(126.) VIII. LETTER-BOOK. It is very imprudent in any perſon to ſend away a letter of buſineſs, without keeping a copy of it; and therefore to prevent the bad conſequences of ſuch a careleſs practice, merchants are provided with a large book in folio, into which is copied *verbatim* every letter of buſineſs before it be ſent off. So that this book, together with the letters received, which muſt alſo be carefully kept in files or boxes, makes a complete hiſtory of all the dealings that paſs betwixt a merchant and his correſpondents; which may be very uſeful on many occaſions.

(127.) IX. POCKET-BOOK. This is a ſmall book, of a portable ſize, which a merchant carries in his pocket when buſineſs calls him abroad to a tavern, a fair, the country, or other places. In this he ſets down the bargains he makes, the expences he is at, the debts he pays, or ſums he receives, with every other part of buſineſs he tranſacts while abroad; as alſo any occurrence or piece of news he thinks worth while to record. And when he comes home, he tranſfers the things contained in this book, each to their proper places in the waſte book, or books ſubſidiary.

(128.) X. Factors of great buſineſs ſometimes keep another ſmall book, called the *Memorandum-book*. Into this book is copied, from letters as they come to hand, ſhort notes of the ſeveral commiſſions for buying goods contained in them; and as commiſſions are effected, the notes are croſſed, or have ſome mark affixed to them. This is more convenient in doing buſineſs, than to be continually running to the letters themſelves.

(129.) The above are the ſubſidiary books moſt in uſe: but a merchant may keep ſome, and neglect others, or invent more as the nature of his buſineſs requires.

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BOO

BOOK-LAND. See BOCK-LAND.

* BOOKLEARNED. *adj.* [from *book* and *learned*.] Verſed in books or literature: a term implying ſome ſlight contempt.—

What'er theſe *booklearn'd* blockheads ſay,
Solon's the veri'ſt fool in all the play. *Dryden.*

He will quote paſſages out of Plato and Pindar, at his own table, to ſome *booklearned* companion, without bluſhing. *Swift.*

BOO

* BOOKLEARNING. *n. ſ.* [from *book* and *learning*.] Skill in literature; acquaintance with books: a term of ſome contempt.—They might talk of *booklearning* what they would; but he never ſaw more unfeaty fellows than great clerks. *Sidney.*—Neither does it require ſo much *booklearning* and ſcholarſhip, as good natural ſenſe, to diſtinguiſh true and falſe, and to diſcern what is well proved, and what is not. *Burnet's Theory.*

* BOOK-

BO OK MAN. *n. ſ.* [from *book* and *man*.] A man whoſe profeſſion is the ſtudy of books.—

This civil war of wits were much better us'd
On Navarre and his *bookmen*; for here 'tis abus'd. *Shakeſ.*

* BOOKMATE. *n. ſ.* [from *book* and *mate*.] Schoolfellow.—

This Armado is a Spaniard that keeps here in court,
A phantaſm, a monarch, and one that makes ſport
To the prince and his *bookmates*. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) * BOOKSELLER. *n. ſ.* [from *book* and *ſell*.] He whoſe profeſſion it is to ſell books.—He went to the *bookſeller*, and told him in anger, he had ſold a book in which there was falſe divinity. *Walton.*

(2.) BOOKSELLERS, GENERAL ACCOUNT OF. Bookſellers, among the ancient Romans, were ſtiled *Bibliopolæ*. Their office was diſtinct from that of *librarii*. Venders of ſmall books were more particularly denominated *libelliones*. At Rome, the Argiletum was the chief mart of books. Bookſellers in many places are ranked among the members of univerſities, and intitled to the privileges of ſtudents. At Tubingen, Saliſburg, &c. and at Paris before the revolution, they have always been diſtinguiſhed from the mechanical traders, and exempted from many taxes laid on their companions. Formerly, the offices of bookſellers and printers were united in the ſame perſons. Labbè gives a liſt of learned bookſellers moſt of whom were alſo printers and authors. Of late, bookſellers, leaving the labour of compoſing books to one ſet of perſons, and that of printing them to another, content themſelves with the gainful part. In this view they have been uſeful agents between authors and the public; and have contributed in no ſmall degree, to the encouragement of genius. The fairs of Francfort and Leipſic are famous for the reſort of bookſellers, not only from all parts of the empire, but from Holland, Flanders, &c. They have each their ſhop or warehouſe, over which is inſcribed the name of ſome celebrated bookſeller of former times; ſuch as *officina Elzeviriana*, *Frobeniana*, *Morelliana*, *Janſoniana*, &c. The traffic of books was anciently very inconſiderable, inſomuch that the book merchants of England, France, Spain, and other countries, were diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of STATIONERS; as having no ſhops, but only ſtalls and ſtands in the ſtreets. During this ſtate, the civil magiſtrates took little notice of the bookſellers, leaving the government of them to the univerſities, to whom they were ſuppoſed more immediate retainers; who accordingly gave them laws and regulations, fixed prices on their books, examined their correctneſs, and puniſhed them at diſcretion. But when, by the invention of printing, books and bookſellers began to multiply, it became a matter of more conſequence; and the ſovereigns took the direction of them into their own hands, giving them new ſtatutes, appointing officers to fix prices, and granting licences, privileges, &c.

(3.) BOOKSELLERS, MARKS USED BY SEVE- FAMOUS. An acquaintance with the marks, e title pages of books, is of ſome uſe; becauſe many ancient books have no other deſign tion either of printer, bookſeller, or even city The anchor is the mark of Raphelengius at Ley den; the ſame with a dolphin twiſted round it of the Manutii at Venice and Rome; the Ario of Oporinus at Baſil; the caduceus, or Pegaſu of the Wecheliuſes at Paris and Francfort; th cranes of Cramoiſy; the compaſs of Plantin a Antwerp; the fountain of Vaſcoſan at Paris; th ſphere in a balance, of Janſon and Blaew, at Am ſterdam; the lily, of the Juntas at Venice, Fl rence, Lyons, and Rome; the mulberry tree, c Morel at Paris; the olive tree, of the Stephenſe at Paris and Geneva, and the Elzevirs at Amſte dam and Leyden; the bird between two ſerpent of the Frobeniuſes at Baſil; the truth, of the Co melins at Heidelberg and Paris; the Saturn, c Colinæus; and the printing-preſs, of Badius, A cenſius, &c.

(1.) * BOOKWORM. *n. ſ.* [from *book* an *worm*.] 1. A worm or mite that eats holes i books, chiefly when damp.—My lion, like a mot or *bookworm*, feeds upon nothing but paper, an I ſhall beg of them to diet him with wholeſom and ſubſtantial food. *Guardian.* 2. A ſtudent to cloſely given to books; a reader without judg ment.—Among thoſe venerable galleries and ſol tary ſcenes of the univerſity, I wanted but a blac gown, and a ſalary, to be as mere a *bookworm* a any there. *Pope's Letters.*

(2.) BOOK-WORM is an inſect of the mite kind which afterwards becomes a fly, bred from eg depoſited in the month of Auguſt in books, eſp cially in the leaves neareſt the covers. It is no unlike the mite or BLATTA found in corn. Whe the time of its tranſformation approaches, it ſeek to get into the air, and eats through, till it ge to the extremity of the book.

(3.) BOOK-WORMS, ANTIDOTES AGAINST. T mixture of juice of wormwood and other bitte ingredients in the paſte, (which is an expedient u ſed by book-binders) is no ſecurity to books gainſt book worms. The beſt ſecurity is from m neral ſalts, which all inſects hate. For this pu poſe book-binders, ought to mix with the paſt employed in binding, the ſalt called ARCANU DUPLICATUM, alum, and vitriol. With this pr caution, books may be preſerved from all injur by this miſchievous little creature. M. Predige in his Inſtructions to German book-binders, (Le ſic, 1741,) recommends making paſte of ſtarc inſtead of flour; and adviſes to powder ſlightl the books, their covers, and the ſhelves on whic they ſtand, with a mixture of powder of alum and fine pepper; and in the months of March July, and September, to rub the books with piece of woollen cloth ſteeped in powdered alum

BOOLIE, *adj. Obſ.* beloved.

* BOOLY. *n. ſ.* [an Iriſh term.] All the Ta tarians, and the people about the Caſpian Sea which are naturally Scythians, live in hordes; b ing the very ſame that the Iriſh *boolies* are, drivi their cattle with them, and feeding only on the milk and white meats. *Spenſer.*

* BOOM. *n. ſ.* [from *boom*, a tree, Dutch.] [In ſea language.] A long pole uſed to ſpread ou the clue of the ſtudding ſail; and ſometimes th clues of the mainſail and foreſail are boomed ou

2.

1. A pole with buthes or baſkets, ſet up as a mark to ſhew the ſailors how to ſteer in the channel, when a country is overflown. *Sea Dictionary.* 3. A *boom* of wood laid acroſs a harbour, to keep off the enemy.—

As his heroick worth ſtruck envy dumb,
Who took the Dutchmen, and who cut the *boom*. *Dryden.*

* To BOOM. *v. n.* [from the noun. A ſea term.] 1. To ruſh with violence; as a ſhip is ſaid to come *booming*, when ſhe makes all the ſail ſhe can. *Dict.* 2. To ſwell and fall together.—

Booming o'er his head,
The billows clos'd; he's number'd with the dead. *Young.*

Forſook by thee, in vain I ſought thy aid,
When *blooming* billows clos'd above my head. *Pope.*

BOOMER, a village in Somerſetſhire, between Bridgewater and Taunton.

BOOMHALL, a village of Ireland, near Londonderry, in Ulſter.

BOOMITES, a kind of agate, of a remarkable brightneſs and tranſparence, which repreſents the figures of ſhrubs, trees, moſſes, &c. in the manner of the DENDRACHATES, or *mocho-ſtone*.

(1.) * BOON. *adj.* [*bon*, Fr.] Gay; merry: as, a *boon* companion—

Satiate at length,
And heighten'd as with wine, jocund and *boon*;
Thus to herſelf ſhe pleaſingly began. *Par. Loſt.*

—I know the infirmity of our family; we play the *boon* companion, and throw our money away in our cups. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) * BOON. *n. ſ.* [from *bene*, Sax.] A petition.] A gift; a grant; a benefaction; a preſent.—

Vouchſafe me for my meed but one fair look:
A ſmaller *boon* than this I cannot beg,
And leſs than this, I'm ſure, you cannot give. *Shakeſ.*

—That courtier, who obtained a *boon* of the emperor, that he might every morning whiſper him in the ear, and ſay nothing, aſked no unprofitable ſuit for himſelf? *Bacon.*—

The bluſt'ring fool has ſatisfy'd his will;
His *boon* is giv'n; his knight has gain'd the day,
But loſt the prize. *Dryden's Fables.*

What rhetorick didſt thou uſe,
To gain this mighty *boon*? ſhe pities me!
Addiſon's Cato.

BOONEN, Arnold, portrait painter, born at Dort in 1669, was at firſt a diſciple of Arnold Verbuis, and afterwards of Godfrey Schalcken, with whom he continued ſix years. The ſweetneſs of his colouring, and the neatneſs of his pencil, with a ſtriking likeneſs in his portraits, procured him many admirers. He painted ſubjects by candle-light, very natural; and much more of his work was requeſted than it was poſſible for him to undertake. He painted the portraits of Peter the Great of Muſcovy; Frederic King of Pruſſia; the Duke of Marlborough, many of the princes of Germany, and moſt of the noblemen who attended the Czar. His ſmall pictures are in the taſte of Schalcken; but his exceſſive application, to anſwer the multitude of his engagements, impaired his health, while it enriched him. He died in 1729, aged 32.

BOONETON, a ſmall poſt town of the United States, in New Jerſey; 160 m. from Philadelphia.

BOONSBOROUGH, a ſmall town of Kentucky, and the firſt that was ſettled in that ſtate. It is agreeably ſituated on the S. ſide of the river Kentucky, about 160 miles above its confluence with the Ohio, and 20 S. E. of Lexington. Lon. 9. 45. W. Lat. 37. 57. N

(1.) BOOPS, in ichthyology, the trivial name of a ſpecies of balæna. See BALÆNA, § I. N. 1.

(2.) BOOPS is alſo the name of a fiſh caught in the Mediterranean, and ſold at Naples, Meſſina, and Genoa; ſeldom exceeding 5 inches in length, and remarkable for the largeneſs of its eyes. It is a ſpecies of SPARUS.

BOOPTHALMUS, [from βους, an ox, and οφθαλμος, an eye,] a kind of grey agate with large dark blue circles in it, bearing ſome reſemblance to an ox's eye.

* BOOR. *n. ſ.* [*beer*, Dutch; *gebure*, Sax.] A ploughman; a country fellow; a lout; a clown.—The bare ſenſe of calamity is called grumbling; and if a man does but make a face upon the *boor*, he is preſently a malecontent. *L'Eſtrange.*—He may live as a *boor* of Holland, whoſe cares of growing ſtill richer waſte his life. *Temple.*—

To one well-born, th' affront is worſe and more,
When he's abus'd and baffl'd by a *boor*. *Dryd.*

* BOORISH. *adj.* [from *boor*.] Clowniſh; ruſtick; untaught; uncivilized.—Therefore, you clown, abandon, which is, in the vulgar, leave the ſociety, which, in the *booriſh*, is company of this female. *Shakeſpeare's As you like it.*

* BOORISHLY. *adv.* [from *booriſh*.] In a boorish manner; after a clowniſh manner.

* BOORISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *booriſh*.] Clowniſhneſs; ruſticity; coarſeneſs of manners.

BOOR-WORM, in natural hiſtory, a name given by Rumphius, to the *ſolen lignorum*, a ſea worm, which bores the bottoms of ſhips.

* BOOSE. *n. ſ.* [*boſig*, Sax.] A ſtall for a cow or an ox.

BOOSHATTER, formerly the city of UTICA, famous for the retreat and death of Cato, lies about 7 miles inland from PORTO FARINO in the bay of TUNIS. Nothing remains of its ancient grandeur, except part of a large aqueduct, ſome ciſterns, and other magnificent ruins, which cover a large extent of ground, and ſhow it to have been a very conſiderable place. The ſea came up anciently to this city, though now 7 miles diſtant.

(1.) * BOOT. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Profit; gain; advantage; ſomething given to mend the exchange.—

My gravity,
Wherein, let no man hear me, I take pride,
Could I, with *boot*, change for an idle plume,
Which the air beats for vain. *Shakeſ.*

2. *To boot.* With advantage; over and above; beſides.—

Canſt thou, O partial ſleep, give thy repoſe
To the wet ſeaboy, in an hour ſo rude;
And, in the calmeſt and the ſtilleſt night,
With all appliances and means *to boot*,
Deny it to a king? *Shakeſ.*

Man is God's image; but a poor man is
Chriſt's ſtamp *to boot*: both images regard.
Herbert.

—He might have his mind and manners formed, and be inſtructed *to boot* in ſeveral ſciences. *Locke.*

3. It ſeems, in the following lines, uſed for *booty*, or plunder.—

Others, like ſoldiers, armed in their ſtings,
Make *boot* upon the ſummer's velvet buds.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) * BOOT. *n. ſ.* [*bottas*, Armoriek; *botes*, a ſhoe, Welch; *botte*, French.] 1. A covering for the leg, uſed by horſemen.—

That my leg is too long—
—No; that it is too little.—
—I'll wear a *boot*, to make it ſomewhat rounder.
Shakeſpeare.

Shew'd him his room, where he muſt lodge that night,
Pull'd off his *boots*, and took away the light.
Milton.

—Biſhop Wilkins ſays, he does not queſtion but it will be as uſual for a man to call for his wings, when he is going a journey, as it is now to call for his *boots*. *Addiſon's Guardian.*—2. A kind of rack for the leg, formerly uſed in Scotland for torturing criminals.

(3.) BOOT, among the ancient Romans, was called OCHREA; and by middle age writers, GREVA, GAMBERIA, *bainberga*, *bembarga*, or *benbarga*. The boot is ſaid to have been the invention of the Carians. It was at firſt made of leather, afterwards of braſs or iron; whence Homer calls the Greeks *brazen-booted*. The boot was uſed by the foot, as well as by the horſemen. It only covered half the leg; ſome ſay the right leg, which was more advanced than the left, it being advanced forwards in an attack with the ſword; but in reality it appears to have been uſed on either leg, and ſometimes on both. Thoſe who fought with darts or other miſſile weapons, advanced the left leg foremoſt, ſo that this only was booted.

(4.) BOOT, [BORDEKIN,] as above defined, (§ 2. *def.* 2.) was uſed in *England*, as well as in this country, to extort confeſſion by torture. A boot, ſtocking, or buſkin of parchment, being put on the leg moiſt, and brought near the fire, in ſhrinking ſqueezes the leg violently, and occaſions intolerable pain. There is alſo another kind of boot; conſiſting of 4 thick ſtrong boards bound round with cords: two of theſe are put between the criminal's legs, and the two others placed one on the outſide of one leg, and the other on the other; then ſqueezing the legs againſt the boards by the cords, the criminal's bones are ſeverely pinched, and ſometimes even broken. This and moſt other barbarous puniſhments are now aboliſhed in Britain and France; but it is ſtill uſed in ſome other countries.

(5.) * BOOT OF A COACH. The ſpace between the coachman and the coach.

(6.) BOOTS, among the moderns, (§ 2. *def.* 1.) are uſed on horſeback, both to keep the body more firm, and defend the part from the injuries of the weather. Boots ſeem to have taken their name from the reſemblance they bear to a ſort of jacks or leathern bottles formerly in uſe, and called *botte*, in the old French *bouts*. Borel derives the name from the old French word *bot*, a ſtump, becauſe the boot gives the leg this appearance. The Chineſe have a kind of boots made of ſilk, or fine ſtuff lined with cotton, a full inch thick, which they always wear at home; and when a viſit is made them, if they happen to be without their boots, their gueſt muſt wait till they put them on. They never ſtir out of doors without their boots on; and their ſcrupulouſneſs in this reſpect is the more ridiculous, as they are always carried in chairs.

(7.) BOOTS, FISHING, are a thick ſtrong ſort uſed in dragging ponds, and the like.

(8.) BOOTS, HUNTING, a thinner kind uſed by ſportſmen.

(9.) BOOTS, JACK, a very ſtrong kind of boots uſed by troopers.

(1.) * *To* BOOT. *v. a.* [*baten*, to profit, Dutch; *bot*, in Saxon, is recompence, repentance, or fine paid by way of expiation; *botan*, Sax. is, to repent; or to compenſate; as,

He is wis that bit and bote,
And bet biworen dome.]

1. To profit; to advantage: it is commonly uſed in theſe modes, *it boots*, or *what boots it?*—It ſhall not *boot* them, who derogate from reading, to excuſe it, when they ſee no other remedy; as if their intent were only to deny that aliens and ſtrangers from the family of God are won, or that belief doth uſe to be wrought at the firſt in them, without ſermons. *Hooker.*—

For what I have, I need not to repeat;
And what I want, it *boots* not to complain.
Shakeſpeare.

If we ſhun
The purpoſ'd end, or here lie fixed all,
What *boots* it thus theſe wars to have begun.
Fairfax.

What *boots* the regal circle on his head,
That long behind he trails his pompous robe?
Pope.

2. To enrich; to benefit.—

And I will *boot* thee with what gift beſide,
That modeſty can beg. *Shak. Ant. and Cleo.*

(2.) * *To* BOOT. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To put on boots.—*Boot, boot*, maſter Shallow; I know the young king is ſick for me: let us take any man's horſes. *Shakeſpeare.*

BOOTAN, a mountainous country of Indoſtan Proper, and a feudatory province of Thibet. It lies between Thibet and Bengal. Taſſaudon is the capital.

* BOOT-CATCHER. *n. ſ.* [from *boot* and *catch*.] The perſon whoſe buſineſs at an inn is to pull off the boots of paſſengers.—The oſtler and the *bootcatcher* ought to partake. *Swift.*

* BOOTED. *adj.* [from *boot*.] In boots; in horſeman's habit.—

A *booted* judge ſhall ſit to try his cauſe,
Not by the ſtatute, but by martial laws. *Dryd.*

BOOTES, a conſtellation of the northern hemiſphere, conſiſting of 23 ſtars according to Ptolemy's catalogue; of 18 in Tycho's; of 34 in Bayer's; of 52 in Hevelius's; and of 54 in Flamſtead's catalogue. It is alſo called ARCTOPHYLAX, BUBULCUS, BUBULUS, &c.

(1.) BOOTH, Barton, a famous tragedian, born in Lancaſhire in 1681, and educated in Weſtmin-

ter ſchool under the celebrated Dr Buſhby. He was intended for the church, but his ſucceſs in the Latin plays, cuſtomarily performed by the ſcholars, gave him an inclination for the ſtage; and, running away from ſchool to Dublin, he there commenced actor. His firſt appearance was in the part of Oroonoko, in which he came off with every mark of approbation. From this time he continued daily improving; and, after two ſucceſsful campaigns, returned to his native country, to try his abilities on the Engliſh ſtage. Having, by letter, reconciled himſelf to his friends, he obtained a recommendation from Lord Fitzharding to Mr Betterton, who gave him all the aſſiſtance in his power. The firſt part he appeared in at London was that of Maximus in Lord Rocheſter's Valentinian, wherein his reception exceeded his moſt ſanguine expectations. His performance of Arthan, in Rowe's Ambitious Stepmother, which was a new tragedy, eſtabliſhed his reputation. In Pyrrhus, in the Diſtreſſed Mother, he ſhone without a rival. But he was indebted to a happy coincidence of merit and chance, for that height of fame which he at length attained in the character of Cato, as drawn by Mr Addiſon, in 1712. For this being conſidered as a party play, the Whigs, in favour of whoſe principles it was evidently written, thought it their duty ſtrongly to ſupport it, while the Tories, unwilling to have it conſidered as a reflection on *their* adminiſtration, were ſtill more vehement in their approbation of it; which they carried to ſuch a height, that they made a collection of 50 guineas in the boxes during the performance, and preſented them to Mr Booth, with this compliment, "That it was a ſlight acknowledgement for his honeſt oppoſition to a perpetual dictator, and his dying ſo bravely in the cauſe of liberty." He alſo got a preſent of an equal ſum from the managers, in conſideration of the great ſucceſs of the play, which they attributed in a good meaſure to his extraordinary merit; and certain it is, that no one ſince has ever equalled, or even nearly approached, his excellence in that character. Nor were theſe the only advantages he reaped from his ſucceſs in this part; for Lord Bolingbroke ſoon after procured a ſpecial licence from Q. Anne, recalling all the former ones, and nominating Mr Booth as joint manager with Wilks, Cibber, and Dogget; the laſt of whom took it ſo much amiſs, that he withdrew from any further ſhare in the management. In 1704, Mr Booth had married a daughter of Sir William Barkham Bart. who died in 1710, without iſſue. In 1719 he married the celebrated Miſs Hefter Santlow, a woman of a moſt amiable diſpoſition, whoſe great merit as an actreſs, added to the utmoſt diſcretion and prudential œconomy, had enabled her to ſave a conſiderable fortune. During the 20 years in which Mr Booth continued a manager, the theatre was in the greateſt credit; and his death, which happened on the 10th of May 1733, contributed not a little to its decline. Mr Booth wrote a dramatic work entitled *Dido and Æneas*; but his maſter-piece was a Latin inſcription to the memory of Mr William Smith, a celebrated actor. Mr Booth's dramatic excellency lay wholly in tragedy, not being fond of ſuch parts as had not ſtrong paſſion. Dignity rather than complacency, rage rather than tenderneſs, ſeemed to be his taſte. For a complete idea of his abilities, we muſt refer to the deſcriptions given by Cibber in his *Apology*, and by Aaron Hill, Eſq; in a political paper, called the *Prompter*, which may be ſeen in Cibber's Lives of the Poets, and Chetwood's Hiſtory of the Stage.—His character as a man was adorned with many amiable qualities.

(2.) BOOTH, Henry, earl of Warrington, was born in 1651, and was member for Cheſter in ſeveral parliaments during the reign of Charles II. Being a zealous proteſtant, he was active in promoting the bill for excluding the D. of York from the throne. This, with his vigorous and conſtant oppoſition to the arbitrary meaſures then prevailing, rendered him ſo very obnoxious to the court, that in 1684, (ſoon after his becoming Lord Delamer, by the death of his father,) he was committed cloſe priſoner to the tower, and though liberated ſoon after, he was committed a 2d and 3d time in 1685; and at laſt, in Jan. 1686, tried for high treaſon; but in ſpite of all the efforts of the court, and the bloody Jefferies, was unanimouſly acquitted by his jury. After this he lived retired till matters ripened for the revolution, to which he contributed by raiſing forces and every other means in his power. Upon its accompliſhment, he was made a privy counſellor, chancellor of exchequer, lord lieutenant of Cheſter, &c.; but though he held ſome of theſe offices for life, he was diſmiſſed from others, as he oppoſed the court meaſures, and wiſhed for farther limitations of the royal prerogative. But to avoid all appearance of ingratitude, his diſmiſſion was accompanied with the creation of the new title of E. of Warrington, in 1690, and a penſion of L. 2000 a-year. He died 2. Jan. 1694. He wrote ſeveral political tracts, and the caſe of William E. of Devonſhire; which, with his ſpeeches made in parliament, and ſome family prayers, were publiſhed in one vol. 8vo. in 1694.

(3.) BOOTH, in geography, a village in the E. Riding of Yorkſhire, near the Ouſe.

(4.)* BOOTH. *n. ſ.* [*boed*, Dutch; *bwth*, Welch.] A houſe built of boards, or boughs, to be uſed for a ſhort time.—The clothiers found means to have all the queſt made of the northern men, ſuch as had their *booths* in the fair. *Camden.*—Much miſchief will be done at Bartholomew fair by the fall of a *booth*. *Swift.*

To BOOT-HALE, *v. a. obſ.* To rob; to plunder.

BOOT-HALER, *n. ſ. obſ.* A robber.

BOOTHBY, a village in Lincolnſh. near Bloxham.

BOOTHBY-PAGNEL, a village in Lincolnſhire, S. E. of Grantham.

* BOOT-HOSE. *n. ſ.* [from *boot* and *hoſe*.] Stockings to ſerve for boots; ſpatterdaſhes.—His lacquey with a linen ſtock on one leg, and a *boot-hoſe* on the other, gartered with a red and blue liſt. *Shakeſpeare.*

BOOTHS, a town in the High Peak of Derby.

BOOTHS-HALL, a village in Lancaſhire, 3 m. N. E. of Leigh. It has fairs, on Whitſ. Sat. and Sat. before October 23.

BOOTING, a kind of rack. See BOOT, § 2, 4.

BOOTING CORN, in our ancient cuſtoms, a rent of corn paid by tenants, by way of boot to the proprietor, for granting them leaſes.

BOOT-LAST. See BOOT-TREE.

BOOTLE, a village in Cumberland, 5 m. from Ravenglaſs. It has fairs April 5, and Sep. 24.

BOOT-LEGS, *n. ſ.* pieces of leather cut for making the legs of boots. *Aſh.*

* BOOTLESS. *adj.* [from *boot.*] 1. Uſeleſs; unprofitable; unavailing; without advantage.—

When thoſe accurſed meſſengers of hell
Came to their wicked man, and 'gan tell
Their *bootleſs* pains, and ill ſucceeding night.
Spenſer.

—God did not ſuffer him, being deſirous of the light of wiſdom, with *bootleſs* expence of travel, to wander in darkneſs. *Hooker.*—

Bootleſs ſpeed,
When cowardice purſues, and valour flies.
Shakeſpeare.

Let him alone;
I'll follow him no more with *bootleſs* pray'rs;
He ſeeks my life. *Shakeſpeare.*

2. Without ſucceſs.—

Doth not Brutus *bootleſs* kneel? *Shakeſp.*

Thrice from the banks of Wye,
And ſandy bottom'd Severn, have I ſent
Him *bootleſs* home, and weather-beaten back.
Shakeſpeare.

BOOT-MAKER, *n. ſ.* one who makes boots.

BOOTON, a town in Norfolk, E. of Repham.

(1.) BOOTS, in botany, the marſh-mallows.

(2.) BOOTS. See BOOT, § 6—9.

BOOT-TOPPING, in ſea language, the act of cleaning the upper part of the ſhip's bottom, or that part which lies immediately under the ſurface of the water, and daubing it over with tallow, or with a mixture of tallow, ſulphur, reſin, &c.

* BOOT-TREE. *n. ſ.* [from *boot* and *tree.*] Two pieces of wood, ſhaped like a leg, to be driven into boots, for ſtretching and widening them.

(1.) * BOOTY. *n. ſ.* [*buyt*, Dutch; *butin*, Fr.] 1. Plunder; pillage; ſpoils gained from the enemy.

One way a band ſelect from forage drives
A herd of beeves, fair oxen, and fair kine,
Their *booty*. *Milton.*

—His conſcience is the hue and cry that purſues him; and when he reckons that he has gotten a *booty*, he has only caught a Tartar. *L'Eſtrange.*—

For, ſhould you to extortion be inclin'd,
Your cruel guilt will little *booty* find. *Dryden.*

2. Things gotten by robbery.—If I had a mind to be honeſt, I ſee fortune would not ſuffer me; ſhe drops *booties* in my mouth. *Shakeſpeare.* 3. *To play booty.* To play diſhoneſtly, with an intent to loſe. The French uſe, *Je fuis botté*, when they mean to ſay, *I will not go.*—We underſtand what we ought to do; but when we deliberate, we *play booty* againſt ourſelves: our conſciences direct us one way, our corruptions hurry us another. *L'Eſtrange.*—I have ſet this argument in the beſt light, that the ladies may not think that I *write booty*. *Dryden.*

(2.) BOOTY, among the Greeks, was divided in common among the army, the general only claiming a larger ſhare. By the military diſcipline of the Romans, ſpoils taken from the enemy belonged to the republic, particular perſons having no right to them. Sometimes indeed they divided it among the ſoldiery, to animate them, and ſerve in lieu of a reward. But this diſtribution depended on the generals, who were to conduct themſelves herein with great equity and moderation; otherwiſe it became a crime of peculation to lay hands on the pillage. The conſuls Romulus and Vaturius were condemned for having ſold the booty taken from the Æqui. During the Jewiſh republic, the booty was divided equally between the army and the people; but under the kings a different kind of diſtribution obtained.—Among the Mahometans, two thirds of the ſpoils are allowed to the army: the other third to God, to Mahomet and his relations, and to the orphans, the poor, and the pilgrims. Among us, formerly the booty was divided among the ſoldiers. If the general be in the field, every body takes what he can lay hold on; if the general be abſent, the booty is diſtributed among the ſoldiers, two parts being allowed the cavalry, and one to the infantry. A captain is allowed ten ſhares, a lieutenant ſix, and a cornet four.

BOOZ, [בֹּעַז Heb. *i. e.* ſtrength.] See BOAZ.

* BOPEEP. *n. ſ.* [from *bo* and *peep.*] The act of looking out, and drawing back as if frighted, or with the purpoſe to fright ſome other.—

Then they for ſudden joy did weep,
And I for ſorrow ſung,
That ſuch a king ſhould play *bopeep*,
And go the fools among. *Shakeſp.*

Rivers,
That ſerve inſtead of peaceful barriers,
To part th' engagements of their warriours,
Where both from ſide to ſide may ſkip,
And only encounter at *bopeep*. *Hudibras.*

—There the devil plays at *bopeep*, puts out his horns to do miſchief, then ſhrinks them back for ſafety. *Dryden.*

BOPFINGEN, a town of Suabia in Germany, ſeated on the Egar. Lon. 9. 55. E. Lat. 48. 51. N.

BOPPART, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Rhine, and electorate of Treves; ſeated at the foot of a mountain, on the W. bank of the Rhine, 8 m. S. of Coblentz. It was taken by the French, in the end of 1794, along with BINGEN, BONN, COBLENTZ, and the reſt of the territory, W. of the Rhine; and is now included in one of the new departments into which that territory is divided. Lon. 7. 10. E. Lat. 50. 20. N.

BOQUINIANS, } a ſect of ſacramentarians,
BOQUINII, } who aſſerted that the body of Chriſt was preſent in the Euchariſt only to thoſe for whom he died; viz. the elect.

BOQUINUS, the founder of the ſect of BOQUINIANS, a Lutheran divine, who taught that Chriſt did not die for all mankind, but only for the faithful, and conſequently was only a particular Saviour. In this opinion he is not ſingular.

BORA, in natural hiſtory, the name uſed for the BUFONITES, by ſome authors; theſe are ſuppoſed by many to be real ſtones, but are only the teeth of a fiſh.

* BORABLE. *adj.* [from *bore.*] That may be bored.

BORABY, a village in Yorkſhire, N. W. of Whitby.

BORACE, *n. ſ. obſ.* Borax. *Chaucer.*

(1.) * BORACHIO. *n. ſ.* [*borracho*, Span.] A drunkard.—How you ſtink of wine! D'ye think my

my niece will ever endure ſuch a *borachio!* you're abſolute *borachio. Congreve.*

(2.) BORACHIO is the name of a ſort of leathern bottles, uſed in Spain for bringing wine from the mountains: whence the metaphor, § 1.

BORÆUM, in ancient geography, the name given by Ptolemy to the promontory on the coaſt of ASTRIM, in Ireland, now called ST HELEN'S HEAD.

* BORAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *borago*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

BORAGO, a ſynonime of the ANCHUSA.

BORAK. [Arab. *i. e.* Shining.] See ALBORAK.

(1.) * BORAMEZ. *n. ſ.* The Scythian lamb, generally known by the name of *Agnus Scythicus.*—Much wonder is made of the *boramez*, that ſtrange plant animal, or vegetable lamb of Tartary, which wolves delight to feed on; which hath the ſhape of a lamb, affordeth a bloody juice upon breaking, and liveth while the plants be conſumed about it. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

(2.) BORAMEZ. See AGNUS SCYTHICUS.

BORASSUS, in botany, a genus of plants, deſcribed by Linnæus, but not claſſed. The male and female flowers grow on ſeparate plants, and give the plant ſuch a different figure, that they are called by different names, in the Hortus Malabaricus; the male being called AMPANA, and the female CARIMPANA. The male has for the cup of its flower the whole compound ſpatha, which is amentaceous and imbricated: the flower is divided into 3 ſegments, the petals being hollowed, and of an oval figure: the ſtamina are 6 thick filaments, and the antheræ are thick and crooked. In the female, the cup is the ſame as in the male, but the petals of the flower, which is divided into 3 parts, in the manner of the male, are very ſmall, of a roundiſh figure, and remain when the piſtil, &c. fall off. The germen of the piſtil is roundiſh; the ſtyles are 3, and ſmall, and the ſtigmata are ſmall; the fruit is a roundiſh obtuſe berry, of a rigid ſtructure, and containing only one cell; the ſeeds are 3, and of an oval compreſſed figure.

I. * BORAX. *n. ſ.* [*borax*, low Latin.] An artificial ſalt, prepared from ſal armoniac, nitre, calcined tartar, ſea ſalt, and alum, diſſolved in wine. It is principally uſed to ſolder metals, and ſometimes an uterine ingredient in medicine. *Quincy.*

II. BORAX, ACCOUNTS OF THE ORIGIN OF. Borax is a ſalt in appearance ſimilar to alum, brought originally from the Eaſt Indies in an impure ſtate, and afterwards purified in Europe. It was long uncertain whether this ſalt was a natural or factitious ſubſtance; but it is now aſcertained that it is naturally produced in the mountains of Thibet, from whence other parts of the eaſtern continent are ſupplied. Mr Kirwan, in his mineralogy, informs us, that Mr Grill Adamſon ſent ſome to Sweden in 1772, in a cryſtalline form, as dug out of the earth in Thibet, where it is called *pounxa*, *my-poun*, and *boui-poun*. It is ſaid to have been found in Saxony in ſome coal-pits. In the *Phil. Tranſ.* vol. 77. we have two different accounts of the place where it is found, and the manner of obtaining it. One of theſe is by William Blane, Eſq; who tells us that in the language of the country it is called *Swagah*, and is brought into Indoſtan from the mountains of Thibet. It is produced in Jumlate, about 50 days journey N. from Betowle, a ſmall principality about 200 miles N. E. of Lucknow. The place where it is found is ſaid to be a ſmall valley ſurrounded with ſnowy mountains, in which is a lake about 6 miles in circumference; the water of which is conſtantly ſo hot that the hand cannot bear it for any time. Around this lake the ground is perfectly barren, not producing even a blade of graſs; and the earth is ſo full of a ſaline matter, that after falls of rain or ſnow it concretes in white flakes on the ſurface like the natron of Indoſtan. On the banks of this lake, in winter when the falls of ſnow begin, the earth is formed into ſmall reſervoirs ſix inches high: when theſe are filled with ſnow, the hot water from the lake is thrown upon it; which, together with the water from the melted ſnow, remains in the reſervoir, to be partly abſorbed by the earth and partly evaporated by the ſun; after which there remains at the bottom a cake, ſometimes half an inch thick, of crude borax, which is taken up for uſe. It can only be made in winter, becauſe the falls of ſnow are indiſpenſably requiſite, and alſo becauſe the ſaline appearances upon the earth are ſtrongeſt at that time. When once it has been made, it cannot be made again on the ſame ſpot, untill the ſnow has fallen and diſſolved 3 or 4 times, when the ſaline efflorescence appears as before. The borax, in this ſtate, is carried from hill to hill upon goats, and paſſes through many hands, which increaſes the difficulty of obtaining any authentic information concerning the original manufacture. When brought down from the hills, it is refined from its groſs impurities by boiling and cryſtallization. Mr Blane could obtain no anſwer, from thoſe who gave him this account, to any of his queſtions concerning the quality of the water and the mineral productions of the ſoil. All they could tell him was, that the water was very hot, very foul, and as it were very greaſy; that it boils up in many places, and has a very offenſive ſmell; and that the ſoil is remarkable only for the ſaline appearances already mentioned. The country in general produces conſiderable quantities of iron, copper, and ſulphur; and Mr Blane was aſſured that all the borax in India came from this place. With reſpect to the credibility of the account, he obſerves, firſt, "That borax is really brought from the mountains of Thibet is certain, as he himſelf often had occaſion to ſee large quantities of it brought down, and had purchaſed it from the Tartar mountaineers, who brought it to market; 2dly, he had never heard of its being produced or brought into India from any other quarter; and, 3dly, if it was made on the coaſt of Coromandel, he thinks there can be little doubt but that the whole proceſs would have been fully inquired into, and given to the public long before this time." The other account is from father Joſeph de Ravato, preſident of the miſſion of Thibet, and ſent in a letter to the Royal Society, communicated by Joſeph Banks, Eſq; He pretends alſo to have had his intelligence from a native of the country, though it differs conſiderably from that of Mr Blane. "In the province of Marme (ſays he), 28 days journey N. of Nepal, and 25 to the W. of

Laſſa

Laſſa, the capital of Thibet, there is a vale about 8 miles broad. In a part of this vale there are two villages, the inhabitants of which are wholly employed in digging the borax, which they ſell into Thibet and Nepal. Near theſe two villages there is a pool of a moderate ſize, and ſome ſmaller ones, where the ground is hollow and the rain collects. In theſe pools, after the water has been ſome time detained in them, the borax is formed naturally: the men wading into the water, feel a kind of pavement under their feet, which is a ſure indication that borax is there formed; and there they accordingly dig it. Where there is little water, the layer of borax is thin; where it is deep, it is thicker; and near the latter there is always an inch or two of ſoft mud, which is probably a depoſit of the water after it has been agitated by rain or wind. Thus is the borax produced merely by nature, without either boiling or diſtillation. The water in which it is formed is ſo bad, that the drinking a ſmall quantity of it will occaſion a ſwelling of the abdomen, and in a ſhort time death itſelf. The earth that yields the borax is of a whitiſh colour; and in the ſame valley, about 4 miles from the pools, there are mines of ſalt, which is there dug in great abundance for the uſe of all the inhabitants of theſe mountains, who live at a great diſtance from the ſea. Ten days journey farther N. there is another valley named TAPRE, where they dig borax; and another ſtill farther to the northward, named CIOGA. Borax in the Hindoo and Nepaleſe languages, is called SOAGA. If it be not purified, it will eaſily deliqueſce; and in order to preſerve it for any time till they have an opportunity of ſelling it, the people often mix it with earth and butter. In the territory of Mungdan, 16 days journey N. of Nepal, there are rich mines of arſenic; and in various other places are found mines of ſulphur, as alſo of gold and ſilver, whoſe produce is much purer than thoſe of the mines of Pegu." See § V.

(III.) BORAX, CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF. Borax is a peculiar neutral ſalt formed by the union of a kind of acid with mineral alkali. This acid, from ſome ſuppoſed properties of allaying the heat of fevers, had the name of *ſal ſedativus*, which it ſtill retains. According to Mr Kirwan, 100 parts of purified borax contain 32 of real boracic acid, 17 of mineral alkali, and about 47 of water; but of this quantity of mineral alkali only about 5 parts are ſaturated; whence, in many caſes, borax acts as an alkali. Bergman informs us, that it requires an equal weight of acid to make the alkaline properties entirely diſappear; and Dr Withering, that double the quantity of acid is required for this purpoſe, both in the tincal and refined borax. See § IV. N. 2 and 3.

(IV.) BORAX, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Mr Fourcroy informs us, that borax is found, in commerce, in three different ſtates.

1. BORAX, CHINESE, is ſomewhat pure, and is met with in the form of ſmall plates or maſſes irregularly cryſtallized, and of a dirty white. It appears to conſiſt of fragments of priſms, and pyramids, confounded together without any ſymmetrical arrangement. A white powder is obſerved on the ſurface, which is thought to be of an argillaceous nature.

2. BORAX, CRUDE, tincal, or chryſocolla, comes from Perſia, in greeniſh maſſes, of a greaſy feel, or in opaque cryſtals of an olive green, which are ſix-ſided priſms terminated by irregular priſms.—There are two varieties of theſe cryſtals, differing in magnitude. This ſalt is very impure by the addition of foreign matters. Mr Kirwan tells us, that this kind is called *brute borax*, *tincal*, or *chryſocolla*, and that it is in the form of large, flat, hexangular, or irregular cryſtals, of a dull white or greeniſh colour, greaſy to the touch; or in ſmall cryſtals, as it were cemented together by a rancid yellowiſh, oily ſubſtance, intermixed with marl, gravel, and other impurities. Mr Engeſtrom has a ſuſpicion that the tincal is only the reſiduum of the mother liquor of borax evaporated to dryneſs; and that the greaſineſs ariſes from its being mixed with butter milk, to prevent its efflorescence.

3. BORAX, DUTCH, or purified borax, is in the form of portions of tranſparent cryſtals of conſiderable purity. Pyramids with ſeveral facets may be obſerved among them, the cryſtallization appearing to have been interrupted. "This form (ſays Mr Fourcroy) ſhows to a certainty that the Dutch refine this ſalt by ſolution and cryſtallization."—Mr Kirwan ſays, that it is purified by ſolution, filtration, and inſtallization; and the cryſtals thus obtained are calcined, to free them ſtill farther from greaſineſs; and then diſſolved, filtered and cryſtallized, a ſecond time. Sometimes more mineral alkali is added, as tincal is ſaid to contain an exceſs of ſedative ſalt. Mr Fourcroy tells us, that a purified borax, not inferior to the Dutch, but perhaps even of greater purity, is prepared by ſome chemiſts at Paris.

(V.) BORAX, DISCOVERIES AND OPINIONS RESPECTING. M. Fourcroy ſays, that M. La Piame, an eminent apothecary at Paris, has diſcovered, that borax is continually formed in the ſoap-ſuds and refuſe waters of the kitchen, which a perſon preſerves in a kind of ditch; and from which, at the end of a certain time, he obtains true borax in fine cryſtals. Some authors affirm, that it is produced by art in China. A mixture of greaſe, clay, and dung, is ſaid to be depoſited in a ditch, *ſtratum ſuper ſtratum*. This mixture is ſprinkled with water, and ſuffered to remain for ſome years; at the end of which time it is lixiviated, and affords crude borax by evaporation. Others have alledged, that it is obtained from water, which filters through copper mines. Mr Beaume poſitively aſſerts, that the former of theſe proceſſes ſucceeded very well with him; but Dr Black gives little credit to his aſſertions. Borax has been by ſome ſuppoſed to be an artificial production, and perhaps may be artificially made; (See CHEMISTRY, INDEX;) but Mr Hoefer, apothecary to the late Emperor Leopold II. when grand duke of Tuſcany, diſcovered that the waters of ſeveral lakes of that country contain it in a ſtate of great purity. It is probable, (ſays our author) that it may hereafter be found in other mineral waters; and it ſeems to be produced by the putrefaction of fat ſubſtances. Mr Hoefer firſt diſcovered this acid in the waters of Lagoon, named *Cerchiale*, near Monte Rotondo, of which diſcovery an account was publiſhed in 1778. The ſame was found in a concrete ſtate, in ſix places, viz. the

Like

lake of *Trevale*, 20 miles W. of Sienna; that of *Lando*, 10 miles farther W.; of *del Saſſo*, 3 m. farther; of *Sarazzano*, ſix m. from Monte Rotondo; of *Caſtel Nuovo*, 7 m. from Monte Rotondo and 14 from Sienna; and that of *Monte Cerboli*, 4 miles diſtant from *Caſtel Nuovo*. In the neighbourhood of all theſe lakes are conſiderable ſprings of hot water ruſhing out of the earth, ſome clear, and ſome muddy; either of a dark, or a whitiſh colour; and, in ſome, a kind of metallic cruſt or pellicle is perceived on the ſurface of the water. Many cavities from which the waters ruſh out ſeem to be true ſmall volcanic craters, and continually emit from the earth vapours of a ſulphureous and ammoniacal nature. Theſe waters not only contain the acid of borax, both in the fluid and concrete ſtate, but various other concretions are there obſerved, ſuch as martial vitriol, ammoniacal, aluminous, concrete boracic ſalts, brimſtone, &c. "It is remarkable, (ſays our author, p. 363.) that, near 40 years ago, Dr Hill, in his notes on *Theophraſtus's Treatiſe on Stones*, aſſerted, that borax was a ſalt made by evaporation of an ill taſted and foul water, of which there were ſprings in Perſia, Muſcovy, and Tartary. Mr Beaume, at Paris, pretended to have diſcovered the method of making the ſedative ſalt by a long maceration of greaſe and earthy ſubſtances; but nobody has yet been able to verify this fanciful diſcovery. The unrefined borax which is brought to Europe under the name of *tincal*, looks like ſoft ſoap, is fat, and covers or encruſts the boracic cryſtals. Mr Swab has publiſhed ſome experiments upon this tincal in the acts of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm for 1756. He found it in a martial earth, and a fat ſubſtance, which, to ſmell, and other circumſtances, comes nearer to a mineral fat; as alſo, that pure borax does not yield any *hepar ſulphuris* when united with a phlogiſton and a vitriolic acid; from which he concludes, that borax is prepared from its own particular mineral ſubſtance. Profeſſor Pott and M. d'Henouiville have very carefully examined the refined borax; and from their experiments, which have been publiſhed, it is evident, that it is of a peculiar nature. However, there remains to be known, for certain, from whence it is prepared by the Indians: for if it is produced from a mineral ſubſtance, as is very probable, there muſt ſtill other mixtures and compoſitions as yet unknown to the learned world. I have alſo found in the tincal ſmall bits of leather, bones, and ſmall pebbles, whence there is no certainty to be concluded on from its examination; but if it ſhould happen that it is prepared from animal ſubſtances, it muſt be allowed, that nature has formed an alkaline ſalt in the animal kingdom analogous to the *ſal fabile microcoſmicum*."

VI.) BORAX, USES OF. Borax ſerves as a flux to vitrifiable earths, with which it forms a good glaſs, and is employed in making artificial gems. It vitrifies clay, but much leſs completely than ſiliceous earths; and from this property it adheres to the inſides of crucibles, and glazes them. The uſe of borax, (§ III.) as well as the borax in ſubſtance, is made uſe of to fuſe vitrifiable earths, with which it forms clear and nearly colourleſs glaſs: by the aſſiſtance of heat it diſſolves the earth precipitated from the liquor of flints. It unites with ponderous earth, magneſia, lime, and alkalis, and forms, with different ſubſtances, ſalts diſtinguiſhed by one general name of borax, tho' only that formed by the combination of ſedative ſalt and mineral alkali is uſed in the arts. It is uſed in many other chemical operations as a flux, beſides that of glaſs-making; and the dyers alſo uſe it for giving a goſs to ſilks. In medicine it has been given as a narcotic, and was formerly an ingredient in a powder for promoting delivery, but is now diſuſed.

BORBEREK, a town of Tranſylvania, in the county of Weſſenburg, ſeated on the river Maros. It has a caſtle ſeated on a high rock, and fortified with towers.

BORBETOMAGUS, in ancient geography, a city of the Vangiones on the Rhine; now called WORMS.

BORBONIA, in botany, a genus of the decandria order, belonging to the diadelphia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 32d order, *Caryophylleæ*. The ſtigma is emarginated: the calyx has pointed ſpines; and the legumen is pointed. There are ſix ſpecies, all natives of warm countries. They are a kind of broom; and riſe to the height of 10 or 12 feet, but in Europe ſeldom above 4 or 5. They muſt be kept conſtantly in the ſtove, and may be propagated by ſhoots; but as theſe are generally two years before they put forth roots, the beſt method is by ſeeds, which muſt be procured from their native places.

BORBONIA ASTRA, a denomination formerly given by ſome French writers to the ſolar ſpots, on a ſuppoſition that they were ſecondary planets.

BORBORIANI, } in church hiſtory, a ſect of
BORBORITES, } gnoſtics, in the 2d century, who, beſides embracing the errors of theſe heretics, denied the laſt judgment. Their name comes from βορβορος, filth; on account of a cuſtom they had of daubing their faces and bodies with dirt.

BORBORYGMUS, [βορβορυγμος, Gr.] a rumbling or croaking of the inteſtines.

BORBOTHA, in ichthyology, a name given by ſome authors to the MUSTELA FLUVIATILIS, or eel-pout.

BORCH, a town of Lower Saxony, 14 m. N. E. of Magdeburgh, ſeated on the Elbe. Lon. 11. 14. E. Lat. 52. 25. N.

BORCHLOEN, or LOOTS, a town in the ci-devant biſhopric of Liege, now included in one of the new departments lately annexed to the French republic. It is 15 m. N. W. of Leige. Lon. 5. 28. E. Lat. 50. 50. N.

BORCOVIUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Ottadini in Britain, now called Berwick. See BERWICK, No. 2.

(I.) BORD, *n. ſ. obſ.* a cottage. *Spens.* See ABOARD.

(II.) BORD, *n. ſ. obſ.* a table, or board. *Chauc.*

(III.) BORD, in law, is variouſly applied: *e. g.*

1. BORD HALFPENNY, a ſmall toll by cuſtom paid to the lord of the town for ſetting up boards, tables, booths, &c. in fairs or markets.

2. BORD LANDS, the demeſnes which lords anciently kept in their hands for the maintenance of their board or table.

3. BORD

3. BORD LODE, 1. a ſervice required of tenants, to carry timber out of the woods of the lord to his houſe: 2. the quantity of proviſion which the BORDARII, or bordmen, paid for their bord lands.

4. BORD MAN, a tenant on bord lands.

5. BORD SERVICE, the tenure of bord lands, by which ſome lands in certain places are held of the biſhop of London, and the tenants now pay 6d. per acre, in lieu of ſending proviſion as formerly for their lord's table.

To BORD, *v. a. obſ.* To approach. *Spenſer.*

BORDA, [old law Lat.] a board, or plank.

BORDAGE, or } the condition of the *bor-*
BORDAGIUM, } *darii.*

BORDARIA, in old records, a cottage.

BORDARII, often mentioned in the Domeſday inquiſition, were diſtinct from the SERVI and VILLANI, and ſeem to be thoſe of a leſs ſervile condition, who had a bord or cottage, with a ſmall parcel of land, allowed to them, on condition they ſhould ſupply the lord with poultry and eggs, and other ſmall proviſions for his board and entertainment. Though, according to Spelman, the *bordarii* were inferior to the *villani*, as being limited to a ſmall number of acres.

BORDAT, in commerce, a ſmall narrow ſtuff, manufactured in ſome parts of Egypt, particularly in Cairo, Alexandria, and Damieta.

BORD-CLOTH, *n. ſ. obſ.* a table-cloth. *Chaue.*

(1.) BORDE, Andrew, M. D. was born at Pevenſey in Suſſex, early in the 16th century. In his *Introduction to Knowledge*, he ſays, that he was a ſtudent of Oxford. He entered a brother of a Carthuſian convent in or near London; but, not liking their diſcipline, he returned to Oxford, and applied to phyſic. Some time after, he embarked for the continent; and, as he expreſſes it, "travelled through and round about Chriſtendom, and out of Chriſtendom into ſome parts of Africa." In 1541 and 1542, he reſided at Montpelier, where he was made M. D. and after his return to England received the ſame degree at Oxford. From his preface it appears that he had alſo been in Scotland. Having ſatisfied his inclination for travelling, he ſettled firſt at Pevenſey, afterwards at Wincheſter, and finally in London, where he became firſt phyſician to Henry VIII; notwithſtanding which, he had the misfortune to end his life in the Fleet priſon, in 1549. Wood ſays, "he was eſteemed a noted poet, a witty and ingenious perſon, and an excellent phyſician." Pitts calls him a man of ſufficient learning, but too volatile. His writings are, 1. A book of the introduction of knowledge, the whych doth teach a man to ſpeak part of all manner of languages, &c. Lond. 1542, 4to; dedicated, from Montpelier, to the lady Mary, daughter of Henry VIII. It is written partly in verſe, and partly in proſe. 2. The breviary of health. Lond. 1547, 4to. 3. Dietary of health, Lond. 1576, 8vo. 4. The merry tales of the madmen of Gotham: Printed, ſays Wood, in the time of Henry VIII. in whoſe reign, and after, it was accounted a book full of wit and mirth, by ſcholars and gentlemen. It is now ſold only on the ſtalls of ballad-ſellers. 5. A right leaſant and merry hiſtory of the mylner of Abingn, with his wife and his fair daughter, and of o poor ſcholars of Cambridge. Lond. 4to. 6. A book of every region, country, and province, &c. publiſhed by Hearne at end of *Benedictus abbas Peterb. de vita Henrici* II. Oxf. 1735, 8vo. 7. The principles of aſtronomy. Lond. 12mo. The author ſays, that he wrote this little book in 4 days, with one old pen without mending.

(2.) BORDE, *n. ſ. obſ.* A jeſt. *Chaue.*

To BORDE, *v. n. obſ.* To jeſt. *Chaue.*

BORDEKIN. See BOOT, § 4.

* BORDEL. } [*bordeel*, Teut. *bordel*, Armo-
* BORDELLO. } rick.] A brothel; a bawdy-houſe.—

From the *Bordello* it might come as well,
The ſpital, or pickhatch. *Ben Jonſon.*

—Making even his own houſe a ſtew, a *bordel*, and a ſchool of lewdneſs, to inſtil vice into the unwary ears of his poor children. *South.*

BORDEN, two villages; 1. in Cornwall, near Devonſhire: 2. in Kent, near Milton.

BORDENTOWN, a thriving town of the United States in Burlington County, New Jerſey, ſeated on the E. ſide of the Delaware, 26 miles above Philadelphia, and 4 S. E. by S. of Trenton. It conſiſts of about 100 houſes, a grammar ſchool, and 2 churches for Baptiſts and Quakers. As it ſtands on a riſing ground, about 70 feet perpendicular above the Delaware, between two creeks which run into that river, it is extremely healthy. Lon. 29. 0. E. Lat. 40. 12. N.

(1.) * BORDER. *n. ſ.* [*bord*, Germ. *bord*, Fr.] 1. The outer part or edge of any thing.—They have looking-glaſſes, bordered with broad *borders* of cryſtal, and great counterfeit precious ſtones. *Bacon.*—The light muſt ſtrike on the middle, and extend its greateſt clearneſs on the principal figures; diminiſhing by degrees, as it comes nearer and nearer to the *borders*. *Dryden.* 2. The march or edge of a country; the confine.—If a prince keep his reſidence on the *border* of his dominions the remote parts will rebel; but if he make the centre his ſeat, he ſhall eaſily keep them in obedience. *Spenſer.* 3. The outer part of a garment generally adorned with needle-work, or ornaments. 4. A bank raiſed round a garden, and ſet with flowers; a narrow rank of herbs or flowers.—

There he arriving, round about doth fly
From bed to bed, from one to other *border*;
And takes ſurvey, with curious buſy eye,
Of every flower and herb there ſet in order.
Spenſer.

All with a *border* of rich fruit-trees crown'd
Whoſe loaded branches hide the lofty mound
Such various ways the ſpacious alleys lead,
My doubtful muſe knows not what path to tread. *Waller.*

(2.) BORDERS, among floriſts, the leaves which ſtand around the middle thrum of a flower.

(3.) BORDERS, in gardening, are made to inclose parterres, that they may not be injured by walking in them. Borders are made either circular, ſtraight, or in cants; and are turned into knots, ſcrolls, volutes, and other compartments. They are rendered very ornamental by the flowers, ſhrubs, yews, &c. that are raiſed in them. They are always laid with a ſharp riſing in the middle, to render them more agreeable to the eye: the largeſt are allowed 5 or 6 feet, and the ſmalleſt commonly 4.

(1.) *

(1.) * *To* BORDER. *v. a.* 1. To adorn with a border of ornaments. 2. To reach; to touch; to confine upon; to be contiguous to.—Sheba and Raamah are thoſe parts of Arabia, which *bor*der the ſea called the Perſian gulf. *Raleigh.*

(2.) * *To* BORDER. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To confine upon; to touch ſomething elſe at the ſide or edge: with *upon*.—It *bordereth upon* the province of Croatia, which, in time paſt, had continual wars with the Turks garriſons. *Knolles.*—Virtue and honour had their temples *bordering on* each other, and are ſometimes both on the ſame coin. *Addiſon.* 2. To approach nearly to.—All wit, which *borders upon* profaneneſs, and makes bold with thoſe things to which the greateſt reverence is due, deſerves to be branded with folly. *Tatler.*

* BORDERER. *n. ſ.* [from *border*.] He that dwells on the borders, extreme parts, or confines; he that dwells next to any place.—

They of thoſe marches, gracious ſovereign!
Shall be a wall ſufficient to defend
Our inland from the pilfering *borderers*. *Shakeſp.*

—An ordinary horſe will carry two ſacks of ſand; and, of ſuch, the *borderers* on the ſea do beſtow fifty at leaſt in every acre; but moſt huſbands double that number. *Carew.*—

The eaſieſt to be drawn
To our ſociety, and to aid the war:
The rather for their ſeat, being next *bord'rers*
On Italy; and that they abound with horſe.
Ben Jonſon.

—The king of Scots in perſon, with Perkin in his company, entered with a great army, though it chiefly conſiſted of *borderers*, being raiſed ſomewhat ſuddenly. *Bacon.*—

Volga's ſtream
Sends oppoſite, in ſhaggy armour clad,
Her *borderers*; on mutual ſlaughter bent,
They rend their countries. *Philips.*

BORDESLEY, two Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Warwickſhire, near Alſton: 2. in Worceſterſhire, near Hewel-Grange.

BORD-FREE, *adj.* not liable to pay the Bord halfpenny. See BORD, § III. N° 1.

BORDILLER, *n. ſ. obſ.* A frequenter of brothels. *Chaucer.*

BORDLEY, a village in Yorkſhire, E. of Settle.

BORDOE, one of the FARO iſlands. It has a fine harbour called KLACK.

BORDONE. See BORDUNI.

* *To* BORDRAGE. *v. n.* [from *border*.] To plunder the borders. Not in uſe.—

Long time in peace his realm eſtabliſhed,
Yet oft annoy'd with ſundry *bordragings*
Of neighbour Scots, and foreign ſcatterlings.
Spenſer.

BORDRAGING, *n. ſ. obſ.* The act of plundering on the borders of a country. *Aſh.*

BORDUNI, or BORDONE, Paris, an excellent Italian painter, born at Venice about 1512. He was the diſciple of Titian; but has been admired more for the delicacy of his pencil, than for the truth of his outlines. He was at the court of France in the reign of Francis I. who had a great eſteem for him, and for whom he drew not only abundance of hiſtory pieces, but the portraits of ſeveral court ladies, in ſo fine a manner, that original nature was hardly more charming. He at length returned to Venice, laden with riches and honour; and died in 1587, aged 75.

BORDURE. See HERALDRY.

(1.) BORE, Catharine DE, wife of LUTHER, the celebrated reformer, was the daughter of a private gentleman, and was born about A. D. 1499. Having been early immured in the monaſtery of Nimptſchen, ſhe left it, along with other 8 nuns in 1523, during the buſtle of the *holy week*, and was married to Luther in 1526. On theſe accounts the Catholic writers raiſed many calumnies againſt her, from which Mr Bayle has very completely vindicated her; and points out numberleſs miſtakes of Varillas and others concerning her. He gives her an excellent character, and mentions, that Luther was ſo ſatisfied with his choice, that he ſaid, "he would not change his condition for the wealth of Crœſus." She bore him 5 children, and ſurvived him a few years. She died at Torgau in 1552, aged 53.

(2.) * BORE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The hole made by boring.—

Into hollow engines long and round,
Thick ramm'd, at th' other *bore* with touch of fire
Dilated, and inflam'd. *Milton.*

2. The inſtrument with which a hole is bored.—So ſhall that hole be fit for the file, or ſquare *bore*. *Moxon.* 3. The ſize of any hole; the cavity; the hollow.—We took a cylindrical pipe of glaſs, whoſe *bore* was about a quarter of an inch in diameter. *Boyle.*—

Our careful monarch ſtands in perſon by,
This new-caſt cannon's firmneſs to explore;
The ſtrength of big-corn'd powder loves to try,
And ball and cartridge ſorts for every *bore*.
Dryden.

—It will beſt appear in the *bores* of wind inſtruments; therefore cauſe pipes to be made with a ſingle, double, and ſo on, to a ſextuple *bore*; and mark what tone every one giveth. *Bacon.*

(3.) * BORE. The *preterite* of *bear*.—

The father *bore* it with undaunted ſoul,
Like one who durſt his deſtiny controul;
Yet with becoming grief he *bore* his part;
Reſign'd his ſon, but not reſign'd his heart.
Dryden.

'Twas my fate
To kill my father, and pollute his bed,
By marrying her who *bore* me. *Dryden.*

(4.) BORE OF A GUN, or CANNON, denotes the diameter of it, or rather its whole cavity.

(5.) BORE, SQUARE, in ſmithery, a ſquare ſteel point, or ſhank well tempered, fitted in a ſquare ſocket in an iron wimble, ſerving to widen holes, and make them round and ſmooth within.

(1.) * *To* BORE. *v. a.* [*borian*, Sax.] 1. To pierce in a hole.—

I'll believe as ſoon,
This whole earth may be *bor'd*; and that the moon
May through the centre creep. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Mulberries will be fairer, if you *bore* the trunk of the tree through, and thruſt, into the places *bored*, wedges of ſome hot trees. *Bacon.*

But Capys, and the graver ſort, thought fit
The Greeks ſuſpected preſent to commit

To ſeas or flames; at leaſt, to ſearch and *bore*
The ſides, and what that ſpace contains t' explore. *Denham.*

2. To hollow.—Take the barrel of a long gun, perfectly *bored*, and ſet it upright, and take a bullet exactly fit for it; and then if you ſuck at the mouth of the barrel never ſo gently, the bullet will come up ſo forcibly, that it will hazard the ſtriking out your teeth. *Digby.* 3. To make by piercing.—Theſe diminutive caterpillars are able, by degrees, to pierce or *bore* their way into a tree, with very ſmall holes; which, after they are fully entered, grow together. *Ray.* 4. To pierce, to break through.—

Conſider, reader, what fatigues I've known,
What riots ſeen, what buſtling crouds I *bor'd*,
How oft I croſs'd where carts and coaches roar'd. *Gay.*

(2.) * *To* BORE. *v. n.* 1. To make a hole.—A man may make an inſtrument to *bore* a hole an inch wide, or half an inch, not to *bore* a hole of a foot. *Wilkins.* 2. To puſh forwards toward a certain point.—

Thoſe milk paps,
That thro' the window bars *bore* at men's eyes,
Are not within the leaf of pity writ. *Shakeſp.*

Nor ſouthward to the raining regions run;
But *boring* to the weſt, and hov'ring there,
With gaping mouth's they draw prolifick air. *Dryden.*

(3.) * *To* BORE. *v. n.* [with farriers.] Is when a horſe carries his noſe near the ground. *Dict.*

BOREA, an ancient name for a ſpecies of jaſper, of a bluiſh green colour.

* BOREAL. *adj.* [*borealis*, Lat.] Northern; ſeptentrional.—

Crete's ample fields diminiſh to our eye;
Before the *boreal* blaſts the veſſels fly. *Pope.*

BOREALIS, AURORA. See AURORA, N° II. § 2—6.

(1.) * BOREAS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] The north wind.

Boreas, and Cæcas, and Argeſtas loud,
And Thraſcias, rend the woods, and ſeas upturn. *Milton.*

(2.) BOREAS is derived by Chambers from the Greek, βορὰ, food, becauſe the north wind creates an appetite. Pezron obſerves, that anciently Boreas ſignified the *north-eaſt wind* blowing at the time of the ſummer ſolſtice.

(3.) BOREAS, in the ancient mythology, is repreſented as the ſon of the giant Aſtræus, by the goddeſs Aurora, and to have reigned in Thrace, becauſe Thrace lay N. of Greece. Notwithſtanding the coldneſs of his blaſts, he is ſaid to have been very warm in his love; and to have raviſhed Orithya the daughter of Erectheus, king of Athens, who bore him ZETES and CALAIS, two of the Argonauts, and 6 daughters. He is alſo ſaid to have carried off Chloris the daughter of Arcturus, and to have daſhed Pitys, another of his miſtreſſes, againſt a rock in a fit of jealouſy, becauſe ſhe preferred the god Pan: Mr Bayle has a long article full of learned and humorous remarks upon his amours. The Greeks paid divine honours to Boreas. The Megalopolitans honoured him as their chief deity; and the Athenians, confiding him as their ally, by his marriage with their ancient king's daughter, implored his aid in their wars with the Perſians. He is repreſented on the temple at Athens with his robe before his mouth, as if he felt the cold of the climate over which he preſides; agreeably to which, Ovid calls him *gelidus tyrannus*, the ſhivering tyrant. But he is uſually deſcribed by the Roman poets as violent and impetuous. In painting, he is repreſented as an old man with a horrible look, his hair and beard covered with ſnow or hoar froſt, with the feet and tail of a dragon. M. Spierlingius has a treatiſe in praiſe of Boreas, wherein he ſhows the honours paid to him by antiquity. Boreas, he ſays, purifies the air, renders it calm and ſalubrious, preſerves buildings from decay, drives away the plague and other noxious diſeaſes, and expels locuſts and other vermin hurtful to the grounds.

BOREASMI, feaſts inſtituted at Athens in honour of Boreas.

BOREATTON, two villages in Shropſhire: 1. between Brown-clee hill, and the river Rea: 2. ſix miles N. W. of Shrewſbury.

BORECH, a kind of ſalt brought from Perſia.

BORECOLE, a ſpecies, or rather variety, of cabbage. See BRASSICA.

* BOREE. *n. ſ.* A kind of dance.—

Dick could neatly dance a jig,
But Tom was beſt at *borees*. *Swift.*

BOREHAM, the name of three Engliſh villages: 1. in Eſſex, near Chelmsford, famous for a ſtately ancient fabric, once the moſt magnificent in the county, now in ruins: 2. in Suſſex, near Aſhburnham: 3. in Wiltſhire, near Warminſter.

BOREHILL, in Surry, near Homeſbury hill.

BOREL, Peter, M. D. was the ſon of James Borel who publiſhed ſeveral poems, and was born at Caſtres in 1620. He applied himſelf to the ſtudy of phyſic, and practiſed with great ſucceſs in the city of Caſtres. Towards the end of 1655, he went to Paris, and was ſoon after made king's phyſician. In 1674, he was received into the academy of ſciences, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by writing a great number of works. The moſt eſteemed are, 1. *Hiſtoriarum & obſervationum medico-phyſicarum.* 2. *Bibliotheca chymica*, 12mo. 3. *De vero teleſcopii inventore, cum brevi omnium conſpicillorum hiſtoria.* He died in 1678.

BORELAND. See BORLAND, N° 1, & 2.

BORELL, *adj. obſ.* Ignorant; rude. *Chauc.*

BORELLI, John Alphonſo, a famous philoſopher and mathematician born at Naples in 1608. He was profeſſor of philoſophy and mathematics at Florence and Piſa, where he became highly in favour with the princes of the houſe of Medicis: but having been engaged in the revolt of Meſſina, he was obliged to retire to Rome, where he ſpent the remainder of his life, under the protection of Chriſtiana queen of Sweden, who by her liberality ſoftened the rigour of his fortune. He continued two years in the convent of the regular clergy of St Pantaleon, called the *Pious Schools*, where he inſtructed the youth in mathematics. He died there of a pleuriſy, in 1679, aged 72. He wrote in Latin, 1. Euclid reſtored. 2. The theory of the influence of the planets in medicine, deduced from phyſical cauſes. 3. Of percuſſive force. 4. Of natural motions depending upon gravity. 5. An hiſtorical and meteorological account of the

burning of mount Ætna, in 1669. 6. Of the motion of animals; and ſeveral other works, ſome of which are in Italian.

BORELY, a village in Eſſex, near Suffolk.

BOREPLACE, in Kent, 5 miles W. of Tunbridge.

BORER. *n. ſ.* [from *bore*.] A piercer; an inſtrument to make holes with.—The maſter-bricklayer muſt try all the foundations, with a *borer*, ſuch as well-diggers uſe, to try the ground. *Moxon.*

BORESWORTH-HUSBAND, a village in Leiceſterſhire near Northampton.

BORG. See BORGUE.

BORGARUTIUS, Proſper, an eminent Italian phyſician of the 16th century, and profeſſor of anatomy at Padua. He publiſhed ſeveral works, particularly a treatiſe on anatomy, firſt in Italian and afterwards in Latin. He went to France in 1565, and was made king's phyſician to Charles IX. having met with a M. S. copy of Veſalius's *Chirurgia Magna*, at Paris, he reviſed and publiſhed it at Venice, in 1569, in 8vo.

BORG-BREGE. See BORGI FRACTURA.

BORGE, or } [Sax.] A pledge of ſecurity for
BORGHA, } another's keeping the peace, and conforming to the laws.

BORGHEIM, a town of Germany, in the electorate of Cologn, ſituated near the E. bank of the Rhine, between Duſſeldorf and Nuys, in the territory which was over-run by the French republican army in 1794, and 1796.

BORGHETTO, a town of Italy, in the Veronèſe, near which Buonaparte obtained a victory over the Auſtrians, in June 1796.

(1.) BORGIA, Cardinal, was elected Pope in 1492, having obtained the chair of *infallibility* by bribery, and took the name of ALEXANDER VI. During his cardinalſhip, he had, by his miſtreſs Vanozza, 4 ſons and a daughter, who was named *Lucretia*, but proved extremely unworthy of the name; for ſhe had the monſtrous depravity of not only committing inceſt with two of her brothers, but even of conſenting to the brutality of her father; who, in a fit of jealouſy, killed one of his ſons, whom ſhe preferred to him. His favourite ſon, Francis, the only good character in the family, was murdered by his brother Cæſar. The avarice of this monſter was as unbounded as his luſt, and he fell a deſerved ſacrifice to it at laſt: ſee N° 2. Alfledius has the following epitaph upon him:

Vendit Alexander ſacramenta, altaria, Chriſtum;
Emerat ille prius; vendere jure poteſt.

(2.) BORGIA, Cæſar, natural ſon of pope Alexander IV. was a brave general, but a moſt abandoned villain: ſee ITALY, HISTORY OF. It is incredible what numbers he cauſed to be taken off by poiſon, or by the ſword. Swarms of aſſaſſins were conſtantly kept in pay by him at Rome, for removing all who were obnoxious or inconvenient to him. He experienced various turns of fortune, being ſometimes very proſperous, ſometimes the reverſe. He narrowly eſcaped dying by poiſon in 1503; for having concerted with his father a deſign of poiſoning nine newly created cardinals at once, for the ſake of poſſeſſing their effects, the poiſoned wine, deſtined for the purpoſe, was by miſtake brought to and drank by themſelves. The pope died of it; but Cæſar, by the vigour of his youth, and the force of antidotes, after many ſtruggles, recovered. He only recovered to outlive his fortune and grandeur, to ſee himſelf depreſſed, and his enemies exalted; for he was ſoon after diveſted of all his acquiſitions, and ſent a priſoner to Spain, in order to free Italy from an incendiary, and the Italian princes from thoſe dangers, which the turbulent ſpirit of Cæſar made them fear, even though he was unarmed. He eſcaped, however, and got ſafe to Navarre, to king John his brother-in-law, who was then at war with his ſubjects. Cæſar ſerved as a volunteer, and was killed in 1507. Machiavel, in his celebrated book, entitled *The Prince*, propoſes this villain as a pattern to all princes, who would act the part of wiſe and politic tyrants.

(3.) BORGIA, Lucretia, the daughter of Alexander (N° 1.) and ſiſter of Cæſar (N° 2.) and the infamous miſtreſs of both. See N° 1.

BORGIE, a river of Scotland in the county of Sutherland. It produces ſalmon.

BORGI FRACTURA, BORG-BREGE, or BORGH-BREACH, in ancient law writers, denotes a breaking of the pledge or ſecurity given by the members of tithings for the behaviour of each other.

(1.) BORGO, an ancient town of Sweden, ſeated on the gulf of Finland, in the province of Nyland. Lon. 25. 40. E. Lat. 60. 34. N.

(2.) BORGO DI SAN DOMINO, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Parma, with a biſhop's ſee. Lon. 10. 6. E. Lat. 44. 58. N.

(3.) BORGO DI SAN SEPULCHRO, a town of Italy, in Urbino, on the borders of Tuſcany, ſubject to the Grand Duke. It is ſeated near the ſource of the Tiber, 50 miles E. of Florence. On the 30th Sept. 1789, this town was much damaged by an earthquake, which deſtroyed many houſes and palaces, with part of the cathedral, and ſome churches, and a village 5 miles diſtant. Above 1000 perſons periſhed. Mr Creech mentions, that a ſhock of this earthquake was felt on the ſame day, at Parſon's Green, on the N. ſide of Arthur's Seat, within a mile of Edinburgh. (*Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* IV. 626.) Lon. 12. 7. E. Lat. 43. 30. N.

(4.) BORGO DI VAL DI TARO, a town of Italy, in Parma, ſeated on the Taro, 20 miles S. W. of Parma. Lon. 10. 36. E. Lat. 44. 15. N.

(5.) BORGO-FORTE, a town of Mantua in Italy, ſituated at the confluence of the rivers Po and Menzo; 8 miles S. of Mantua. Lon. 11. 0. E. Lat. 44. 50. N.

BORGOGNONE, a celebrated painter, whoſe true name was *Giacomo* CORTESSI; but he is commonly called *Borgognone*, from the country where he was born, about 1605. He was much admired for his grand manner of painting battles. He had for ſeveral years been converſant in military affairs, was an officer of conſiderable rank in the army, made the camp his ſchool, and formed all his ideas from what he had ſeen performed in the field. His ſtyle is roughly noble, full of fire and ſpirit, and there are a few prints etched by his own hand. Towards the cloſe of his life he retired to the Jeſuits convent in Rome, where he is

said to have taken sanctuary to get rid of a bad wife; but happily surviving her, he lived in great esteem and honour till 1675.

BORGUE, or BORG, [from *burg*, Gael. a little hill,] a parish of Scotland, on the S. coast of Kircudbrightshire, united, in 1670, to those of SENWICK and KIRK-ANDREWS. It is 10 m. long, and 7 broad, and contains about 40 square miles. The coast is elevated and rocky, the cliffs rising in some parts 300 feet perpendicular. Being exposed to the S. and W. winds, the sea often rolls in with such prodigious force, that the spray is carried to the distance of two miles. Samphire grows among the rocks, and cod, skate, flounders, lobsters, oysters, &c. are caught. The surface is very unequal, and the soil, a fine loam, very fertile in wet seasons, but easily injured in dry. The chief crops are oats and barley. The climate is healthy, neither the cold nor the heat being ever intense. The population in 1793, as stated by the rev. Mr Smith, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 771, and had increased 74, within 40 years preceding. The number of horses was then 270; of sheep of various breeds, 1129; and of black cattle, 2958. As the parish lies in one of the finest grazing countries in Scotland, the farmers are famed for their skill in rearing cattle. It is also noted for excellent honey. The rents of land have been more than quadrupled, yet the farmers are opulent and independent.

BORHEEN, a town of Ireland in Limerick.

BORIA, a small town of Spain, in Arragon, at the foot of a hill, 35 m. N. W. of Saragossa. Lon. 2. 10. W. Lat. 41. 50. N.

(1.) BORING, in farriery, a cruel and absurd method of treating a wrenched shoulder. See FARRIERY.

(2.) BORING, in mineralogy, a method of piercing the earth with scooping irons, which being drawn back at proper times, bring up with them samples of the different strata through which they have passed; by the examination of which the skilful mineralogist will be able to guess whereabouts a vein of ore may lie, or whether it will be worth while to open a mine.

(3.) BORING OF WATER PIPES is thus performed. The poles of alder, which is a very useful wood in making pumps, water-pipes, &c. being laid on horses or trassels of a foot high, to rest the augre upon while they are boring, a lath is set up to turn the smallest end of the poles, to fit them to the cavities of the great ends of the others. The small ends are turned about 5 or 6 inches in length, to the size intended to bore the bigger ends about the same depth. This is designed to make a joint to shut each pair of poles the concave part being called the female part, and the other the male of the joint. A channel or small groove at a certain distance from the end is turned in the male part; and in the female a small hose is bored to fit over this channel. The poles are then bored through, and to prevent boring out at the side, great nails are stuck at each end to be a guide in boring. It is usual, however, to bore them at both ends; so that if a pole be crooked one way, it can be bored through and not spoiled.

BORIQUEN, one of the Caribbee islands, in N. America, 5 m. S. W. of Porto Pico. The English formerly had a settlement there, but were driven away by the Spaniards. It is without inhabitants, though agreeable and fertile; the air being wholesome, and the water good. Land crabs are numerous in it, whence some call it CRAB-ISLAND. Lon. 66. 0. W. Lat. 18. 0. N.

BORISTHENES, in ancient geography, the largest river of Sarmatia Europea, thus described by Mela, and Herodotus: "It is the most pleasant of all the rivers of Scythia, calmer than all of them in its course, and very agreeable to drink: it feeds very rich pastures, and produces large fish of the best flavour, and without bones: it comes a great way, rising from springs unknown; its course is a distance of 40 days, and so far it is navigable." It is now called the DNIEPER or NIEPER.

BORITH, in botany, an herb thought to be the KALI or saltwort. In Jer. ii. 22. it is translated "nitre."

BORIVON, the ancient name of CALDER.

BORKEL, a river in Guelderland.

BORKELO, a strong town of Guelderland, in the county of Zutphen, seated on the Borkel. Lon. 6. 30. E. Lat. 52. 15. N.

BORLACE, Dr. See BORLASE, N. 1.

BORLAN, a lake in Sutherlandshire.

(1.) BORLAND, a mountain in Lanarkshire.

(2.) BORLAND, a village of Fife, in the parish of Dysart. It was begun in 1756, and contained 196 inhabitants, in 1793.

(1.) BORLASE, Edmund, M. D. an eminent English writer in the 17th century, was the son of Sir John Borlase, one of the Lords Justices of Ireland, in 1643. He studied in Dublin college, and afterwards at Leyden, where he took his degree of M. D. He afterwards practised physic with great success in Chester. He wrote, 1. Latham Spaw in Lancashire, with some remarkable cases and cures performed by it. 2. The reduction of Ireland to the crown of England. 3. The history of the Irish rebellion. 4. Brief Reflections on the earl of Castlehaven's memoirs, &c. He died after 1682.

(2.) BORLASE, William, a very learned antiquarian, of an ancient family in Cornwall, was born at Pender, in 1695-6. He studied at Oxford, and, in 1719, took his degree of M. A. In 1720 he was ordained a priest; and in 1722, made rector of Ludgvan in Cornwall. In 1732, the lord chancellor King presented him to the vicarage of St Just, his native parish. Finding that the copper works of Ludgvan abounded with mineral and metallic fossils, he collected them from time to time, and thence was led to study at large the natural history of his native country. Being also struck with the numerous monuments of antiquity that are to be met with in Cornwall, he determined to gain as accurate an acquaintance as possible with the Druid learning, and with the religion and customs of the ancient Britons, before their conversion to Christianity. In 1750 he was admitted F. R. S. and, in 1753, published in folio at Oxford his *Antiquities of Cornwall*; a 2d edition of which was published at London, in 1769, entitled "Antiquities historical and monumental of the county of Cornwall; consisting of several essays

eſſays on the ancient inhabitants, Druid ſuperſtition, cuſtoms and remains of the moſt remote antiquity in Britain, and the Britiſh iſles; exemplified and proved by monuments now extant in Cornwal and the Scilly iſlands; with a vocabulary of the Cornu-Britiſh language." His next publication was, "Obſervations on the ancient and preſent ſtate of the iſlands of Scilly, and their importance to the trade of Great Britain; Oxf. 1756," 4to. In 1758 came out his "Natural hiſtory of Cornwal; Oxf." fol. He ſent a variety of foſſils and remains of antiquity, to be depoſited in the Aſhmolean muſeum: for which he received the thanks of the univerſity, in 1758; and in March 1766, the degree of LL. D. He married in 1724, and died in 1772, aged 77, leaving two ſons. Among his other literary connections, he had a particular correſpondence with Mr Pope; and there is ſtill extant a large collection of letters written by that poet to Dr Borlaſe. He furniſhed Pope with many of the foſſils which adorned his grotto at Twickenham; where his name in capitals, compoſed of chryſtals, may ſtill be ſeen. On receipt Pope wrote him, "I am much obliged to you for your valuable collection of Corniſh diamonds: I have placed them, where they may beſt repreſent yourſelf, *in a ſhade, but ſhining*;" alluding to the obſcurity of the doctor's ſituation, and the brilliancy of his talents.

BORLEY, or LOCH-BORLEY, a lake in the pariſh of Durneſs in Sutherlandſhire.

BORLUM, a hill in Inverneſs-ſhire, on which there are quantities of vitrified matter, whereon no plant will vegetate.

BORMER, a village in Suſſex, W. of Lewes.

(1.) BORMIO, a territory belonging to the republic of the Griſons in Switzerland. It is bounded on the S. by the territory of Venice, on the E. by Auſtria, and on the N. and W. by Caddea. It is 15 miles over both ways; and is divided into 5 communities, viz. the town (N. 2.) the valley of Furbia, the Interior Valley, the Lower Valley, and the Valley of Luvino.

(2.) BORMIO, the only town in the above diſtrict, (N. 1.) has a governor called a *podeſta*, ſent by the Griſons to preſide in civil and criminal affairs. It is ſeated at the confluence of the Addo and the Iſalacua. Lon. 10. 10. E. Lat. 46. 45. N.

* BORN. The *participle paſſive* of *bear*.—Their charge was always *born* by the queen, and duly paid out of the exchequer. *Bacon*.—The great men were enabled to oppreſs their inferiours; and their followers were *born* out and countenanced in wicked actions. *Davies*.—Upon ſome occaſions, Clodius may be bold and inſolent, *born* away by his paſſion. *Swift*.

* To BORN, *v. a. Obſ.* to burniſh.

* *To be* BORN. *v. n. paſſ.* [derived from the word *To bear*, in the ſenſe of *bringing forth*; as, my mother *bore* me 20 years ago; or, I was *born* 20 years ago.] 1. To come into life.—

When we are *born*, we cry, that we are come
To this great ſtage of fools. *Shakeſ.*

The new *born* babe by nurſes overlaid. *Dryd.*

Nor nature's law with fruitleſs ſorrow mourn,
But die, O mortal man! for thou waſt *born*. *Prior.*

—All that are *born* into the world, are ſurrounded with *bodies*, that perpetually and diverſly affect them. *Locke*. 2. It is uſually ſpoken with regard to circumſtances; as, he was *born* a prince; he was *born* to empire; he was *born* for greatneſs; that is, formed at the birth.—The ſtranger that dwelleth with you, ſhall be unto you as one *born* among you, and thou ſhalt love him as thyſelf *Leviticus*, xix. 34.—Yet man is *born* unto trouble, as the ſparks fly upward. *Job*.—A friend loveth at all times, and a brother is *born* for adverſity. *Proverbs*.—

Either of you knights may well deſerve
A princeſs *born*; and ſuch is ſhe you ſerve.
Dryden.

Two riſing creſts his royal head adorn;
Born from a god, himſelf to godhead *born*. *Dryd.*

Both muſt alike from heav'n derive their light;
Theſe *born* to judge, as well as thoſe to write.
Pope.

For all mankind alike acquire their grace;
All *born* to want; a miſerable race! *Pope.*

—I was *born* to a good eſtate though it now turneth to little account. *Swift*.—Their lands are let to lords, who, never deſigned to be tenants, naturally murmur at the payment of rents, as a ſubſerviency they were not *born* to. *Swift*. 3. It has uſually the particle *of* before the mother.—

Be bloody, bold, and reſolute, laugh to ſcorn
The pow'r of man; for none *of* woman *born*
Shall harm Macbeth. *Shakeſ.*

—I being *born of* my father's firſt wife, and ſhe *of* his third, ſhe converſes with me rather like a daughter than a ſiſter. *Tatler*.

(1.) BORNE, a market town of Lincolnſhire. Lon. 0. 20. W. Lat. 52. 40. N.

(2.) BORNE, a river in Staffordſhire, which runs into the Tame.

(3.) BORNE, or BOURNE, *n. ſ.* [*bornes*, Fr.] a limit or boundary.

(4.) BORNE, *part. paſſ.* an erroneous, or rather obſolete ſpelling, of late attempted to be re-introduced by ſome modern writers. See BORN.

BORNE-END, a village in Bedfordſhire, near Woburn.

(1.) BORNEO, an iſland of Aſia, in the Indian ocean, one of the 3 great Sunda iſlands. It is thought to be the largeſt iſland in the world, next to New Holland; being 1800 miles in circumference. It is ſeated under the equator, which nearly divides it. It is almoſt of a circular figure; abounds with gold, and the fineſt diamonds in the Indies are found in its rivers, being probably waſhed down from the hills by torrents. It has alſo mines of iron, tin, and loadſtones; and produces caſſia, camphire, frankincenſe, muſk, aloes, agaric, ſapan, pepper, cinnamon, honey, wax, rice, and a variety of fruits and gums. Birds-neſts are to be had in it, which are eatable, and reckoned a great delicacy. See BIRDS-NESTS, § 4. It abounds with horſes, oxen, buffaloes, deer, goats, elephants, bears, tigers, and monkeys; and has fine rivers, eſpecially to the W. and S. In their monſoon from April to September, the wind is weſterly; and the rains are conſtant and heavy, attended with violent ſtorms of thunder and lightning. The rainy ſeaſon continues for 8 months, and as, during that time, all the flat country near the coaſt is overwhelmed, the air is rendered very unhealthy. The inhabitants build their houſes

ſes on floats, which they make faſt to trees. The houſes have but one floor, with partitions made with canes; and the roofs are covered with palmetto leaves, the caves of which reach within 4 or 5 feet of the bottom. Some of their houſes are built upon pillars, a ſufficient height from the ſurface, not to be deluged. The W. and N. E. ſides of the iſland are almoſt deſart, and the E. is but little known. The inland parts are very mountainous; and the S. E. for many leagues together, is marſhy and unhealthy. The Portugueſe, who firſt diſcovered Borneo, had arrived in the Indies above 30 years, before they knew any thing more of it than its name, and ſituation. At laſt capt. Edward Corril examined it more narrowly, and being thus acquainted by the country, they made frequent voyages to it. They found the coaſts inhabited with Malayan Moors, but the original inhabitants live in the mountains and are ſtyled *Beajus*, which in the Malayan language ſignifies a *wild man*. The moſt authentic account of theſe people is given by father Antonio Ventimiglia, an Italian miſſionary, who was ſent to Borneo from Macao, on board a Portugueſe ſhip, converted great numbers to Chriſtianity, and died on the iſland about A. D. 1691. He ſays, the Beajus have no kings, but many petty chiefs. Some are ſubject to the Mooriſh kings, and pay them tribute; but ſuch as live far up the country, are altogether independent, and live according to their own cuſtoms. They are generally ſuperſtitious, and much addicted to augury. They do not adore idols; but their ſacrifices of ſweet wood and perfumes are offered to one God, who, they believe, rewards the juſt in heaven, and puniſhes the wicked in hell. They marry only one wife; and look upon any breach of conjugal faith, either in the man or woman, as a capital offence. The Beajus are naturally honeſt and induſtrious, and have a brotherly affection for one another. They have a notion of property, which however, does not render them covetous. They ſow and cultivate their lands; but in harveſt, each reaps as much as will ſerve his family, and the reſt belongs to the tribe in common; by which means they prevent both ſcarcity and diſputes. With the Moors on the coaſts the Portugueſe for ſome time carried on a conſiderable trade, and at their requeſt ſettled a factory there; which, however, was afterwards ſurpriſed and plundered by the Moors, who put moſt of the people to the ſword. The principal river in Borneo is the BANJAR, at the mouth of which our Eaſt India company have a factory, having obtained a grant of the N. part of the iſland. It lies between 107° and 117° Lon. E. and between 4° N. and 0° 34′ Lat. S.

(2.) BORNEO, the capital of the iſland, (N. 1.) is a large and populous city, with a good harbour; and lies on the N. W. ſide. Lon. 111. 27. E. Lat. 4. 55. N.

BORNHOLM, an iſland in the Baltic ſea, S. E. of Schonen in Sweden; 21 miles in length, and above 13 in breadth. It has 3 conſiderable towns, Rattum, Sandwick, and Nexia; with a great number of villages; and is fertile and populous. It was conquered by the Swedes in 1658; but the inhabitants, under the conduct of Jens Roefords, voluntarily ſurrendered it to the king of Denmark, to avoid the tyranny of the Swedes. In 1678, a body of 5000 Swediſh troops, in their paſſage from Pomerania to Sweden, being ſhipwrecked on this iſland, ſuch of them as remained were made priſoners of war. The inhabitants defend the iſland by their own militia, without any expence to the crown. The governor reſides at Rattum. Bornholm lies 16 m. from Zealand, and 6 from Yſtad. Lon. 15. 56. E. Lat. 55. 15. N.

(1.) BORNOU, a kingdom of Zaara in Africa, extending from 12° to 28° E. longitude, and from 17° to 21° N. latitude. It is bounded by Bilma on the N. Cathna on the S. E. and Nubia on the S. W. The north part is poor, but all the reſt is well watered by rivers that tumble down with a dreadful noiſe from the mountains; rendering the country prolific in corn, graſs, and fruits, and giving it a pleaſing aſpect. The E. and W. frontiers conſiſt of mountains and valleys, the latter being all covered with flocks of cattle, fields of rice and millet, and many of the mountains with wood, fruit-trees, and cotton. On the N. W. ſtands the mountain Tarton, and on the S. flows the river NIGER. The E. and W. parts are ſaid to be inhabited by a people of a roving diſpoſition, who live in tents, and have their women, children, and every thing elſe, in common; the word *property*, or any idea of it, being utterly unknown among them. They have neither religion, laws, government, nor ſubordination; and hence they have been ſuppoſed by Cluverius to be the lineal deſcendants of the ancient GARAMANTES, and this to have been the reſidence of that people. In theſe parts, the natives are almoſt to a man ſhepherds and huſbandmen. In ſummer they go naked, except a ſhort apron before; but in winter they are warmly clothed with the ſofteſt ſheep ſkins, of which they alſo form their bed-clothes; and indeed this is ſcarce a ſufficient defence againſt the inclemency of the weather at certain ſeaſons of the year, when a cold piercing wind blows from the N. Others ſay their winter is mild and their ſummer tempeſtuous. Baudrand and Daper affirm, that the natives are ſcarce ſuperior to brutes; not even having any names whereby to diſtinguiſh each other, except what they take from ſome perſonal defect or ſingularity; ſuch as lean, fat, ſquinting, humpbacked, &c. Walker, however, gives a very different account of theſe people; and ſays they are courteous and humane; that they manufacture cottons and cultivate the ground with hoes; that their religion is Mahometaniſm, and their government an elective monarchy. He adds that 30 different languages are ſpoken in Bornou, and its dependencies; which may account for the different and contradictory accounts of authors, in deſcribing perhaps as many different people. See N. 3.

(2.) BORNOU, a lake in the above kingdom, (N. 1.) which the Niger runs through.

(3.) BORNOU, the capital of the kingdom, (N. 1.) is ſeated in a level country, on the banks of a ſmall river. It is of greater extent than Tripoli; but the houſes, though neat, are ſo irregularly placed, that they can hardly be ſaid to form ſtreets. It has

his moſques built of brick, and ſchools, in which the Koran is taught. It lies 650 miles S. E. of Mourzouk. Lon. 27. 30. E. Lat. 19. 40. N.

BOROCATE, a village in Hampſhire, between Micheldover and Brown-Condover.

BORODEAN, a village in Hampſhire, between Brams-Dean and Priors-Dean.

BOROLYBICUS, the North-Weſt wind.

BOROMÆUS, ST. See BORROMEUS.

BORONDON, ST, an iſland in the Atlantic Ocean, mentioned by Linſchotten and others, in their deſcription of the Canary iſlands, as ſomething ſupernatural. It is ſaid to be about 100 leagues diſtant from Ferro, probably W. though no writer has pretended to lay down its exact ſituation. Here it is ſaid ſeveral ſhips have touched by accident, and all agree in their relations of the ſize of the inhabitants and iſland. They affirm, that it is perpetually clothed with a great variety of wood, chiefly fruit-trees: that the valleys are in a perpetual ſtate of verdure; and continually decked with flowers, graſs, and plants, the ſpontaneous productions of the earth; or with corn and pulſe, cultivated by the inhabitants; that the ſoil is ſo prolific as to raiſe large quantities of corn for exportation; that the ſhips that call here never fail of meeting with refreſhments of every kind; and that it is peopled by Chriſtians, who have a language of their own, apparently compoſed of a variety of modern languages; for, ſay they, whoever underſtands the European tongues may make ſhift to hold converſation with this people. It is remarkable, that no ſhips, expreſsly ſent upon this diſcovery, were ever fortunate enough to fall in with the iſland of St Borondon, though the Spaniards have ſeveral times attempted it from the Canaries. Hence it has been called the *marvellous iſland*; and hence indeed we may conclude, either that it exiſts wholly in imagination, or at leaſt, that it is ſurrounded with ſuch currents, as inſenſibly carry ſhips out of their courſe, and prevent their meeting with it. Some affirm that it actually diſappears upon certain occaſions, and ſhifts its poſition; others, with more probability, alledge, that it is frequently overcaſt with thick and impenetrable clouds, which occaſion the diſappointment of all the adventurers who have gone in ſearch of it.

(1.) * BOROUGH. *n. ſ.* [*borhoe*, Saxon.] 1. It ſignified anciently a ſurety, or a man bound for others.—A *borough*, as I here uſe it, and as the old laws ſtill uſe, is not a *borough* town, that is, a franchiſed town; but a main pledge of 100 free perſons, therefore called a free *borough*, or, as you ſay, *franeplegium*. For *borth*, in old Saxon, ſignifieth a pledge or ſurety; and yet it is ſo uſed with us in ſome ſpeeches, as Chaucer ſaith, *St John to Borob*; that is, for aſſurance and warranty. *Spenſer*. 2. A town with a corporation.—And, if a *borough* chuſe him not, undone. *Pope*.

(2.) BOROUGH, BURROUGH, BOROW, or BURGH, in its original Saxon *borge*, or *borgh*, is by ſome ſuppoſed to have been primarily meant of a tithing or company conſiſting of ten families, who were bound and combined together as each others pledge. Afterwards, it came to ſignify a town that had a wall or incloſure about it; ſo that all places, which among our anceſtors had the denomination borough, were one way or other fenced or fortified. In later times, the ſame appellation, was beſtowed on ſeveral of the *villæ inſigniores*, or country towns of more than ordinary note, though not walled. The ancient Saxons gave the name burgh to thoſe called, in other countries, cities. But divers canons being made for removing the epiſcopal ſees from villages and ſmall towns to the chief cities, the name *city* became attributed to epiſcopal towns, and that of *borough* retained to all the reſt; though theſe too had the appearance of cities, being governed by their mayors, having laws of their own making, ſending repreſentatives to parliament, and being fortified with a wall and caſtle, and the like. Borough or burgh, is now particularly appropriated to ſuch towns and villages, as ſend burgeſſes or repreſentatives to parliament. Boroughs are equally ſuch, whether they be incorporate or not. Great numbers of our Engliſh boroughs are not incorporated; and, on the contrary, ſeveral corporations are not boroughs; *e.gr.* Kingſton, Deal, Kendal, &c.

(3.) BOROUGH, in geography, a ſmall town in Glouceſterſhire, near Berkeley.

(4.) BOROUGHS, in Scotland. See LAW, INDEX.

(5.) BOROUGHS-ROYAL, in Scotland, are corporations made for the advantage of trade, by charters granted by ſeveral of their kings; having the privilege of ſending commiſſioners to repreſent them in parliament, beſides other peculiar privileges. The Royal Boroughs are not only ſo many diſtinct corporations, but alſo conſtitute one entire body, governed by, and accountable to, one general court, anciently called *the court of four boroughs*, held yearly to treat and determine concerning matters relating to the common advantage of all boroughs. The 4 boroughs which compoſed this court were, Edinburgh, Stirling, Roxburgh, and Berwick; which two laſt falling into the hands of the Engliſh, Linlithgow and Lanerk were put in their places; with a ſaving to the former, whenever they ſhould return to their allegiance. But this court not being ſufficient to anſwer the neceſſities of the royal boroughs, they were all empowered, under James III. in 1487, to ſend commiſſioners to a yearly convention of their own, which was then appointed to be held at Inverkeithing, but is now held at Edinburgh, under the denomination of the *convention of boroughs*, veſted with great power, and having for their object the benefit of trade and the general intereſt of the boroughs.

BOROUGHBRIDGE, a town in the N. riding of Yorkſhire, ſeated on the river Your, over which there is a handſome ſtone bridge. It ſends two members to parliament, and lies 17 miles N. W. of York, and 218 N. by W. of London. Lon. 1. 25. W. Lat. 54. 10. N.

BOROUGH-CASTLE, a village in Hampſh. near Spithead.

BOROUGH COURTS are certain courts held in boroughs by preſcription, charter, or act of parliament: ſuch are the ſheriff's court, and court of huſtings in London.

(1.) * BOROUGH ENGLISH is a cuſtomary deſcent of lands or tenements, whereby, in all places where this cuſtom holds, lands and tenements

ments deſcend to the youngeſt ſon; or, if the owner have no iſſue, to his youngeſt brother. *Cowel.*

(2.) BOROUGH ENGLISH, REASONS FOR THE CUSTOM OF. Littleton gives this reaſon, that the younger ſon, by his tender age, is not ſo capable as the reſt of his brethren to help himſelf. Others give a much ſtranger reaſon; viz. that the lord of the fee had anciently a right to break the 7th commandment with his tenant's wife on her wedding night; and that therefore the tenement deſcended, not to the eldeſt, but to the youngeſt ſon, who was more certainly the offspring of the tenant. But it is not certain that this abominable cuſtom ever prevailed in England, though it certainly did in Scotland, (under the name of *merchetæ* or *jus primæ noctis*,) till abolished by Malcolm III. Perhaps a more rational account than either may be brought from the practice of the Tartars; among whom, according to Father Duhalde, this cuſtom of deſcent to the youngeſt ſon alſo prevails. That nation is wholly compoſed of ſhepherds and herdſmen; and the elder ſons, as ſoon as they are capable of leading a paſtoral life, migrate from their father with a certain allotment of cattle, and go to ſeek a new habitation. The youngeſt ſon, therefore, who continues lateſt with his father, is naturally the heir of his houſe, the reſt being already provided for. And thus we find, that, among many other northern nations, it was the cuſtom for all the ſons to migrate from the father, but one, who became his heir. So that poſſibly this cuſtom, wherever it prevails, may be the remnant of that paſtoral ſtate of the ancient Britons and Germans, which Cæſar and Tacitus deſcribe.

BOROUGH-GREEN, a village in Norfolk, 2 m. N. E. of Attleborough.

BOROUGH-HEAD, BOROUGH-HOLDER, } BURS-HOLDER, or HEAD-BOROUGH, the chief man of the decenna, or hundred, choſen to ſpeak and act in behalf of the reſt. Head-borough alſo ſignifies a kind of head conſtable, where there are ſeveral choſen as his aſſiſtants, to ſerve warrants, &c. See CONSTABLE.

BOROUGH-MASTER, *n. ſ. obſ.* the mayor of a borough.

BOROW-HOLES, the holes, in the remoteſt corner of which the female rabbits depoſite their young, to prevent the males from eating them.

BOROZAIL, [or the zeal of the Ethiopians,] a diſeaſe epidemic in the countries about the river Senegal. It principally affects the pudenda, but is different from the lues venerea. It owes its riſe to exceſſive venery; in the men this diſtemper is called *aſab*, and in women *aſſabatus*.

BORRA, or BORRADH, in Gaelic antiquity, a pile of ſtones, but differing both from a CAIRN and a DUN, in external figure, as well as in ſize and deſign. Outwardly theſe borras were covered with heath or graſs, ſo as to appear natural protuberances, and ſurrounded with wood. In their internal conſtruction, they were oblong, and divided into ſmall apartments. They were generally built on an eminence. Mr M'Farlane miniſter of Kilfinan, deſcribes one of them in his pariſh, "40 yards long, of conſiderable breadth, and amazing depth. At the bottom, from one end to the other, there was a number of ſmall cells end to end, each made up of 5 or 7 large flags Each cell was about 6 feet long, 4 broad, and high. One large flag made up each ſide, and an other of a curved figure, to throw off the water covered them for a roof: the end was made up of two, and an opening between them, wide enough for a man to ſqueeze himſelf through." He think they were intended as places of concealment for the plunder, which the ancient clans, in the age of irregular government, carried off from each other. *Stat. Acc.* XIV. 257.

BORRACHIO. See CAOUTCHOUC.

BORRADH. See BORRA.

BORRAGE. See ANCHUSA.

* BORREL. *n. ſ.* † [it is explained by *Junius* without etymology.] A mean fellow.—

Siker thou ſpeak'ſt like a lewd ſorrel,
Of heaven to deemen ſo:
Howbe I am but rude and *borrel* †,
Yet nearer ways I know. *Spenſer*

BORRELLISTS, in church hiſtory, a Chriſtian ſect in Holland; ſo named from their founder Borrel, a man of great learning in the Hebrew Greek, and Latin tongues. They reject the uſe of the ſacraments, public prayer, and all other external acts of worſhip. They aſſert, that all the Chriſtian churches of the world have degenerated from the pure apoſtolic doctrines, becauſe they have ſuffered the word of God, which is infallible to be expounded, or rather corrupted, by doctors who are not infallible. They lead a very auſtere life, and employ a great part of their goods in alms.

BORRERAY, a ſmall iſland of Scotland, one of the Hebrides, lying N. W. of N. Uiſt, between Valay and Pabby iſles. It is inhabited, and has a place of worſhip, where the miniſter of N. Uiſt preaches once a-year. Lon. 7. 25. W. Lat. 57. 47. N.

BORRHAUS, Martin, profeſſor of divinity at Baſil, was firſt named CELLARIUS. He was born at Stutgard, in 1499, and acquired the friendſhip of Melancthon, at Wirtemberg, where he had many ſcholars, and made much money. But afterwards falling in with Stubner, the anabaptiſt, he adopted his fanaticiſm, and in a conference with Luther, in 1522, ſhowed an extravagant degree of zeal. In 1525, being in Pruſſia, he was impriſoned on account of his principles, which however, he ſtill defended, and wrote ſeveral books to ſupport them. Opinions, true or falſe, are not to be altered by compulſion. Reaſon alone can convince. The failure of the prophecies of his brethren fanatics, reſpecting the immediate renovation of all things, at laſt converted him, and made him not only change his profeſſion but even his name. He retired to Baſil in 1536, turned glazie

† † *Dr* JOHNSTON *appears to be wrong in ſtiling* BORREL *a* ſubſtantive noun. *In his quotation from* Spenſer *at leaſt, it is plainly an* adjective. *Common ſenſe as well as grammar, prohibits the joining a* ſubſtantive *with an* adjective, *as* borrel *is here joined with* rude, *by a* conjunction. *Dr* Aſh *very properly ranks it as an adjective.*

glazier for a livelihood, married, and at last was admitted professor of rhetoric and divinity in that university. He wrote, 1. Notes on Aristotle's politics, in 1545: 2. A commentary on Aristotle's rhetoric, in 1551: 3. Another on the pentateuch, in 1557: 4. One on Isaiah, and the Revelations, in 1561: and, 5. One on Job and Ecclesiastes, in 1564. He died at Basil, in 1564, of the plague.

BORRI, or BURRHUS, Joseph Francis, a famous chemist, quack, and heretic of the 17th century, was a Milanese, and a most consummate rhapsodist. In his youth, he was quite debauched, but afterwards set up for a very religious man, and pretended to inspiration. He engaged his deluded followers in vows of poverty, while he had the address to make them give all their money to himself. His design was to bring about a revolution in Milan, and get the power into his own hand; but some of his disciples being apprehended, he fled to Strasburg, and afterwards to Amsterdam; whence, after figuring some time with *éclat* as a great chemist, he decamped in the night, with much money and many jewels, which he had swindled from the public. He next imposed upon the simplicity of Q. Christina, of Sweden, and led her to throw out a great sum upon the discovery of the philosopher's stone; and soon after, put Frederick III. king of Denmark, upon the same vain and expensive search. On that monarch's death, he fled to Turkey, but was apprehended on the frontiers and sent to Rome, where he was condemned to perpetual imprisonment in the inquisition. In 1672, he abjured his errors, and was allowed to attend the D. of Estrées, whom the physicians had given over. The extraordinary cure, he performed, astonished all good Catholics, that such a miracle should have been wrought by an arch-heretic. He died in the castle of St Angelo, in 1695, aged 79.

BORRICHIUS, Olaus, one of the most learned men of his age, the son of a Lutheran minister in Denmark, was born in 1626. He studied physic in the university of Copenhagen, and began to practise during a most terrible plague that made great havoc in that city. He travelled; but before his departure in 1660, he was appointed professor in poetry, botany, and chemistry; and at his return, discharged his duties with great assiduity, of which the works he published afford full proof. He was raised to the office of counsellor in the supreme council of justice, in 1686; to that of counsellor of the Royal Chancery, in 1689; and died of the operation for the stone, in 1691. He published, 1. *Lingua pharmacopœorum*: 2. *Dissertationes de poetis Græcis et Latinis*: 3. *De ortu et progressu chemiæ*; and several other works.

(1.) BORRIS, a town of Ireland, *in Offory*, Queen's county, Leinster.

(2.) BORRIS, a village of Ireland, in Carlow.

BORRISOKEON, a village in Tipperary.

BORRISOLEAGH, a town in Tipperary.

(1.) BORRODALE, a most romantic valley of Cumberland, among DERWENT-WATER FELLS, which are reckoned among the loftiest hills in England. It is watered by a number of fine rivulets, which precipitate from the hills, and forming many beautiful cascades meet in Borrodale. (See No. 2.) This valley is 4 m. from Keswick, in passing from which, the traveller has Keswick lake on his right hand, stupendous rocky precipices on his left, and huge masses of rocks scattered along his road, which have fallen from the mountains. The view, in approaching the dale, is extremely picturesque.

(2.) BORRODALE BECK, a river formed in the above valley, (No. 1.) by the junction of the rivulets, which after passing out of the dale spreads into an extensive lake, called DERWENT-WATER, or KESWICK, and contains many beautiful islands.

BORROMEO, or } St Charles, cardinal, and
(1.) BORROMEUS, } archbishop of Milan; a personage of great note in the Romish kalendar, and whose sincere piety, simplicity of manners, and zeal for reformation, render him indeed a character equally interesting and instructive to the members of any church. He was the son of Gilbert Borromeo, Count of Arona, and Mary of Medicis, and was born at the castle of Arona upon Lake Major in the Milanese, in 1538. When he was about 12 years old, Julius Cæsar Borromeo resigned an abbacy to him of a considerable revenue, which was considered as an hereditary inheritance of the family. Charles accepted of it, but applied the revenue wholly in charity to the poor. Having acquired a sufficient knowledge of the languages at Milan, he studied the civil and canon law at Pavia, where he lived like Lot in Sodom, preserving his innocence among a thousand snares, by which it was endangered. He received great advantage from the conversation of Francis Alciat, one of the most learned men of the age, for whom he afterwards procured the purple. He would accept no benefice, but upon condition that he should be at liberty to apply the revenue to public uses. In 1554, his father died, an event which brought him back to the castle of Arona; where, though he had an elder brother, Count Frederick, he was requested by the family to take upon him the management of the domestic affairs, to which he at length consented. In 1559, he finished his studies, and took his degree of D. D. The promotion of his uncle Pius IV. to the pontificate, in 1560, seemed to have very little effect upon him; but he was soon made protonotary; intrusted with the seals of the ecclesiastical state; and created cardinal deacon, and soon after archbishop of Milan. In obedience to his uncle, he lived in great splendor, yet retained his own temperance and humility. To render even his amusement useful, he established an academy of learned ecclesiastics and laics, who were employed in some exercise, tending to inspire a love of virtue. Each of them was to write upon some subject, in verse or prose, and to communicate in frequent conferences the fruits of their studies. The works of this society have been published in many volumes, intitled *Noctes Vaticanæ*, because these assemblies were held at the Vatican, at night. About this time he also formed a design of founding a college at Pavia, which should be both a school of science, and an asylum from vice. He accordingly raised a large edifice upon ground which belonged to the family of Borromeo in that city; he obtained from the pope several benefices, which he attached

ed to his building; and he provided it with all things neceſſary out of his own revenue. Upon the death of his only brother Frederick, his relations, his friends, and even the pope himſelf, adviſed him to quit the church, and marry, that his family might not become extinct. Charles, however, contrary to the expectations of the world, received the prieſthood, and addreſſed the pope in theſe terms: "Do not complain of me, Holy Father, for I have taken a ſpouſe whom I love, and on whom my wiſhes have been long fixed." There was a very intimate friendſhip between Borromeo and Don Barthelemy des Martyrs archbiſhop of Prague, and author of a work intitled *Stimulus Paſtorum*. This work falling into Borromeo's hands, gave him an earneſt deſire to become a preacher. An almoſt inconceivable multiplicity of buſineſs, ill health, a feeble voice, and a difficult pronunciation, were great obſtacles to his deſign, yet he ſurmounted them all by perſeverance. Having obtained permiſſion to viſit his church, he ſet out for Milan, where he was received with the moſt diſtinguiſhed honours. He was, however, ſoon recalled to Rome; the pope was dying; and Charles arrived juſt in time to adminiſter to him the laſt ſacraments, on the 7th Jan. 1566; and, by his influence, to moderate the cabals of the conclave, in the election of his ſucceſſor, Pius V. Borromeo then gave himſelf up to the reformation of his dioceſe, where the moſt flagitious irregularities were openly practiſed. He began by making paſtoral viſits in his metropolis, where the canons were not diſtinguiſhed for the purity of their manners. He reſtored decency to divine ſervice. He cleared the cathedral of many pompous tombs, banners, arms, and other trophies, with which the vanity of man had diſfigured the houſe of God; and in this, he ſpared not the monuments of his neareſt relations. He divided the nave of the church into two parts, by planks, that the ſexes, being ſeparated, might perform their divotions without any attention to each other, and with a modeſty ſuitable to the place. His paſtoral care extended to the collegiate churches, the ſocieties of penitents, and the monaſteries, which abounded with irregularities that required correction. As the great abuſes which had over-run the church, aroſe principally from the groſs ignorance of the clergy, Charles eſtabliſhed ſeminaries, for the education of youth, intended for holy orders. He met with much oppoſition in his endeavours to bring about a reformation of abuſes; but he prevailed againſt every obſtacle by an inflexible conſtancy tempered with great ſweetneſs of manners. But the moſt formidable oppoſition he had to ſtruggle with, was that of the Brothers of Humility. Three provoſts of this order entered into a conſpiracy to cut him off; and one of their confederates called *Jerom Donat*, ſurnamed *Farina*, took upon him to execute the bloody deſign. For this purpoſe he mixed with the crowd that went into the archiepiſcopal chapel, where the cardinal ſpent an hour every evening in prayer; and fired a harquebuſs at him, loaded with a ball and a conſiderable charge of leaden ſhot. It is ſaid that the ball ſtruck him on [illegible]inal bone, but fell down at his feet without any other damage than ſoiling his rochet, and that the other ſhot tore away part of a wall and went through a table. This was reckoned a miracle, but what was much more to his honour, than if it had been one, he made every exertion to procure a pardon for the aſſaſſin. But the pope was inflexible; the monk was executed, and the order ſuppreſſed. In 1576, Milan was viſited by the plague, which ſwept away incredible numbers; and the behaviour of Borromeus, on this occaſion, was truly chriſtian and heroic. He not only continued on the ſpot, but went about giving direction for accommodating the ſick, and burying the dead, with a zeal and attention that were at once ardent and deliberate, minute and comprehenſive; and his example ſtimulated others to join in the good work. He avoided no danger, and he ſpared no expence; nor did he content himſelf with eſtabliſhing proper regulations in the city, but went into all the neighbouring parithes where the contagion raged, diſtributing money to the poor, ordering proper accommodations for the ſick, and puniſhing thoſe, eſpecially the clergy, who were remiſs in their duties. Charles, notwithſtanding the fatigue which he ſuffered, by thus executing his paſtoral charge, abated nothing of the uſual auſterity of his life; for, whatever approached to luxury, he conſidered as incompatible with his character. Being once on a viſit to the archbiſhop of Sienna, a very ſumptuous entertainment was provided. Borromeus, though he had been uſed to content himſelf with bread and water, yet ſat down at the table, where however he eat but little, and gave ſufficient intimation that he was much diſpleaſed with ſuch oſtentatious prodigality; but what was his ſurpriſe, when he ſaw the table again covered with a deſert, conſiſting of whatever was moſt rare, exquiſite, and coſtly! He roſe haſtily from his ſeat, and gave orders for his departure, notwithſtanding the rain, and the moſt earneſt entreaties of the archbiſhop. "My Lord," ſaid the cardinal, "if I ſhould tarry here to night, you would give me another ſuch treat, as that I have juſt ſeen, and the poor will then ſuffer another loſs, great numbers of whom might have been fed with the ſuperfluities that have been now ſet before us." The continual labours and auſterities of Borromeus ſhortened his life, and he died at Milan, the 4th of Nov. 1584. He was lamented by the whole province with marks of ſincere ſorrow, and he was immediately worſhipped as a ſaint, without waiting for the pope's approbation. The pope, however, when he was told of it by Cardinal Baronius, gave directions that the devotion of the people ſhould not be reſtrained, though Borromeus was not canonized till the 1ſt of Nov. 1610. Many churches and chapels have ſince been erected to his honour, and many religious ſocieties inſtituted under his protection.

(2.) BORROMEUS, ST, MIRACLES ASCRIBED TO. The preceding account of this ſaint, (1) is extracted from Father Touron; but Ribadeneira, the Jeſuit, relates the moſt ridiculous fables concerning him. He tells us, that a miraculous light was ſeen over the chamber of Borromeus's mother when ſhe was in labour: That Borromeus ſeeing too perſons carried violently down a rapid river on their horſes, and juſt ready to periſh,

periſh, cauſed the horſes ſuddenly to leap with them out of the water, by giving them his benediction: That Octavian Vareſe, a gentleman of Milan, who was confined to his bed by ſickneſs, when Borromeus died, became inſtantly well, by recommending himſelf to the Saint's interceſſion: That a daughter of Julius Bonacina, was inſtantly cured of a diſorder in her eye, which had taken away the ſight of it, by performing an act of devotion in honour of this Saint: That a count of Ferrara was inſtantly ſeized with a violent diſeaſe upon ſpeaking irreverently of Borromeus's picture, but was cured upon confeſſing his fault; &c. Such pretended miracles are excellent antidates againſt the ſyſtem they were forged to ſerve.

BORRON, a hill on the coaſt of the county of Kirkcudbright and pariſh of Kirkbean, on which there is an ancient caſtle.

BORROW, a village in the county of Cornwall, S. of Stratton.

* BORROW. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] The thing borrowed.—

Yet of your royal preſence I'll adventure
The *borrow* of a week. *Shakeſpeare.*

* *To* BORROW. *v. a.* [*borgen*, Dutch; *borgian*, Saxon.] 1. To take ſomething from another upon credit: oppoſed to *lend*.—He *borrowed* a box of the ear of the Engliſhman, and ſwore he would pay him again when he was able. *Shakeſpeare.*—We have *borrowed* money for the king's tribute, and that upon our lands and vineyards. *Nehemiah.* 2. To aſk of another the uſe of ſomething for a time.—Then he ſaid, go, *borrow* thee veſſels abroad of all thy neighbours. 2 *Kings.*—

Where darkneſs and ſurprize made conqueſt cheap!
Where virtue *borrowed* the arms of chance,
And ſtruck a random blow! *Dryden.*

To take ſomething belonging to another.—

A *borrow'd* title haſt thou bought too dear;
Why didſt thou tell me that thou wert a king?
Shakeſpeare.

—They may *borrow* ſomething of inſtruction even from their paſt guilt. *Decay of Piety.*—I was engaged in the tranſlation of Virgil, from whom I have *borrowed* only two months. *Dryden.*—Theſe verbal ſigns they ſometimes *borrow* from others, and ſometimes make themſelves; as one may obſerve among the new nameschildren give to things. *Locke.*—Some perſons of bright parts have narrow remembrance; for having riches of their own, they are not ſolicitous to *borrow*. *Watts.* 4. To take as one's own, though not belonging to one.—

Unkind and cruel, to deceive your ſon
In *borrow'd* ſhapes, and his embrace to ſhun.
Dryden.

* BORROWER. *n. ſ.* [from *borrow*.] 1. He that borrows; he that takes money upon truſt: oppoſed to *lender*.—His talk is of nothing but his poverty, for fear belike leſt I ſhould have proved a young *borrower*. *Sidney.*—

Neither a *borrower* nor a lender be;
For loan oft loſes both itſelf and friend,
And borrowing dulls the edge of huſbandry.
Shakeſpeare.

Go not my horſe the better,
I muſt become a *borrower* of the night
For a dark hour or twain. *Shakeſpeare.*

But you invert the covenants of her truſt,
And harſhly deal, like an ill *borrower*,
With that which you receiv'd on other terms.
Milton.

2. He that takes what is another's, and uſes it as his own.—Some ſay, that I am a great *borrower*; however, none of my creditors have challenged me for it. *Pope.*

BORROW-HEAD, a promontory of Scotland on the S. E. coaſt of the iſle of Stronſay.

BORROWING and HIRING, in law, are contracts by which a qualified property may be tranſferred to the hirer or borrower; in which there is only this difference, that hiring is always for a price or ſtipend, or additional recompence: borrowing is merely gratuitous. But the law in both caſes is the ſame. They are both contracts, whereby the poſſeſſion and tranſient property is tranſferred for a particular time or uſe, on condition and agreement to reſtore the goods ſo hired or borrowed, as ſoon as the time is expired, or the uſe performed, together with the price or ſtipend (in caſe of hiring) either expreſsly agreed upon by the parties, or left to be implied by law, according to the value of the ſervice. By this mutual contract, the hirer or borrower gains a temporary property in the thing hired, accompanied with an implied condition to uſe it with moderation, and not to abuſe it; and the owner or lender retains a reverſionary intereſt in the ſame, and acquires a new property in the price or reward. Thus, if a man hires or borrows a horſe for a month, he has the poſſeſſion and a qualified property therein during that period; on the expiration of which his qualified property determines, and the owner becomes (in caſe of hiring) intitled alſo to the premium or price for which the horſe was hired. There is one ſpecies of this reward the moſt uſeful of any, but concerning which many good and learned men have much perplexed themſelves and others, by doubts about its legality *in foro conſcientiæ*. That is, when money is lent on a contract to receive not only the principal ſum again, but alſo an increaſe by way of compenſation for the uſe, which is generally called *intereſt* by thoſe who think it lawful, and *uſury* by thoſe who do not. See INTEREST.

BORROWSTON, a village on the coaſt of Caithneſs, in the parith of Rea. The ſhore has a number of ſmall caves, and a ſtrong natural arch, covered with green turf, on a level with the adjacent ground, and leading over a chaſm, 40 feet deep, into which the tide flows.

BORROWSTOWNNESS, a town of Scotland, in the county of Linlithgow, ſeated on the S. ſide of the Forth, 2 m. N. of Linlithgow, and 16 W. from Edinburgh. It has a good harbour, and is ſurrounded with collieries and ſalt works; its chief trade conſiſting in ſalt and coals. It has a fair, Nov. 16. Lon. 3. 34. W. Lat. 56. 2. N.

BORSE HOLDER, [from *borh*, a ſurety, and *alder*, a chief, Sax.] among the Anglo-Saxons, one of the loweſt magiſtrates, whoſe authority extended only over one free burgh, tithing or decennary, conſiſting of ten families. Every freeman who wiſhed to enjoy the protection of the laws, and not to be treated as a vagabond, was under the neceſſity of being admitted a member of the tith-

ing where he and his father reſided; and in order to obtain this admiſſion, it was as neceſſary for him to maintain a good reputation; becauſe all the members of each tithing being mutual pledges and ſureties for each other, and the whole tithing ſureties to the king for the good behaviour of all its members, they were very cautious of admitting any into their ſociety who were of bad or doubtful characters. Each tithing formed a little ſtate or commonwealth within itſelf, and choſe one of its moſt reſpectable members for its head, who was ſometimes called the *alderman* of ſuch a tithing or free burgh, on account of his age and experience, but moſt commonly *borſe-holder*.—This magiſtrate had authority to call together the members of his tithing, to preſide in their meetings, and to put their ſentences in execution. The members of each tithing, with their borſeholder at their head, conſtituted a court of juſtice, in which all the diſputes ariſing within the tithing were determined. If any diſpute of great difficulty or importance happened, or if either of the parties was not willing to ſubmit to a ſentence given in the tithing court, the cauſe was referred or appealed to the next ſuperior court, or court of the hundred.

BORSELLA, in the glaſs-works, an inſtrument wherewith glaſſes are extended or contracted at pleaſure; alſo ſmoothed and levigated.

BORSET, or } a place celebrated for its baths,
BORSETT, } about half a league from Aix la Chapelle. The abbey is very magnificent. The waters are warm, and of the nature of thoſe of Aix la Chapelle, being uſed as baths for the ſame diſeaſes, and alſo in dropſical and œdematous caſes. The waters are diſtinguiſhed into the upper and lower ſprings. The former were found by Dr Simmons to raiſe the thermometer to 158°, the latter to only 127°. All the baths are ſupplied by the firſt. Dr Simmons found that theſe waters were much leſs ſulphureous, than thoſe of Aix-la-Chapelle, probably on account of their greater heat; and that they abounded with ſelenites, which incruſt the pipes through which the water paſſes, and likewiſe the ſides of the bath.

BORSILL, a village in Suſſex, near Ticehurſt.

BORSON a town of Auſtria, in Tirol, which was evacuated, June 2d, 1796, by its inhabitants, who fled to Saltzburg upon the approach of the French army.

BORSTY, a village in Suſſex, S. W. of Aſhdown Foreſt.

BORTAN, a ſmall river of N. America, in Vermont, which riſes in Weſtmore townſhip, Orange county, and after running N. W. unites with the river Black, 3 m. S. of Lake Memphremagog.

(1.) BORTHWICK, a pariſh of Scotland, in the county of Edinburgh, about 12 m. S E. of that metropolis, extending about 6 m. from E. to W. and 4 from N. to S. The climate is various, but generally mild and ſalubrious; longevity being very common. The ſurface is uneven and reſembles waves. The ſoil is in general light, and agriculture is much improved. The only manufacture is that of the improved ploughs, by the celebrated James Small, who reſides in the pariſh. The population, in 1793, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Clunie, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 858, and had decreaſed 52, ſince 1755.

(2.) BORTHWICK, a river of Scotland, which riſes in the high grounds where the counties of Dumfries and Selkirk meet, and runs through the pariſh of Roberton, which it nearly divides. It abounds with excellent trouts, and is viſited by ſalmon in ſpawning time.

(3.) BORTHWICK CASTLE, a magnificent ruin originally of aſtoniſhing ſtrength, and ſtill very entire, ſituated in the above pariſh. (N. 1.) It was built by William, the 1ſt Lord Borthwick, about A. D. 1430. It meaſures about 74 feet by 68, without the walls, which are of hewn ſtone firmly cemented, 13 feet thick near the bottom and gradually contracted to about 6 near the top; and beſides the ſunk ſtorey, 90 feet in height to the battlement, but including the roof, which is arched and covered with flags, 110 feet high. The great hall is 40 feet long, and had been elegantly adorned with luſtres, paintings, tapeſtry, &c. On the firſt floor are ſtate rooms, formerly acceſſible by a draw-bridge. Notwithſtanding its ſtrength, it was taken by Oliver Cromwell in 165[illegible]. Mr Clunie has preſerved a copy of his ſummons in *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* XIII. 635.

(4.) BORTHWICK PARK, a diſtrict of 100 acres in Berwickſhire, ſurrounded by a very remarkable wall, of moorſtone, which has ſtood 179 years without needing repairs, though it has neither covering nor mortar of any kind.

(1.) BORTON, a village near Buckingham.

(2.) BORTON ON DUNSMORE, in Warwickſhire.

To BORWE, *v. a. obſ.* To borrow. *Chaucer.*

BORWICK, a village in Lancaſhire, between the Docker and the Lune.

BORYPTES, in natural hiſtory, a gem of a black colour with red and white ſpots.

BORYSTHENES. See BORISTHENES.

(I.) BOS, John Baptiſt DU, a celebrated author and member of the French academy, was born at Beauvais in 1670, and finiſhed his ſtudies at the Sorbonne. In 1695, he was made one of the committee for foreign affairs, and was afterwards charged with ſome important tranſactions in England, Germany, Holland, and Italy. At his return to Paris, he was made an abbé, and choſen perpetual ſecretary of the French academy. He was the author of ſeveral excellent works; the principal of which are, 1. Critical reflections upon poetry and painting, 3 vols 12mo. 2. The hiſtory of the Gordians, confirmed and illuſtrated by medals. 3. A critical hiſtory of the eſtabliſhment of the French monarchy among the Gauls, 2 vols 4to, 4 vols 12mo. He died at Paris in 1742.

(II.) BOS, Lewis Janſſen, an eminent painter born at Bois le Duc. Having been inſtructed in the art of painting, he rendered himſelf eminent for the truth of his colouring and the neatneſs of his handling. His favourite ſubjects were flowers and curious plants, which he repreſented as grouped, in glaſſes, half filled with water; and gave them ſo lovely a look of nature, that it ſeemed ſcarce poſſible to expreſs them with greater truth or delicacy. He repreſented the drops of dew on the leaves which he executed with an uncommon tranſparence; and embelliſhed his ſubjects with butterflies, bees, waſps, and other

jects. He likewiſe painted portraits with very great ſucceſs; and ſhowed as much merit in that ſtyle as he did in his compoſitions of ſtill life. He died in 1507.

(III.) Bos, in antiquity, was uſed for an ancient Greek ſilver coin, which was alſo called DRACHMUS, being equivalent to two drachms. It was called *Bos* as having on it the impreſſion of an ox, and chiefly obtained among the Athenians and Delians; being ſometimes alſo ſtruck of gold. From this aroſe the phraſe *Bos in lingua*, applied to thoſe who had taken bribes to hold their tongue.

(IV.) Bos, the ox, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of pecora. The characters of this genus are taken from the horns and teeth. The horns are hollow within, and excurved in the form of creſcents: There are eight fore teeth in the under jaw, and none in the upper, their place being ſupplied by a hard membrane: and there are no dog teeth in either jaw. Linnæus enumerates ſix ſpecies, but Mr Robert Kerr, in his *Animal Kingdom, or Zoological Syſtem of Sir C. Linnæus*, deſcribes 9 ſpecies and 17 varieties. As he is one of the lateſt writers on the ſubject, and has added every thing new from prof. Gmelin, Mr Pennant, and other eminent writers on zoology, we have adopted his claſſification, with the exception only of the BONASUS (N. iv.) and the INDICUS, (N° viii.) which he ranks as varieties of the BOS TAURUS, but which we cannot help conſidering as diſtinct ſpecies, as indeed moſt other authors have ranked them: for, as Mr Kerr himſelf juſtly obſerves, (p. 34) "ſome of the kinds, conſidered (by him) only as *varieties*, ſeem fully as *ſpecifically different* from the reſt, as others which are placed as *diſtinct ſpecies*." Upon this account, therefore, the ſpecies we have to deſcribe are 11 in number; viz.

i. BOS AMERICANUS, the AMERICAN BISON, with ſhort black rounded horns, and a great interval between their baſes. On the ſhoulders is a great hunch, conſiſting of a fleſhy ſubſtance, much carved. The fore parts of the body are thick and ſtrong; the hinder part, ſlender and weak.—The hunch and head are covered with a very long undulated fleece, divided into locks, of a dull red colour: this is at times ſo long, as to make the fore part of the animal of a ſhapeleſs appearance, and to obſcure its ſenſe of ſeeing. During winter, the whole body is clothed in the ſame manner. In ſummer the hind part of the body is naked, wrinkled, and duſky. The tail is about a foot long; at the end is a tuft of black hairs, the reſt naked. It inhabits Mexico, the interior parts of N. America, and in the Savannas. It is fond of marſhy places, where it lodges amidſt the high reeds. In Louiſiana they feed in herds innumerable, promiſcuouſly with multitudes of ſtags and deer, retiring in the ſultry heats into the ſhade of tall reeds, which border the rivers of America. They are exceedingly ſhy; and very fearful of man, unleſs they are wounded, when they purſue their enemy, and become very dangerous.—The chaſe of theſe animals is a favourite diverſion of the Indians; and is effected in two ways. Firſt by ſhooting: when the markſmen muſt take great care to go againſt the wind; for their ſmell is ſo exquiſite, that the moment they get ſcent of him they inſtantly retire with the utmoſt precipitation. He aims at their ſhoulders, that they may drop at once, and not be irritated by an ineffectual wound. If the wind does not favour them, they may be approached very near, being blinded by the hair which covers their eyes.—The other method is performed by a great number of men, who form a vaſt ſquare: each band ſets fire to the dry graſs of the Savannah where the herds are feeding: theſe animals having a great dread of fire which they ſee approach on all ſides, they retire from it to the centre of the ſquare; when the bands cloſe and kill them, preſſed together in heaps, without the leaſt hazard. It is ſaid that on every expedition of this nature they kill 1500 or 2000 beeves. The hunting grounds are marked out leaſt the different bands ſhould meet and interfere in the diverſion. The uſes of theſe animals are various. Powder-flaſks are made of their horns. The ſkins are very valuable; formerly the Indians made of them the beſt targets. When dreſſed, they form an excellent buff; the Indians dreſs them with the hair on, and clothe themſelves with them; the Europeans of Louiſiana uſe them for blankets, and find them light, warm, and ſoft. The fleſh is a conſiderable article of food, and the hunch on the back is eſteemed a very great delicacy. The bulls become exceſſively fat, and yield great quantities of tallow; 150 pounds weight have been got from a ſingle beaſt, which forms a conſiderable article of commerce. Theſe over-fed animals uſually become the prey of wolves; as, by their great unwieldineſs, they cannot keep up with the herd. The Indians prefer the fleſh of the cows, which in time will deſtroy the ſpecies: they complain of the rankneſs of that of the bulls; but Du Pratz thinks the laſt much more tender, and that the rankneſs might be prevented, by cutting off the teſticles as ſoon as the beaſt is killed. The hair or wool is ſpun into cloth, gloves, ſtockings, and garters, which are very ſtrong, and look as well as thoſe made of the beſt ſheeps wool; Governor Pownal aſſures us, that the moſt luxurious fabric might be made of it. The fleece of one of theſe animals has been found to weigh 8 pounds. Their ſagacity in defending themſelves againſt the attacks of wolves is admirable. When they ſcent the approach of a drove of thoſe ravenous creatures, the herd caſts itſelf into the form of a circle: the weakeſt keep in the middle; the ſtrongeſt are ranged on the outſide, preſenting to the enemy an impenetrable front of horns: when taken by ſurpriſe, numbers are ſure to periſh. Attempts have been made to domeſticate the wild, by catching the calves and bringing them up with the common kind, in hopes of improving the breed; but it has not yet been found to anſwer: notwithſtanding they had the appearance for a time of having loſt their ſavage nature, yet they always grew impatient of reſtraint, and would break down the ſtrongeſt incloſure, and entice the tame cattle into the corn fields. They have been known to engender together. Theſe animals, ſays Mr Kerr, are of a vaſt ſize, weighing from 1600 to near 3000 lb.

ii. BOS ARNEE, ſays Mr Kerr, "has long erected ſemilunar horns which are flattened, annularly wrinkled with ſmooth, round, approaching points; and

and inhabits India, N. from Bengal. This animal is of vaſt ſize, and is hitherto non deſcript. A ſkeleton of the head with the horns is in the Edinburgh College Muſæum;" (See *Plate* XLVI. *fig.* 1.) and another in Mr Weir's Muſæum. (See *fig.* 2.) "A Britiſh officer, who met with one in the woods above Bengal, ſays, it is above 14 feet high, that it partakes of the form of the horſe, bull, and deer, and is very bold and daring. This eſtabliſhes its genus, as all the other horned animals, of the ruminant or cloven-footed tribe, are ſhy and timid."

iii. Bos BARBATUS, the BEARDED OX, or CAPE AUROCH, "has ſhort horns; a beard on the chin, (whence the name,) and curly hair on the breaſt. It inhabits the country, N. of the Cape. The Namaques call it *Baas*, or the *Maſter Courier*, on account of its vaſt ſwiftneſs. It is like the common ox, but larger and of a grey colour. The head is ſmall."

iv. Bos BONASUS has a long mane: its horns are bent round towards the cheek, and are not above a ſpan long. It is about the ſize of a large bull, and is a native of Africa and Aſia. See BONASUS.

v. 1. Bos BUBALUS, the common BUFFALO, has large black horns, firſt extended outwards, then bent backward and inward, and plain before. The hair on the back is very hard, but thinly ſcattered over the body. It is a native of Aſia; but they are tamed in Italy, and uſed for the ſame purpoſes as black cattle in other countries. They draw carriages, and are guided by a rope tied to a ſtring thruſt through their noſes. This buffalo is larger than an ox, has a thicker body, and a very hard hide. His pace is ſlow, but he will carry a great burden. They feed in herds; the cows go 12 months with young, and yield plenty of milk, of which very good butter and cheeſe is made. Their fleſh is pretty good, but not to be compared to beef. The wild buffalo is a very fierce and dangerous animal; he often attacks travellers, and tears them in pieces. However, they are not ſo much to be feared in woods as in the plains, as their horns, which are ſometimes 10 feet long, are apt to be entangled in the branches of trees, which gives thoſe who are ſurpriſed by them time to eſcape. They are excellent ſwimmers, and will croſs the largeſt rivers without any difficulty. They run wild in great troops on the coaſt of Malabar. Strangers are allowed to hunt and kill them at pleaſure. The following varieties are mentioned by Meſſrs. Pennant and Kerr:

2. Bos BUBALUS ANOA is a native of the iſland Celebes, and is not bigger than a middle ſized ſheep, very fierce and wild, of a dark aſh colour, inhabiting the rocks. Mr Loten, when in India, put ſome of them into a paddock, and in one night's time they killed 14 or 15 of his deer by ripping up their bellies. No particular deſcription has yet been given of it.

3. Bos BUBALUS GUAVERA has a hunch on the ick, which ſtands up in a ſharp ridge; and the wer half of the legs are white. It inhabits Ceyn.

4. Bos BUBALUS SEMINUDUS has ſmall horns, ompreſſed ſideways, taper, ſharp pointed, and ckwards. The rump and thighs are naked, whence the epithet *ſeminudus*, half-naked It is ſmall, of the ſize of a Welſh runt. The hair on the fore part of the body is briſtly, and ſo thin that the ſkin appears. On the rump are two duſky perpendicular ſtripes, and on the thighs two tranſverſe.

vi. Bos CAFER, the CAPE BUFFALO, inhabits the interior part of Africa, N. of the Cape of Good Hope, but does not extend to the N. of the Tropic. They are ſaid to be greatly ſuperior in ſize to the largeſt Engliſh ox: they hang their heads down, and have a moſt ferocious and malevolent appearance. They are exceſſively fierce and dangerous to travellers; will lie quietly in wait in the woods, and ruſh ſuddenly on paſſengers, and trample them, their horſes, and oxen of draught, under their feet. They will even return to the attack, and lick the ſlaughtered bodies. They are prodigiouſly ſwift, and ſo ſtrong that a young one of 3 years of age, being placed with 6 tame oxen in a waggon, could not by their united force be moved from the ſpot. They are alſo found in the interior parts of Guinea; but are ſo fierce and dangerous, that the negroes when in chaſe of other animals are afraid to ſhoot at them. The lion, which can break the back of the ſtrongeſt domeſtic oxen at one blow, cannot kill this ſpecies, except by leaping on its back, and ſuffocating it by fixing his talons about its noſe and mouth. He often periſhes in the attempt; but leaves the marks of his fury about the mouth and noſe of the beaſt. They live in great herds, eſpecially in Krake-Kamma, and other deſerts of the Cape; and retire during the day into the thick foreſts. They are reckoned good meat by the Dutch of the Cape. They are called *Aurochs*, but differ totally from the European. The warmth of the climate has prevented the vaſt length and abundance of hair which diſtinguiſhes the former, and the luxuriance of herbage in this country has given it the vaſt ſuperiority of ſize. Dr Sparrman, deſcribing the death of one that was ſhot, informs us, that "immediately after the report of the gun, the buffalo fell upon its knees: that he afterwards raiſed himſelf up, and ran 700 or 800 paces into a thicket; and directly, with a moſt dreadful bellowing, gave us to underſtand, that it was all over with him. This creature, as well as moſt of the larger kind of game, was ſhot by a Hottentot. The beſt huntſmen among the farmers are obliged to make uſe of Hottentots as buſh-hunters; as in their ſkin cloaks they do not excite the attention of the wild beaſts ſo much as the Europeans do in their dreſs. They are likewiſe ready to go barefoot, and crawl ſoftly upon their bellies, till they come within a proper diſtance of the animal. When the buffalo at length is irritated, a Hottentot can much eaſier eſcape from danger than a European. I made a draught and took the dimenſions of this buffalo. The entrails perfectly reſembled thoſe of an ox; but were much larger, and indeed gave us no little trouble in clearing them away; for the diameter of this creature's body was full 3 feet: the length 8 feet, the height 5½, and the fore legs 2½ long; the larger hoofs were 5 inches over; from the tip of the muzzle to the horns was 22 inches. This animal in ſhape, (ſee *Plate* XXVI.) very much reſembled

fembled the common ox; but the buffalo has much ſtouter limbs, in proportion to its height and length. Their fetlocks hang likewiſe nearer to the ground. The horns are ſingular, both in their form and poſition: the baſes are 13 inches broad and only an inch diſtant from each other; by which there is formed between them a narrow chanel, in a great meaſure bare of hair. Meaſuring them from this, the horns riſe up in a ſpheroidal form, with an elevation of 3 inches at moſt. In this way they extend over a great part of the head, viz. from the nape of the neck to the diſtance of 3½ inches from the eyes; ſo that the part from which they grow out, does not occupy a ſpace of leſs than 18 or 20 inches in circumference. From hence bending down on each ſide of the neck, and becoming more cylindrical by degrees, they form a curve, the convex part of which is turned towards the ground, and the point up in the air: which, however, at the ſame time is generally inclined backwards. The diſtance between the points of the horns is frequently above 6 feet: the colour is black; and the ſurface, to within about a 3d part, meaſured from the baſe, is very rough and craggy, with cavities ſometimes an inch deep. Neither theſe cavities, nor the elevations which are formed between them, appear to be at all accidental, as there is a tolerable ſimilarity between theſe excreſcences, though they are very different in different buffaloes. The ears are a foot in length, ſomewhat pendant, and defended by the lower edges of the horns. The edges of the ears are notched and ſhrivelled up in divers ways, which probably proceeds from the wounds theſe creatures frequently receive in their battles with each other, and from the rents they get in the briars and almoſt impenetrable thickets through which they paſs. The hairs of the buffalo are of a dark brown colour, about an inch long; harſh; and on ſuch males as are advanced in years, very thin, eſpecially on the middle of the ſides of the belly: hence they appear at ſome diſtance as if they were girt with a belt; and what contributes not a little to this appearance is, that the buffaloes in general are very fond of rolling in the mire. The hairs on the knees are in moſt buffaloes ſomewhat longer than thoſe on the reſt of the body, and lie as it were in whirls. The eyes are ſomewhat ſunk within their prominent orbits. This, together with their near ſituation to the baſes of the horns, which hang ſomewhat over its pendant dangling ears, and its uſual method of holding its head inclined to one ſide, gives the buffalo a fierce and treacherous aſpect. His diſpoſition correſponds with his countenance. He keeps himſelf among the trees, and ſkulks there till ſome body comes very near him, when he ruſhes out at once and attacks him. Not content with killing the perſon whom he attacks, he afterwards tramples upon him with his hoofs and horns; and with his horns and teeth tears to pieces and mangles the whole body, ſtripping off the ſkin by licking it with his tongue. Notwithſtanding this, the buffalo will bear to be hunted; (ſee HUNTING,) though ſometimes he will turn and purſue his hunter, whoſe only dependence in that caſe is upon the ſwiftneſs of his ſteed. The ſureſt way to eſcape is to ride up a hill, as the great bulk of the buffalo's body prevents him from being able to vie with the fine limbed horſe in ſwiftneſs; though, on the other hand, the buffalo, in going down hill, gets on much faſter than the horſe. The fleſh of the buffalo is coarſe and not very fat, but full of juice, and of a high and not diſagreeable flavour. The hide is thick and tough, and is in great requeſt with the farmers for thongs and harneſſes; being the only halters that can be depended upon for ſecuring horſes and oxen; ſo that they cannot get looſe by ſnapping them aſunder, which they are otherwiſe apt to do when the lions and wolves make their appearance in the neighbourhood."

vii. BOS GRUNNIENS, or hog cow, has ſhort, erect, ſheep pointed cylindrical horns bent outwards. The body is ſo hairy, that the hair hangs down upon its knees like a goat. The colour of the body is black, but the front is white. It has briſtles on its back, and hind-legs, and it grunts like a hog. The tail reſembles that of a horſe, and is covered with very long flowing ſilky hairs. It is an inhabitant of the N. of Aſia. Mr Kerr enumerates 4 varieties of this ſpecies, viz.

1. BOS GRUNNIENS ECORNIS. It is a domeſticated breed, and has no horns, but is furniſhed with an immenſe thickneſs of bone on the forehead.

2. BOS GRUNNIENS FERUS, the wild grunting ox, inhabits Tangut, Mongalia, Thibet, Siberia, China, Perſia, and India. The ſize is various, but ſome individuals are ſo very large, that it is ſaid they have tails 6 feet long, which do not reach the ground. They are of tremendous fierceneſs, and when wounded turn furiouſly on the aſſailant, whom they never fall to deſtroy, if he does not eſcape inſtantly. Their fleſh, when full grown is hardly eatable.

3. BOS GRUNNIENS GHAINOUK is a domeſticated variety of the wild breed (N. 2.) which it reſembles in every thing, excepting that it is ſubject to great variety of colour.

4. BOS GRUNNIENS SARLYK is a degenerated race, not particularly deſcribed, but ſuppoſed to be a hybrid produce between the genuine breed and the cattle of the country. All the domeſticated breeds retain much of their original fierceneſs and are eaſily irritated, eſpecially at the ſight of any thing red, on which account, the natives cut off the ſharp points of their horns. They are employed in draughts and carriages.

viii. BOS INDICUS, the INDIAN OX, with all its varieties, are conſidered by Dr Gmelin, as varieties of the BOS TAURUS, (§ xi.) but, as Mr Kerr obſerves, "many of them have ſuch remarkable differences as would conſtitute, in other genera, ſufficient marks for ſpecific diſtinction." They have a large fatty lump on the ſhoulders. They differ much in ſize and in the form of their horns. Some are very large, and of a reddiſh colour; with horns ſhort, and bending cloſe to the neck, others very ſmall, with horns almoſt upright, bending a little forward. The following are the chief varieties:

1. BOS INDICUS MAJOR, with ſhort horns bending backward, inhabits India, Africa and Madagaſcar. The lump is compoſed entirely of fat, and is eſteemed a great delicacy. This breed grows to a vaſt ſize; the neck is prodigiouſly thick.

thick, and the legs rather ſhort in proportion. They intermix with the common ſpecies, and in a few generations the lump diſappears.

2. Bos INDICUS MINIMUS, is of a very diminutive ſize, being not larger than a great dog, but has a very fierce look. It inhabits Surat, and is uſed to draw children in ſmall carts.

3. Bos INDICUS MINOR, the ZEBU, or LITTLE INDIAN BUFFALO, has ſhort erect horns turned a little forwards, with a lump on the ſhoulders. See *Plate* XXVI. It is about the ſize of a calf 6 months old, and inhabits India, Perſia, and China. It is the common beaſt of burden in India, and is alſo uſed to draw carriages and even for riding.

ix. Bos MOSCHATUS, the MUSK OX of Hudſon's bay, is about the ſize of a Scotch bullock; has a thick body and ſhort legs. The horns are large, and are united at their origin in the ſkull; but immediately after, they fall down on each ſide of the crown of the head, then taper away ſmall, the points turning up, and out. See *Plate* XXIV. The horns of an old bull are about 2 feet in length, as well as in circumference, and weigh about 30 lb each. The hair is black, and grows to a great length; underneath which is a very fine aſh-coloured wool, ſuperior to Vigonia wool. The male only has the curious ſcalp; the female is covered with hair. Theſe animals frequent the country about 100 miles inwards to the N. W. of Churchill river, in Hudſon's bay, where they are very numerous. They live in herds of from 30, to 80 or 100. The bulls are very few in proportion to the cows. It is rare to ſee more than 2 or 3 full grown bulls with the largeſt herd; and from the number of males which at times are found dead, the Indians are of opinion that they kill each other in contending for the females at the rutting ſeaſon. They are then ſo jealous of their miſtreſſes, that they run at either man or beaſt who offers to approach them; and have been ſeen to run and bellow even at ravens, and other large birds which chanced to fly or light near them. They go to rut in Auguſt. The females bring forth their young about the end of May, or beginning of June, and have only one at a time. They delight moſt in the rocky and mountainous parts of the barren grounds. Though a beaſt of an apparently unwieldy form, yet it climbs the rocks with great eaſe and agility, and is nearly as ſure footed as a goat. Though they ſeem fondeſt of graſs, yet in winter they eat moſs or any other herbage: alſo the tops of the willows and the bruſh of the pine tree. The fleſh no ways reſembles that of the weſtern buffalo; but is more like that of the elk, the fat being of a clear white, ſlightly tinged with azure. The calves and young heifers are exceeding good eating; but the fleſh of the bulls both ſmell and taſte ſo ſtrong of muſk, as to render it very diſagreeable. It ſeems to have been for want of better information, that Mr Drage aſſerts the heart to be the moſt impregnated: had he ſaid the kidneys, he would have been much nearer the truth. The urine muſt contain this ſcent in a very great degree; for the penis is always lubricated with a brown gummy ſubſtance, ſo highly ſcented with muſk, that after having been kept for ſeveral years it does not ſeem to have loſt any of its quality. The dung of this animal, though ſo large, is all in little round knobs; and ſo exactly like that of the varying hare, both in ſize and colour, that it would be eaſy to miſtake them were it not for the quantity. The Indians kill great numbers of them. From 2000 to 4000 lb. of the fleſh frozen is brought to Prince of Wales' fort annually, and is ſerved out to the Europeans.

x. Bos PUMILUS, the DWARF OX, has horns almoſt erect, which cloſe at the baſe, recede in the middle, and approach at the points. It inhabits Africa, and was ſeen at Cairo by Belon who ſays it came from Morocco. It is larger than a roe, but leſs than a ſtag; has a thick neck, elevated ſhoulders, and ſhort legs: the hair is brown and ſhining, and the tail is terminated by long and coarſe hairs.

xi. 1. Bos TAURUS, (the DOMESTIC BULL and COW,) has cylindrical horns bent outwards and looſe dewlaps. The BULL, or male, is naturally a fierce and terrible animal. When the cows are in ſeaſon, he is perfectly ungovernable and often altogether furious. When chaſed, he has an air of ſullen majeſty, and often tears up the ground with his feet and horns. The principal uſe of the bull is to propagate the ſpecies; for though he might be trained to labour, his obedience cannot be depended on. A bull, like a ſtallion, ſhould be the moſt handſome of his ſpecies. He ſhould be large, well made, and in good heart; he ſhould have a black eye, and a fierce aſpect, but an open front; a ſhort head; thick ſhort, and blackiſh horns, and long ſhaggy ears; a ſhort and ſtraight noſe, large and full breaſt and ſhoulders, thick and fleſhy neck, firm reins, ſtraight back, thick fleſhy legs, and a long tail well covered with hair. Caſtration remarkably ſoftens the nature of this animal; it deſtroys all his fire and impetuoſity, and renders him mild and tractable, without diminiſhing his ſtrength; on the contrary, after this operation, his weight is increaſed, and he becomes fitter for the purpoſes of ploughing, &c. See Ox, § 2. The female of all thoſe ſpecies of animals which we keep in flocks, and whoſe increaſe is the principal object, are much more uſeful than the males. The cow produces milk, butter, cheeſe, &c. which are principal articles in our food, and beſides anſwer many uſeful purpoſes in various arts. Cows are generally in ſeaſon, and receive the bull from the beginning of May to the middle of July. The time of geſtation is 9 months, which naturally brings the veal to our markets from the beginning of January to the end of April. See CALF. However luxury has fallen upon methods of interrupting this natural courſe, and veal may be had almoſt every month in the year. Cows, when properly managed, are very ſubject to abortion. In the time of geſtation, therefore, they ought to be obſerved with more than ordinary care, leſt they ſhould leap ditches, &c. Neither ſhould they be ſuffered to draw in the plough or other carriage. They ſhould be put into the beſt paſture, and ſhould not be milked for ſix weeks or two months before they bring forth their young. The cow comes to the age of puberty in 18 months, but the bull requires two years: but

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though they are capable of propagating at theſe ages, it is better to reſtrain them till they be full 3 years. From 3 to 9 years thoſe animals are in full vigour; but when older, they are fit for nothing but to be fed for the butcher. A milk cow, ought to be choſen young, fleſhy, and with a brisk eye. The heavieſt and moſt bulky animals neither ſleep ſo profoundly, nor ſo long, as the ſmaller ones. The ſleep of the ox is ſhort and light; he wakes at the leaſt noiſe. He lies generally on the left ſide, and the kidney of that ſide is always larger than the other. There is great variety in the colour of oxen. A reddiſh or black colour is moſt eſteemed. The hair ſhould be gloſſy, thick, and ſoft; for when otherwiſe, the animal is either not in health, or has a weakly conſtitution. The ox eats very quick, and ſoon fills his firſt ſtomach; after which he lies down to ruminate or chew the cud. The 1ſt and 2d ſtomachs are continuations of the ſame bag, and very capacious. After the graſs has been chewed over again, it is reduced to a kind of maſh, not unlike boiled ſpinage; and under this form it is ſent down to the 3d ſtomach, where it remains and digeſts for ſome time; but the digeſtion is not fully completed till it comes to the 4th ſtomach, from which it is thrown down to the guts. The contents of the 1ſt and 2d ſtomachs are a collection of graſs and other vegetables roughly macerated; a fermentation, however, ſoon commences, which makes the graſs ſwell. The communication between the 2d and 3d ſtomach is by an opening much ſmaller than the gullet, and not ſufficient for the paſſage of the food in this ſtate. Whenever then the two firſt ſtomachs are diſtended with food, they begin to contract, or rather perform a kind of reaction. This reaction compreſſes the food, and makes it endeavour to get out: now the gullet being larger than the paſſage between the 2d and 3d ſtomachs, the preſſure of the ſtomach neceſſarily forces it up the gullet. The action of ruminating, however, appears to be in a great meaſure voluntary; as animals of this kind have a power of encreaſing the reaction of their ſtomachs. After the food undergoes a 2d maſtication, it is then reduced into a thin pulp, which eaſily paſſes from the 2d to the 3d ſtomach; where it is ſtill further macerated; from thence it paſſes to the 4th, where it is reduced to a perfect mucilage, every way prepared for being taken up by the lacteals, and converted into nouriſhment. What confirms this account of chewing the cud is, that as long as theſe animals ſuck or feed upon liquid aliment, they never ruminate; and in the winter, when they are obliged to feed upon hay and other dry victuals, they ruminate more than when they feed upon freſh graſs. Bulls, cows, and oxen, are fond of licking themſelves, eſpecially when lying at reſt. But this practice ſhould be prevented as much as poſſible; for as the hair is an undigeſtible ſubſtance, it lies in the ſtomach or guts, and is gradually coated by a glutinous ſubſtance, which in time hardens into round ſtones of a conſiderable bulk, which ſometimes kills them, but always prevents their fattening, as the ſtomach is rendered incapable of digeſting the food ſo well as it ought. The age of theſe animals may be diſtinguiſhed by the teeth and horns. The firſt fore teeth fall out at the age of ſix months and are ſucceeded by others of a darker colour, and broader. At the end of 16 months, the next milk teeth likewiſe fall out; and at the beginning of the fourth year all the fore teeth are renewed, and then they are long, pretty white, and equal: However, as the animal advances in years, they become unequal and blackiſh. The horns of oxen, 4 years of age, are ſmall pointed, neat, and ſmooth, but thickeſt near the head: This thick part next ſeaſon is puſhed further from the head by a horny cylinder, which is alſo terminated by another ſwelling part, and ſo on (for as long as the ox lives, the horns continue to grow;) and theſe ſwellings become ſo many annular knots by which the age may eaſily be reckoned: But from the point to the firſt knot muſt be counted three years, and every ſucceeding knot only one year. The bull, cow, and ox, generally live about 14 or 15 years. Ox beef is very nouriſhing, and yields a ſtrong aliment; the fleſh of a cow, when well fatted and young, is not much inferior. Bull beef is hard, tough, and dry; for which reaſon it is not much uſed for food. Veal is well taſted, eaſy of digeſtion, and rather keeps the body open than otherwiſe. For the uſes of the various parts of theſe animals, See Ox. The northern countries of Europe produce the beſt cattle of this kind. In general, they bear cold better than heat; for this reaſon they are not ſo numerous in the ſouthern countries. There are but few in Aſia to the ſouth of Armenia, or in Africa beyond Egypt and Barbary. America produced none of this ſpecies till they were carried there by the Europeans. But the largeſt are to be met with in Denmark, Podolia, the Ukrain, and among the Calmuck Tartars; likewiſe thoſe of Ireland, England, Holland, and Hungary, are much larger than thoſe of Perſia, Turky, Greece, Italy, and Spain; but thoſe of Barbary are leaſt of all. In all mountainous countries, as Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, &c. the black cattle are ſmall, but hardy; and when fattened make excellent beef. In Lapland, they are moſtly white, and many of them want horns. The Britiſh breed of cattle, Mr Pennant obſerves, has in general been ſo much improved by foreign mixture, that it is difficult to point out the original kind of theſe iſlands. Thoſe which may be ſuppoſed to have been originally Britiſh are far inferior in ſize to thoſe on the northern part of the European continent; the cattle of the Highlands of Scotland are exceedingly ſmall; and many of them, males as well as females, are hornleſs: the Welch runts are much larger: the black cattle of Cornwall are of the ſame ſize with the laſt. The large breeds, now cultivated through moſt parts of Great Britain, are either entirely of foreign extraction, or our own improved by a croſs with the foreign kind. The Lincolnſhire kind derive their ſize from the Holſtein breed; and the large hornleſs cattle, that are bred in ſome parts of England, come originally from Poland. There are many varieties of this ſpecies: among which the following are mentioned by Mr Kerr and prof. Gmelin.

2. BOS TAURUS ABYSSINICUS, the Abyſſinian ox,

ox, has a hunch on its back, and the horns adhere to the ſkin only, and hang pendulous. It inhabits Abyſſinia and other parts of Africa.

3. Bos TAURUS AFRICANUS, the LANT, is white and has elegant horns, ſlender legs and black hoofs. It inhabits Africa, and is ſwifter than moſt horſes. The hide is ſaid to be impenetrable by a bullet. Some reckon it a ſpecies of antelope.

4. Bos TAURUS BISON has horns reflected forwards, a hunched back and a long mane. It is white, and is ſuppoſed by Buffon to be the ſame with the BONASUS (§ iv.) and the FERUS: (N. 5.) But Gmelin ranks them as diſtinct. It is quite a different animal from the American Biſon. (§ i.)

5. Bos TAURUS FERUS, the WILD OX, inhabits the marſhy woods of Poland, Pruſſia, and Lithuania. It is ſuppoſed to be the original ſtock of all the European domeſtic breeds. It has thick ſhort horns, reflected forward, and a curly forehead. About 250 years ago, there was found in Scotland a wild race of cattle, which were of a pure white colour, and had, if we may believe Boethius, manes like lions. Mr Pennant ſays, he cannot but give credit to the relation; having ſeen in the woods of Drumlanrig in North Britain, and in the park belonging to Chillingham caſtle in Northumberland, herds of cattle probably derived from the ſavage breed. They had loſt their manes, but retained their colour and fierceneſs; they were of a middle ſize, long legged, and had black muzzels and ears; their horns fine, with a bold and elegant bend.—The keeper of thoſe at Chillingham ſaid, that the weight of the ox was 38 ſtones; of the cow, 28; that their hides were more eſteemed by the tanners than thoſe of the tame; and they would give ſixpence per ſtone more for them. Theſe cattle were wild as any deer; on being approached they would inſtantly take to flight, and gallop away at full ſpeed; never mix with the tame ſpecies, nor come near the houſe, unleſs conſtrained to it by hunger in very ſevere weather. When it is neceſſary to kill any, they are always ſhot: if the keeper only wounds the beaſt, he muſt take care to keep behind ſome tree, or his life would be in danger from the furious attacks of the animal, which will never deſiſt till a period is put to its life. Frequent mention is made of our ſavage cattle by hiſtorians. One relates, that K. Robert Bruce was (in chaſing theſe animals) preſerved from the rage of a wild bull, by the intrepidity of one of his courtiers, from which he and his lineage acquired the name of TURN-BULL. Fitz-Stephen names theſe animals *uri ſylveſtres*, among thoſe that harboured in the great foreſt that in his time lay adjacent to London. Another enumerates, among the proviſions at the great feaſt of Nevil Abp. of York, ſix wild bulls; and Sibbald aſſures us, that in his days a wild and white ſpecies was found in the mountains of Scotland, but agreeing in form with the common ſort. Theſe were probably the ſame with the *biſontes jubati* of Pliny found then in Germany, and might have been common to the continent and our

the loſs of their ſavage vigour by confine-
at occaſion ſome change in the external
e, as is frequent with wild animals de-
liberty; and to that we may aſcribe
f mane. The URUS of the Hercynian foreſt deſcribed by Cæſar (lib. vi.) was of this kind; the ſame which is called by the modern Germans, *aurochs*, i. e. *bos ſylveſtris*.

6. Bos TAURUS MADAGASCARIENSIS, the BOURY, or Madagaſcar ox, is of a large ſize and white colour, with pendulous ears, and a hunched back. It inhabits Adel and Madagaſcar.

7. Bos TAURUS TINIANENSIS, the Tinian ox, is of a white colour, but has black ears, and inhabits the iſle of Tinian.

(1.) BOSA, a river of Sardinia.

(2.) BOSA, or BOSSA, a town on the W. coaſt of Sardinia, ſeated on the mouth of the river (N. 1.) near which it has a harbour, 32 m. N. of Oriſtagni. Lon. 8. 30. E. Lat. 40. 15. N.

(3.) BOSA, in the Egyptian medicine, denotes a maſs prepared of the flower of the lolium, hemp-ſeed, and water; of the ſame inebriating virtue with the aſſis, or opium.

BOSBURY, a village in Herefordſhire, near Ledbury.

(1.) BOSC, John DU, Lord of Eſmendreville, preſident of the Court of Aids at Roan, was one of the many martyrs to the proteſtant religion in France, during the bloody reign of Charles IX. Mr Bayle gives him an excellent character. He was made counſellor and commiſſary of requeſts in 1554; and was promoted to the 2d prefidency, 26 Jan. 1562, but was beheaded the 1ſt of Nov. following, as one of the authors of the reſiſtance of Roan to the arms of the king. Le Laboureur ſays, "he was worthy of a better fate, having all the great qualities that are to be deſired in an accompliſhed magiſtrate." He wrote, 1. *Joannis Boſchæi Neuſtrii περὶ διαιτογαμιῶν, De legitimis nuptiis*: 2. A treatiſe of the Number Seven: 3. *De Numæ Pompilii Sacris*, a work which gave great offence to the catholics.

(2.) BOSC, N. DU, a Franciſcan of the 17th century, author of ſeveral works: particularly, 1. *The Honeſt Woman*; to which his friend D'Ablancourt wrote a preface: 2. *The Heroic Woman*: and 3. ſeveral pieces againſt the Janſeniſts, which were little eſteemed.

(3.) BOSC, Peter DU, the greateſt proteſtant preacher of his age, was the ſon of W. Du Boſc, advocate in Rouen, and born at Bayeux, in 1623. He ſtudied at Montauban and Saumur, and made ſuch rapid progreſs, that, in 1645, he was choſen miniſter at Caen. He was ſoon conſidered as a perfect orator, and was repeatedly preſſed to accept of the church of Charenton, but he and the people of Caen were ſo fond of each other, that nothing but perſecution could part them. This began in 1664, when he was confined to Chalons by a *lettre de cachet*, but he was liberated ſoon after, and the joy of the people of all perſuaſions was ſo great, upon his return to Caen, that even the Catholics rejoiced; and one gentleman made two Franciſcan friars ſo drunk upon the occaſion, that one of them died on the ſpot. The Bp. of Chalons was particularly kind to him. In 1665, he began to ſignalize his prudence, as well as his eloquence in defending the proteſtant churches againſt perſecutions. 1666, the king having publiſhed a declaration againſt them, all the churches ſent deputies to Paris; but the drawing up their memorials was committed by the reſt to M. Du

Boſc,

Boſc, who was deputed from thoſe of Normandy. In 1668, he alone had an audience of the king, wherein he ſucceeded ſo well, that ſome melioration was obtained. And Mr Bayle obſerves, if it had been poſſible to ſave the reformed churches by negociation, he would have done it. But in 1685, he himſelf was interdicted; whereupon he went to Rotterdam, where he was miniſter till his death, in 1692. He publiſhed ſeveral volumes of ſermons; and after his death, his ſon in-law M. Le Gendre publiſhed a valuable collection of his memoirs, requeſts, petitions, &c. relating to the churches, with his ſpeeches, letters, and poems in Greek, Latin and French.

(1) * BOSCAGE. *n. ſ.* [*boſcage*, Fr.] 1. Wood, or woodlands.—We bent our courſe thither, where we ſaw the appearance of land; and, the next day, we might plainly diſcern that it was a land flat to our ſight, and full of *boſcage*, which made it ſhew the more dark. *Bacon.* 2. The repreſentation of woods.—Cheerful paintings in feaſting and banqueting rooms; graver ſtories in galleries; landſkips and *boſcage*, and ſuch wild works, in open terraces, or ſummer-houſes. *Wotton.*

(2) BOSCAGE, among painters, a landſcape repreſenting much wood and trees.

(3) BOSCAGE, or BOSCAGIUM, } in law, 1. ſood which trees yield to cattle; as maſt, &c. Manhood ſays, to be quit of Boſcage is to be diſcharged of paying any duty for windfall wood in the foreſt. 2. A tax on wood.

BOSCAN, John, a Spaniſh poet of the 16th century, born at Barcelona. He was the friend of Garcilaſſo de la Vigo, another Spaniſh poet. Theſe two were the firſt who made any great improvement in the poetry of their nation, and their pieces were printed together. Boſcan, who died about A. D. 1542, principally ſucceeded in ſonnets.

BOSCASTLE, formerly called BOTEREAUX CASTLE, a town in Cornwall, ſeated on the Briſtol channel, 230 m. from London.

BOSCAWEN, Edward, a brave Britiſh admiral, was the ſecond ſon of Hugh, lord viſcount Falmouth. Having early entered into the navy, he was, in 1740, captain of the Shoreham; and behaved with great intrepidity as a volunteer under admiral Vernon, at the taking of Porto Bello. At the ſiege of Carthagena, in March 1740-1, he had the command of a party of ſeamen, who reſolutely attacked and took a battery of 15 twenty four pounders, though expoſed to the fire of another fort of 5 guns, and was appointed to the command of the prince Frederic of 70 guns. In May 1742, he returned to England, and married Frances, daughter of William Glanville, Eſq; and the ſame year was elected repreſentative for Truro in Cornwall. In 1744, he was made captain of the Dreadnought of 60 guns; and ſoon after took the Media, a French man of war, the firſt king's ſhip taken in that war. May 3, 1747, he ſignalized himſelf under admirals Anſon and Warren, in an engagement with the French fleet off Cape Finiſterre, and was wounded in the ſhoulder with a muſket ball; the whole ten French ſhips of war were taken. On the 15th July, he was made rear admiral of the blue, and commander in chief of the land and ſea forces employed on an expedition to the Eaſt Indies; and, on the 4th Nov. ſailed from St Helen's, with 6 ſhips of the line, 5 frigates, and 2000 ſoldiers. On the 29th July, 1748, he arrived at St David's, and ſoon after laid ſiege to Pondicherry; but the men growing ſickly, and the monſoons expected, the ſiege was raiſed, and he ſhowed himſelf as much the general as the admiral in his retreat. Soon after he had the news of the peace, and Madraſs was delivered up to him by the French. In April 1750, he arrived at St Helen's in the Exeter, and found that in his abſence he had been appointed rear admiral of the white. He was next year appointed one of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, and choſen an elder brother of the Trinity-houſe. In February 1755, he was appointed vice-admiral of the blue. On the 19th April, he fell in with, and took the Alcide and Leys of 64 guns each. In 1756, he was appointed vice admiral of the white; and in 1758, admiral of the blue, and commander in chief of the expedition to Cape Breton; when, in conjunction with general Amherſt, and a body of troops from New England, the important fortreſs of Louiſbourg and the whole iſland of Cape Breton were taken, for which he afterwards received the thanks of the Houſe of Commons. In 1759, being appointed to the command in the Mediterranean, he arrived at Gibraltar, where hearing that the Toulon fleet, under M. de la Clue, had paſſed the Straits, to join that at Breſt, he got under ſail, and on the 18th Aug. engaged the enemy. His ſhip, the Namur of 90 guns, loſing her main maſt, he ſhifted his flag to the Newark; and, after a ſharp engagement, took 3 large ſhips, and burnt two in Lagos bay, and the ſame year arrived at Spithead with his prizes and 2000 priſoners. On December 8, 1760, he was appointed general of the marines with a ſalary of L. 3000 per annum, and was alſo ſworn one of the privy council. He died in 1761.

BOSCAW-WOAN, a village in Cornwall at the Land's-End.

BOSCH, Jacob Vanden, a painter of ſtill life, was born at Amſterdam in 1636, and painted ſummer fruits of various kinds, with ſuch natural and tranſparent colour, that they appeared delicious and almoſt real. He died in 1676.

BOSCHAERTS, Thomas Willeborts, a celebrated painter, was born at Bergen-op-zoom; and began to draw, when very young, in the books that were intended for other ſtudies. He drew his own picture from a looking-glaſs, ſo like, that thoſe who ſaw it were aſtoniſhed. This he did before he had the leaſt inſtruction, when he was only 12 years of age. Upon this his parents ſent him to a maſter, that he might follow the bent of his genius; but his firſt maſter being an indifferent painter, he engaged himſelf with Gerard Segers; under whom he proved a moſt accompliſhed artiſt. Antwerp being at that time the ſeat of arts, he there executed ſuch a number of noble pieces as added greatly to the ſplendour of that wealthy city. In 1642, Henry Frederick prince of Orange, and his ſon prince William, employed him in their ſervice; and he painted portraits for moſt of the perſons of quality then living. He died in 1670.

BOSCHAS, a ſpecies of anas. See ANAS, N. 6.

BOSCHI, or (1.) BOSCO, } a town of Italy, in the Mila-neſe, ſeated on the river Orbe. Lon. 9. 44. E. Lat. 44. 5. N.

(2.) BOSCO. See ATTACHIAMENTA, N. 2.

BOSCOBEL, a grove in Shropſhire, near White-Ladies in the pariſh of Tonge, noted for the oak in which Charles II. was hid, and ſaw the ſoldiers paſs by in queſt of him, after the battle of Worceſter.

BOSCOI, or BOSCI, [Gr. βοσκω, grazers,] in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, a ſpecies of monks in Paleſtine, who fed on graſs like the beaſts. The Boſcoi are ranked among the number of Adamites, not ſo much on account of their habit, as food. They took no care about proviſion; but when any of them was hungry, he went into the fields with a knife, and gathered and eat what he could find.

BOSCOMB, a village in Wiltſhire, 3 m. S. E. of Saliſbury, and 9 from Sarum.

BOSCUS, [from βοσκω, to feed,] in ancient law writings, ſignifies a wood of any kind. It is alſo written BUSCUS, *buſcaria*, and *buſcale*. *Boſcus* is divided into high wood, or timber, called alſo *ſaltus*, and *haut bois*; and coppice, or underwood, *ſub-boſcus*, or *ſub-bois*.

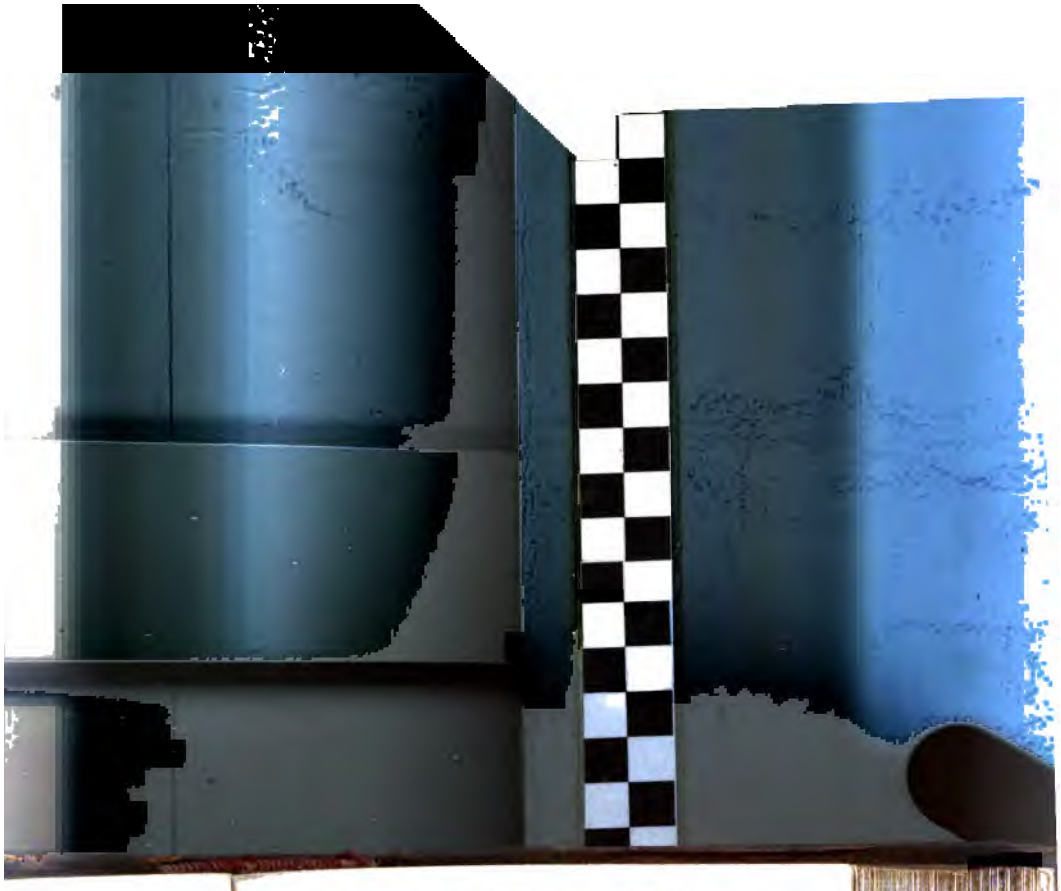
BOSEA, GOLDEN-ROD TREE: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 53d order, Scabridæ. The calyx is pentaphyllous; there is no corolla, and the berry is monoſpermous. Of this genus there is but one ſpecies, viz.

BOSEA YERVAMORA. It is a native of the Canary and Caribbee iſlands. It has been long an inhabitant of the Britiſh botanic gardens, but has never been obſerved to flower in this country. It is a pretty ſtrong woody ſhrub, growing with a ſtem as large as a man's leg; the branches come out very irregular, and make conſiderable ſhoots every ſummer, which ſhould be ſhortened in ſpring. Theſe branches retain their leaves till ſpring, when they fall away, and new leaves are produced in their place. It may be propagated by cuttings planted in ſpring; and the plants muſt be houſed in winter, for they are too tender to bear the open air at that ſeaſon.

BOSEHAM, a village in Suſſex, between Chicheſter and Thorney Iſle.

BOSGRAVE, in Suſſex, N. E. of Chicheſter.

BOSHIES-MEN, a ſpecies of Hottentots, ſo called, according to Dr Sparrman, from their dwelling in woody or mountainous places. They are ſworn enemies to a paſtoral life; live on hunting and plunder, and never keep any animal alive for the ſpace of one night. By this means they render themſelves odious to the reſt of the inhabitants of the Cape; and are purſued and exterminated like the wild beaſts, whoſe manners they have aſſumed. Others are kept alive, and made ſlaves of. Their weapons are poiſoned arrows, which, ſhot out of a ſmall bow, will fly 200 paces, and will hit a mark with a tolerable degree of certainty at the diſtance of 50 or even 100 paces. From this diſtance they can convey death to the game they hunt for food, as well as to their foes, and even to ſo large and tremendous a beaſt as the lion. The Hottentot, in the mean time, ſafe in his ambuſh, is certain of the operation of his poiſon, which is always of the moſt virulent kind and it is ſaid he has only to wait a few minutes ſee the wild beaſt languiſh and die. The dwellings of theſe foes to a paſtoral life are generally not more agreeable than their manners. Like the wild beaſts, buſhes and clifts in rocks ſerve them for houſes; and ſome of them are ſaid to be far worſe than beaſts, that their ſoil has been found cloſe by their habitations. A great many of them are entirely naked; but ſuch as have been able to procure the ſkin of any ſort of animal great or ſmall, cover their bodies with it from the ſhoulders downwards as far as it will reach, wearing it till it falls off their backs in rags. Ignorant of agriculture, they wander over hills and dales, and wild roots, berries, and plants, which they eat raw, to ſuſtain a life that this miſerable food would ſoon extinguiſh, were they uſed to better fare. Their table, however, is ſometimes compoſed of ſeveral other diſhes; ſuch as the laryæ of inſects caterpillars, white ants (the *termes*), graſshoppers, ſnakes, and ſome ſorts of ſpiders. The Boſhieman is nevertheleſs frequently in want, and famiſhed to ſuch a degree as to waſte almoſt to a ſhadow. "It was with no ſmall aſtoniſhment (ſays Dr Sparrman,) that I for the firſt time ſaw Lange Kloof a lad belonging to this race of men with his face, arms, legs, and body, ſo miſtrouſly ſmall and withered, that I could not help been induced to ſuppoſe but that he had been brought to that ſtate by the fever that was epidemic in thoſe parts, had I not ſeen him at the ſame time run like a lapwing. It required but a few weeks to bring one of thoſe ſtarvelings to a thriving ſtate, and even to make him fat; their ſtomachs being ſtrong enough to digeſt the greateſt quantity of food with which they are crammed as they may rather be ſaid to bolt than eat." The capture of ſlaves from among this race of men is by no means difficult; and is effected (Dr Sparrman informs us) in the following manner. "Several farmers join together and take a journey to that part of the country where the Boſhies-men live. They, as well as their Lego-Hottentots, or elſe ſuch Boſhies-men as have been caught ſome time before, and have been trained up to fidelity in their ſervice, endeavour to ſpy out where the wild Boſhies-men have their haunts. This is often diſcovered by the ſmoke of their fires. They are found in ſocieties from 10 to 100, reckoning great and ſmall. Notwithſtanding this, the farmers will venture in a dark night to ſet upon them with 6 or 8 people, which they contrive to do by previouſly ſtationing themſelves at ſome diſtance round about the craal. They then give the alarm by firing a gun or two. By this means there is ſuch a conſternation ſpread among theſe ſavages, that it is only the moſt bold among them that have the courage to break through the circle and ſteal off. Theſe the captors are glad enough to get rid of at ſo eaſy a rate; being better pleaſed with thoſe that are ſtupid, timorous, and ſtruck with amazement, and who conſequently allow themſelves to be taken and carried into bondage. They are, however, at firſt treated by gentle methods; that is, the victors intermix the faireſt promiſes with their threats, and endeavour, if poſſible, to ſhow



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ſome of the larger kinds of game for their priſon-
ers, ſuch as buffaloes, ſea-cows, and the like.
ſuch agreeable baits, together with a little tobac-
co, ſoon induce them, continually cockered and
feaſted as they are, to go with a tolerable degree
of chearfulneſs to the coloniſt's place of abode.
There this luxurious junketting upon meat and
fat is exchanged for moderate portions, conſiſting
for the moſt part of butter milk, frumenty, and
haſty pudding. This diet, nevertheleſs, makes
the Boſhies-man fat in a few weeks. However,
he ſoon finds his good living embittered by the
wandering and grumbling of his maſter and miſ-
treſs. The words *t'gaseri* and *t'gaunaſs*, which
perhaps are beſt tranſlated by thoſe of "young
ſcorer" and "imp," are expreſſions which he
muſt frequently put up with, and ſometimes a
few curſes and blows into the bargain; and this
for neglect, remiſſneſs, or idleneſs; which laſt
failure, if it cannot be ſaid to be born with him,
is however in a manner naturalized in him. So
that, both by nature and cuſtom deteſting all man-
ner of labour, and now from his greater corpu-
lency becoming ſtill more ſlothful, and having be-
ſides been uſed to a wandering life ſubject to no
controul, he moſt ſenſibly feels the want of his
liberty. No wonder, then, that he generally en-
deavours to regain it by making his eſcape: but
what is really a ſubject for wonder is, that when
one of theſe poor devils runs away from his ſervice,
he more properly bondage, he never takes with
him any thing that does not belong to him. This
is an inſtance of moderation in the ſavages towards
their tyrants which is univerſally atteſted, and at
the ſame time praiſed and admired by the colo-
niſts themſelves; which, however, I cannot eaſily
reconcile with what I have learned of the human
heart. Is it in conſequence of their fearing to
meet with harder uſage in caſe they ſhould be
retaken? This far, however, is certain, that none
of this ſpecies of Hottentots are much given to vio-
lence or revenge. Free from many wants and de-
ſires that torment the reſt of mankind, they are
little, if at all, addicted to thieving, if we except
brandy, victuals, and tobacco. It is not impro-
bable likewiſe, that the advantages accruing from
theft may be overlooked by them, when their
thoughts are taken up with regaining their liber-
ty, the greateſt of all treaſures. It is neceſſary to
obſerve here, that ſome of the Hottentots or Bo-
ſhies-men, who are thus forced into the ſervice of
the coloniſts, live in ſmall ſocieties peaceably and
quietly in deſart tracts, where the coloniſts can-
not eaſily come at them; and are ſometimes in
the poſſeſſion of a few cows. Theſe people pro-
bably originate from Boſhies-men who have run
away from the coloniſts ſervice. I muſt confeſs
that the Boſhies-men in ſome huſbandmen's ſer-
vice are treated in the genteeſt manner, and perhaps
even without ever having a harſh word given them;
live very well with regard to proviſions; are well
clad, relatively to their condition in life; and are
very comfortably lodged, in compariſon of what
others are, in their own ſtraw cottages. The chief
of their buſineſs perhaps conſiſts in tending a herd
of cattle, or flock of ſheep, during the heat of the
day, when they have an opportunity of getting
into a gentle ſtate of intoxication by ſmoking to-
bacco; a ſtate which excites in them ſenſations
of as agreeable a nature, as the frenzy produced
by ſpirituous liquors and opium ſeems to afford
to many others, who are never at eaſe but when
they can procure to themſelves this delicious plea-
ſure. And yet, though they may thus agreeably
paſs away the otherwiſe tedious hours of their lives
in ſmoking and ſleep, they nevertheleſs generally
run away. The coloniſts wonder at this, as a pro-
cedure entirely devoid of reaſon; without perceiv-
ing, that in ſo doing they ſuppoſe the Hottentots
not endued with a deſire, which has its immedi-
ate foundation in nature, and which is common
to the human race, and even to moſt brute ani-
mals, viz. an earneſt longing after the birth-place
and families, and eſpecially after their liberty.
The ſlave buſineſs, that violent outrage to the na-
tural rights of mankind, always in itſelf a crime,
and which leads to all manner of miſdemeanors
and wickedneſs, is exerciſed by the coloniſts in
general, with a cruelty towards the nation of Bo-
ſhies-men, which merits the abhorrence of every
one; though I have been told that they pique
themſelves upon it; and not only is the capture
of thoſe Hottentots conſidered by them merely as
a party of pleaſure, but in cold blood they de-
ſtroy the bands which nature has knit between
huſbands and their wives and children. Not con-
tent, for inſtance, with having torn an unhappy
woman from the embraces of her huſband, her
only protection and comfort, they endeavour all
they can, and that chiefly at night, to deprive her
likewiſe of her infants; for it has been obſerved,
that the mothers can ſeldom perſuade themſelves
to flee from their tender offspring. The amiable
tenderneſs of the mother, which perhaps glows
with a more lively flame in the breaſt of this poor
heathen, than in thoſe of her Chriſtian tyrants, is
the very circumſtance laid hold on by their perſe-
cutors, to rivet the chains of this wretched female
ſo much the faſter. There are ſome mothers,
however, that ſet themſelves free, when they
have loſt all hopes of ſaving their children. After
having made their eſcape, they ſometimes keep
ſecretly about the neighbourhood, in hopes of find-
ing ſome opportunity of recovering their infants
again."

* BOSKY. *adj.* [*boſque*, Fr.] Woody.—

And with each end of thy blue bow doſt crown
My *boſky* acres, and my unſhrubb'd down.
Shakeſpeare.

I know each land, and every alley green,
Dingle, or buſhy dell, of this wild wood,
And ev'ry *boſky* bourn from ſide to ſide. *Milt.*

BOSLEY, a village in Cheſhire, N. E. of Congleton.

BOSMAIFE, an iſland of Ruſſia, in the province of Aſtracan, 10 m. below the city. See ASTRACAN, § 4.

BOSNA, a navigable river of Turkiſh Illyrium.

BOSNA-SERAGO, a large and ſtrong town of Turky, and capital of Boſnia, 110 m. S. W. of Belgrade. Lon. 17. 57. E. Lat. 44. 40. N.

BOSNIA, a province of Turky in Europe, bounded on the N. by Sclavonia; on the E. by Servia; on the S. by Albania, and on the W. by Croatia and Dalmatia. It belongs entirely to the Turks;

Turks; but they were on the point of being expelled from it by the Chriſtians, when the Spaniards invaded Sicily, and obliged the emperor to conclude the peace of Paſſarowitz in 1718, by which he gave up Boſnia to the Turks. It is 200 miles long and 75 broad. It is a barren country, and but little cultivated: the principal revenue ariſing from the ſilver mines. The falcons of Boſnia are held in great eſteem.

(1.) * BOSOM. *n. ſ.* [*boſme, boſom*, Sax.] 1. The embrace of the arms holding any thing to the breaſt. 2. The breaſt; the heart.—

Our good old friend,
Lay comforts to your *boſom*; and beſtow
Your needful counſel to our buſineſſes. *Shak.*

3. The folds of the dreſs that cover the breaſt.—Put now thy hand into thy *boſom*; and he put his hand into his *boſom*: and when he took it out behold his hand was leprous as ſnow. *Exodus* iv. 6. 4. Incloſure; compaſs; embrace.—Unto laws thus received by a whole church, they which live within the *boſom* of that church, muſt not think it a matter indifferent, either to yield or not to yield, obedience. *Hooker.* 5. The breaſt, as the ſeat of the paſſions.—Anger reſteth in the *boſoms* of fools. *Eccleſ.*—

From jealouſy's tormenting ſtrife
For ever be thy *boſom* freed. *Prior.*

Unfortunate Fallard! O, who can name
The pangs of rage, of ſorrow, and of ſhame;
That with mix'd tumult in thy *boſom* ſwell'd,
When firſt thou ſaw'ſt thy braveſt troops repell'd! *Addiſon.*

Here acting *boſoms* wear a viſage gay,
And ſtifled groans frequent the ball and play. *Young.*

6. The breaſt, as the ſeat of tenderneſs.—Their ſoul was poured out into their mother's *boſom*, *Lam.*—

No further ſeek his virtues to diſcloſe,
Or draw his frailties from their dread abode;
There they alike in trembling hope repoſe,
The *boſom* of his father and his God. *Gray.*

7. The breaſt, as the receptacle of ſecrets.—If I covered my tranſgreſſion as Adam, by hiding my iniquity in my *boſom*. *Job.* 8. Any receptacle, cloſe or ſecret; as, the *boſom* of the earth; the *boſom* of the deep. 9. The tender affections; kindneſs; favour.—

Whoſe age has charms in it, whoſe title more,
To pluck the common *boſoms* on his ſide.
Shakeſpeare.

To whom the great Creator thus reply'd:
O Son, in whom my ſoul hath chief delight;
Son of my *boſom*, Son who art alone
My word, my wiſdom, and effectual might!
Paradiſe Loſt.

10. Inclination; deſire. Not uſed.—

If you can pace your wiſdom
In that good path that I could wiſh it go,
You ſhall have your *boſom* on this wretch.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) * BOSOM, in compoſition, implies intimacy; confidence; fondneſs †.—

No more that thane of Cawdor ſhall deceive
Our *boſom intereſt*; go, pronounce his death
Shakeſpear

This Antonia,
Being the *boſom-lover* † of my lord,
Muſt needs be like my lord. *Shakeſpear*

Thoſe domeſtick traitors, *boſom-thieves*
Whom cuſtom hath call'd wives; the readie helps
To betray the heady huſbands, rob the eaſy.
Ben Jonſo

—He ſent for his *boſom-friends*, † with whom h moſt confidently conſulted, and ſhewed the pap to them; the contents whereof he could not co ceive. *Clarendon.*—The fourth privilege of frien ſhip is that which is here ſpecified in the text, communication of ſecrets. A *boſom-ſecret*, and *boſom-friend*, are uſually put together. *South.*—She who was a *boſom-friend* of her royal miſtreſ he calls an inſolent woman, the worſt of her ſe *Addiſon.*

* *To* BOSOM. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To in cloſe in the boſom.—

Boſom up my counſel;
You'll find it wholeſome. *Shakeſpear*

I do not think my ſiſter ſo to ſeek,
Or ſo unprincipl'd in virtue's book,
And the ſweet peace that *boſoms* goodneſs ever
Milto

2. To conceal in privacy.—

The groves, the fountains, and the flow'rs
That open now their choiceſt *boſom'd* ſmells,
Reſerv'd for night, and kept for thee in ſtore.
Par. Loſt

Towers and battlements it ſees,
Boſom'd high in tufted trees,
Where perhaps ſome beauty lies,
The ſynoſure of neighbouring eyes.
Milton.

To happy convents, *boſom'd* deep in vines,
Where ſlumber abbots, purple as their wines.
Pope.

* BOSON. *n. ſ.* [corrupted from *boatſwain.*]

The barks upon the billows ride,
The maſter will not ſtay;
The merry *boſon* from his ſide
His whiſtle takes, to check and chide
The ling'ring lad's delay. *Dryden.*

BOSPHORICUM MARMOR, a name given by the ancients to a ſpecies of marble, of a yellowiſh white colour, with beautiful veins of a ſomewhat darker hue; called alſo, from its tranſparency, PHENGITES.

BOSPHORUS, or BOSPORUS, [from βοῦς, a bullock, and πόρος, paſſage,] in ancient geography, a long and narrow ſea, which it is ſuppoſed a bullock may ſwim over. In a more general ſenſe, it is a long narrow ſea running in between two lands, or ſeparating two continents, and by which two ſeas, or a gulph and a ſea, are made to communicate with each other: In which ſenſe it amounts to the ſame with an arm of the ſea, channel, or ſtrait; called by the Italians, *faro*; the Latins, *fretum*; and the French, *pas*, *manche*. The name is

††† BOSOM, *in theſe ſenſes, is very properly ſtiled by* Dr ASH, *an* adjective, *ſignifying* "*intimate, firm, faithful.*" *The* hyphen *is therefore quite unneceſſary, as it makes a* compound *where there ought to be none. The Engliſh language is of late rendered quite anomalous by the uſeleſs multitude of ſuch compounds.* See HYPHEN.

is chiefly confined to two ſtraits in the Mediterranean ſea, viz.

1. BOSPHORUS CIMMERIUS, or the SCYTHIAN BOSPHORUS, ſo named from its reſemblance to the Thracian; (N. 2.) now more commonly called the ſtraits of KAPHA, or KIDERLERI, from two cities ſtanding on it.

2. BOSPHORUS THRACIUS, the THRACIAN BOSPHORUS, now commonly called the STRAITS OF CONSTANTINOPLE, or the *Channel of the Black Sea*, the ſtrait through which the Black Sea pours its waters into the Propontis. It divides Europe from Aſia, and is about a mile broad, between Conſtantinople on the European ſide, and Scutari on the Aſiatic. Various reaſons have been aſſigned, why the name *Boſphorus* was firſt given to this ſtrait. Nymphius tell us, on the authority of Accarion, that the Phrygians, deſiring to paſs the Thracian ſtrait, built a veſſel, on whoſe prow was the figure of a bullock; and which was hence called *boſ*, and ſerved them for a ferry-boat. Dionyſius, Valerius Flaccus, Callimachus, Apollodorus, Marcellinus, &c. ſay that Iö, being tranſformed into a cow by Juno, paſſed this ſtrait ſwimming, which hence was called *boſphorus*.—Arrian tells us, that the Phrygians were enjoined by the oracle, to follow the rout which a bullock ſhould mark out to them; and that, upon ſtirring one up, it jumped into the ſea to avoid their purſuit, and ſwam over this ſtrait. Others ſay, that an ox, tormented by a gad-fly, threw itſelf in, and ſwam over: and others, that anciently the inhabitants of theſe coaſts, when they would paſs over, joined little boats together, and had them drawn over by bullocks, &c. Tournefort ſuppoſes the name to have ariſen from the ox market being held near this ſtrait.

(1.) BOSQUET, Francis, one of the moſt learned prelates of France in the 17th century, was born at Marbonne, and ſtudied at Toulouſe.—Before he took orders he had been intendant of Guienne and Languedoc, Attorney general of Normandy, and Counſellor of ſtate. In 1648, his friend John de Plantavit reſigned his biſhopric of Lodeve to him. In 1655, he was made Bp. of Montpellier, and continued ſo till his death, in the 63d year, A. D. 1676. His firſt publication was a tranſlation into Latin, of Pſellus's Poetical abridgment of the civil law, with Notes. His original works were, 1. A Hiſtory of the Gallican Church: 2. Hiſtory of the 8 popes who reſided at Avignon: from 1300, to 1394: 3. The Liberties of the Gallican Church: and 4. Notes on the Canon Law.

(2.) BOSQUET, George, advocate in the parliament of Toulouſe, under the bloody Charles IX. was author of ſeveral works; particularly a Latin treatiſe "on the Edict of Henry II. concerning marriages contracted by children of a good family, without the conſent of their parents;" printed at Toulouſe, in 8vo, 1358: and *Hugonarum Herreticorum Toloſæ conjuratorum proſligatio*, 8vo, 1563. This laſt work had the honour of being condemned to be burnt.

BOSQUETS, in gardening, [from *boſchetto*, Ital. a *little wood*,] groves or compartments in gardens formed by branches of trees diſpoſed either regularly in rows, or wildly and irregularly, according to the fancy of the owner. A boſquet is either a plot of ground incloſed with paliſades of horn-beam, the middle of it being filled with tall trees, as elm or the like, the tops of which make a tuft or plume; or it conſiſts of only high trees, as horſe-cheſnut, elm, &c. The ground ſhould be kept very ſmooth and rolled, or elſe covered with graſs, after the manner of green plots. In planting boſquets, care ſhould be taken to mix the trees which produce their leaves of different ſhapes, and various ſhades of green, and hoary or mealy leaves, ſo as to afford an agreeable proſpect. Boſquets are only proper for ſpacious gardens, and require a great expence to keep them up.

* BOSS. *n. ſ.* [*boſſe*, Fr.] 1. A ſtud; an ornament raiſed above the reſt of the work; a ſhining prominence.—What ſignifies beauty, ſtrength, youth, fortune, embroidered furniture, or gaudy *boſſes*? *L'Eſtrange*.—This ivory, intended for the *boſſes* of a bridle, was laid up for a prince, and a woman of Caria or Mæonia dyed it. *Pope*. 2. The part riſing in the midſt of any thing.—He runneth upon him, even on his neck, upon the thick *boſſes* of his bucklers. *Job* xv. 26. 3. A thick body of any kind.—A *boſs* made of wood, with an iron hook, to hang on the laths, or on a ladder, in which the labourer puts the mortar at the britches of the tiles. *Moxon*.—If a cloſe appulſe be made by the lips, then is framed M; if by the *boſs* of the tongue to the palate, near the threat, then K. *Holder*.

BOSSA. See BOSA, N. 2.

* BOSSAGE. *n. ſ.* [in architecture.] 1. Any ſtone that has a projecture, and is laid in a place in a building to be afterwards carved. 2. Ruſtic work, which conſiſts of ſtones, which ſeem to advance beyond the naked of a building, by reaſon of indentures or channels left in the joinings: theſe are chiefly in the corners of edifices, and called ruſtick quoins. *Builder's Dict.*

(1.) BOSSE, Abraham, an able engraver, born at Tours, well ſkilled in perſpective and architecture. He wrote two treatiſes, which are eſteemed; the one on the manner of deſigning, and the other upon engraving.

(2.) BOSSE, a conduit in the form of a tun-bellied figure. *Aſh*.

(3.) BOSSE, in ſculpture, the ſame with RELIEVO.

BOSSINEY, a town of Cornwall, on the coaſt, near K. Arthur's Caſtle, 3 m. N. W. of Camelford, 17 of Launceſton, and 333 from London. It has fairs Aug. 3, and Nov. 22, and ſends two members to parliament. Lon. 5. 0. W. Lat. 50. 40. N.

BOSSINGSALE, a village in Devonſhire, N. W. of Dartmouth.

BOSSINGTON, a village in Hampſhire, near the 3 Wallops.

BOSSORA. See BASSORA.

BOSSU, Rene le, born at Paris in 1631, was admitted a canon regular in the abbey of St Geneviève, in 1649; and, after a year's probation, took the habit. He taught literature with great ſucceſs in ſeveral religious houſes for 12 years. He then publiſhed a parallel betwixt the principles of

of Ariſtotle's natural philoſophy and thoſe of Des Cartes, with a view to reconcile them; which was but indifferently received. His next treatiſe was on epic poetry; which Boileau declared one of the beſt compoſitions on that ſubject in the French language, and which produced a great friendſhip between them. He died in 1680, and left a great number of MSS.

BOSSUET, James Benigne, biſhop of Meux, was born at Dijon, in 1727. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his preaching, and his zeal in endeavouring to bring over the Proteſtants of France to the Romiſh church; by his oppoſition to Quietiſm; and by his numerous writings in French and Latin, which have been collected, and printed at Paris in 17 vols 4to. He died at Paris, in 1704, aged 77.

BOSSUPT, a town of France, in one of the new departments, into which the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands are now divided. It is 8 m. S. of Louvain. Lon. 4. 30. E. Lat. 50. 52. N.

BOSSUS, Matthew, diſtinguiſhed by his virtue and learning, was born in 1427. In 1451, he commenced divine at Lateran, and afterwards taught divinity at Padua. His orations, ſermons, and letters, have been often printed. He alſo wrote an apology for Phalaris, and other works. He died at Padua, in 1502, aged 75.

BOST, a very ſtrong town of Perſia, and capital of Zableſtan. Lon. 64. 15. E. Lat. 31. 50. N.

BOSTALL, a village in Buckinghamſhire, N. of Bernwood Foreſt.

BOSTANCE, *n. ſ. obſ.* a boaſting. *Chauc.*

BOSTANGI BASCHI, or chief gardener, in the Turkiſh affairs, an officer who has the ſuperintendance of all the gardens, water-works, and houſes of pleaſure, with the workmen employed therein. This poſt is one of the moſt conſiderable in the Turkiſh court. He has the emperor's ear, and, on that account, is much courted by all who have buſineſs depending at the Port; he holds the rudder when he goes on the water; he is governor of all the villages on the channel of the Black Sea, and has the command of above 10,000 BOSTANGIS, in the ſeraglio, and other places about Conſtantinople.

BOSTANGIS are perſons employed in the garden of the ſeraglio, out of whoſe number are collected thoſe that row in the Grand Signior's brigantines, when he goes a fiſhing, or takes the air upon the canal. Thoſe who row on the left hand are only capable of mean employments in the gardens; but thoſe who row on the right may be promoted to the charge of BOSTANGI BASCHI.

BOSTOCK, or BOTESTOCK, a town in Cheſhire, N. W. of Middlewich.

(1.) BOSTON, a corporation town of Lincolnſhire, which ſends two members to parliament. It is commodiouſly ſeated on both ſides of the Witham, over which it has a high wooden bridge; and, being near the ſea, enjoys a good trade. It is 27 m. S. E. of Lincoln. It has fairs, May 4, and July 11, and from the 11th to the 20th of Dec. It has a ſpacious market place, and the largeſt pariſh church without croſs iſles in Europe. The ſteeple ſerves for a land-mark. It is 27 m. E. of Lincoln, and 115 N. E. of London. Lon. E. Lat 53. 5. N.

(2.) BOSTON, a village in Middleſex, W. of Little Ealing.

(3.) BOSTON, the metropolis of Maſſachuſetts and the moſt flouriſhing town of the Eaſtern State of N. America. It was founded in 1630, and ſituated in Suffolk county, in a peninſula of about 4 miles in circumference, at the head of Maſſachuſetts bay. The iſthmus which connects this peninſula to the main land is at the S. S. W. end of the town, which is 2 m. long, and 9 furlongs broad. It is not quite regularly built, but lies in the form of an amphitheatre on a riſing ground around the head of the bay, which gives it an agreeable appearance in ſailing up the harbour. It conſiſts of 79 ſtreets, moſt of them paved and enlightened with lamps; 38 lanes, and 21 alleys beſides ſeveral courts and ſquares. On theſe are erected about 2000 houſes, which are moſtly of wood, and cover about 900 acres of land. The public buildings are, a ſtate-houſe, a court-houſe, a work-houſe, a bridewell, a council chamber, treaſurer and ſecretary's office, and a powder magazine: beſides 6 public ſchools, and 17 churches viz. 9 for Congregationaliſts, 3 for Epiſcopalians 2 for Baptiſts, 1 for Quakers, 1 for Univerſaliſts and 1 for Roman Catholics. There are 3 banks the Maſſachuſetts, incorporated in 1784, and conſiſting of 800 ſhares at 500 dollars each; the National; and the Union bank, incorporated in 1-9 and conſiſting of 100,000 ſhares, at 8 dollars each. Several humane and literary ſocieties are alſo incorporated, for benevolent purpoſes. and promoting uſeful knowledge. On the W. ſide of the town, lies the Mall, a handſome public walk, ornamented with ſeveral rows of trees; and Beacon hill, on which an elegant monument is erected in commemoration of ſome of the moſt important events in the revolution. On the E. ſide lies the harbour, which, though large enough to contain 500 ſhips at anchor, has ſo narrow an entrance as hardly to admit two ſhips abreaſt. About 1 wharfs are erected along the harbour, in front of the town. One of theſe extends about 600 yards into the ſea; and on the N. ſide of it a large range of ſtorehouſes is built. A light-houſe is erected on a rock, on the N. ſide of the harbour, which contains about 40 ſmall iſlands, that produce corn, hay, and paſturage. No town in the United States has been more retarded in its progreſs than Boſton. In 1676, a fire conſumed 45 houſes, 1 church and ſeveral ſtorehouſes: In 1697, another fire deſtroyed 80 houſes, 70 warehouſes, and ſeveral ſhips. In 1727, it was much damaged by an earthquake. In 1747, the court-houſe and public records were burnt: In 1760, houſes and property to the amount of 444,000 dollars, were deſtroyed by fire, which alſo did much damage in 1761 and 176- During the ſiege of 1775, upwards of 400 houſes were deſtroyed, by the Britiſh troops: In 178- above 100 houſes were burnt; and, July 30, 179- 40 houſes, 7 rope works, and ſeveral ſtorehouſes were entirely conſumed, to the amount of 200,000 dollars. Notwithſtanding theſe misfortunes, ſeveral towns in America are increaſing more rapidly in commerce, population, and manufactures. Among the latter are rum, beer, cordage, ſail cloth, tallow, and ſpermaceti candles, cards, glaſs, and paper hangings; of which laſt 24,000 pieces are annual

annually made. There are 30 diſtilleries, 11 roperies, 8 ſugar-houſes, 2 breweries, and 1 glaſs-houſe, in Boſton; which carries on an extenſive commerce with all the principal commercial countries in Europe, as well as with China and the E. Indies. The exports in 1794, amounted to 2,781,703 dollars; and the arrivals from foreign ports alone were 464 veſſels. The population, in 1793, was 18,038. Boſton is governed by 7 ſelect men, a town clerk, treaſurer, and 12 overſeers, choſen annually along with 48 inferior officers. It is 253 m. from New York; 348 N. E. of Philadelphia; 450 of Baltimore; 626 from Richmond; 873 from Fayette ville; 1038 from Columbia, S. Carolina; 1168 from Auguſta in Georgia; and 1300 from Frankfort, Kentucky. Lon. 70. 33. W. Lat. 42. 25. N.

(4.) Boston, Thomas, a learned and pious divine, of the Church of Scotland, who flouriſhed about the end of the laſt and beginning of the preſent century. He wrote many books on divinity, which were long extremely popular, being, according to the ſtrict Calviniſtic principles of the Church of Scotland, perfectly orthodox. Among theſe, his illuſtration of the *Aſſembly's Catechiſm*, his Treatiſe *on the Covenant*, his *Human Nature in its four-fold State*, and his *Crook in the Lot*, have gone through a vaſt number of editions. It is aſtoniſhing, that no account of this eminent and popular divine is to be found in the Biographia Britannica, or any Encyclopædia hitherto publiſhed, that we have met with; although authors of much leſs eminence are carefully taken notice of in all of them.

(5.) Boston, Thomas, the ſon of the preceding, No. 4.) was alſo a popular clergyman of the church of Scotland, but left it, and joined the preſbytery of Relief, upon the depoſition of Mr Thomas Gilleſpie. He was likewiſe the author of ſeveral treatiſes on different ſubjects in divinity. He was miniſter of the pariſh of Oxnam, when he was invited to Jedburgh, in 1755, by a great majority of the inhabitants, who, having applied for a preſentation to him, and been diſappointed, built a large meeting houſe for him, upon the principle of Relief from patronage. He accepted of their call, and joining with Mr Gilleſpie, gave riſe to a ſect now very numerous in Scotland. Perhaps, before the concluſion of this work, we may be able to procure a particular account of the lives and writings of both theſe authors.

BOSTRYCHITES, [from *Βοστρυχὶς*, to fold the hair in braids,] in natural hiſtory, 1. a name given to a ſtone ſuppoſed to contain women's hair included in it: ſome have underſtood by it, thoſe pieces of cryſtal which have accidental foulneſſes in them, reſembling hair; others call by this name, thoſe German agates, which contain either the conferva or other capillary water-plants. The firſt of theſe very frequently have the confervæ of a great length, and variouſly undulated and turned about, ſo as very elegantly to repreſent a looſely flowing lock of hair. 2. A ſpecies of pyrites, whoſe irradiations were ſuppoſed to imitate hair.

* BOSVEL. *n. ſ.* A ſpecies of *crowfoot*.

BOSWELL, James, Eſq. of Auchinleck, the ſon of the Hon. Alexander Boſwell, late Lord Auchinleck, was born at Auchinleck, in 1740, and admitted a member of the Faculty of Advocates, Edin. in 1766. He was afterwards elected Chamberlain of Carliſle. He was a gentleman of an excellent diſpoſition; and of uncommon ſpirit as well as genius. His journey to Corſica, when a mere youth, to ſee the celebrated General Paoli, then in the zenith of his glory, and his intimacy and travels with the late learned Dr Johnſon are well known. He was author of 1. *An Account of Corſica*: 2. *The Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides with Samuel Johnſon, LL. D.* 3. *The Life of Dr Johnſon*: and ſeveral other works. He died at London, May 19th, 1795, aged 55.

Boswell's Green, St, a place in the pariſh of St Boſwells, where one of the largeſt fairs in Scotland is annually held on the 18th of July. From L.8000 to L.10,000 is eſtimated to be drawn at it, in the courſe of the day. The principal articles are linen cloth, ſheep, horſes, black cattle, hardwares, haberdaſheries, &c.

Boswell's, St, or Lessudden, a pariſh of Scotland, in Roxburghſhire, ſituated on the banks of the Tweed, within 10 m. of Kelſo, 5 of Melroſe, and 7 of Jedburgh; and extending about 3 m. in length and 2 in breadth. The ſoil is good, and has lately been much improved. About 500 bolls of wheat are raiſed annually on ground formerly deemed incapable of producing that grain; beſides oats, barley, peaſe, graſs, turnips, &c. Dalkeith and Peebles are the principal markets. Salmon is ſold ſo low as 2d. and 3d. per lb. The population, in 1793, by the rev. Mr Scade's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 500, and had increaſed 191 ſince 1755. There were then 102 horſes, and 279 black cattle in the pariſh.

BOSWORTH, a town of Leiceſterſhire, ſituated on a high hill, and memorable for the deciſive battle fought near it between Richard III. and the earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII. It has a market on Wed. and fairs May 8, and June 10. It is 13 m. N. E. of Leiceſter, and 106 N. N. W. of London. Lon. 1. 18. W. Lat. 52. 40. N.

BOT, *conj. obſ.* But. *Chauc.*

BOTA, in old records, 1. a boot, ſuch as the monks wore: 2. a butt of wine.

BOTABOTA, in natural hiſtory, a name given by ſome writers to that ſpecies of ſea-ſwallow, whoſe neſts are ſo famous for ſoups in China. See Birds nests, § 4.

BOTADON, a village in Cornwall, S. W. of Launceſton.

BOTAGIUM, in middle age writers, a fee paid for wine, ſold in butts.

BOTAL. See Botallus.

BOTALE foramen, in anatomy, an aperture in the heart of a foetus, whereby the blood circulates, without going into the lungs, or the left ventricle of the heart.

BOTALLECK, a village of Cornwall, on the Iriſh ſea, 10 m. W. of St Ives.

BOTALLUS, Leonard, phyſician to the duke of Alencon, and to Henry III. was born at Aſti in Piedmont. He introduced at Paris the practice of blood-letting, which was condemned by the faculty; though ſoon after his death it came into rather too general practice. He publiſhed ſeveral books on phyſic and ſurgery. The beſt edition of his works is that of Leyden in 8vo. 1660.

BOTANICALLY, *adv.* After the manner of botaniſts.

* BOTANICAL. } *adj.* [from βοτανη, an herb.]
* BOTANICK. } Relating to herbs; ſkilled in herbs.—Some *botanical* critick tells us, the poets have not rightly followed the traditions of antiquity, in metamorphoſing the ſiſters of Phaeton into poplars. *Addiſon.*

BOTANICS, *n. ſ.* A treatiſe on plants.

* BOTANIST. *n. ſ.* [from *botany.*] One ſkilled in plants; one who ſtudies the various ſpecies of plants.—The uliginous lacteous matter, taken notice of by that diligent *botaniſt*, was only a collection of corals. *Woodward.*—

Then ſpring the living herbs, beyond the power
Of *botaniſt* to number up their tribes. *Thomſon.*

* BOTANOLOGY. *n. ſ.* [βοτανολογια.] A diſcourſe upon plants. *Diſt.*

BOTANOMANCY, *n. ſ.* [from βοτανη, an herb, and μαντια, magic,] an ancient ſpecies of divination by means of plants; eſpecially ſage and fig leaves. The manner of performing it was this: the perſons who conſulted wrote the letters of their own names and their queſtions on leaves, which they expoſed to the wind; and as many of the letters as remained in their own places were taken up, and being joined together, contained an anſwer to the queſtion.

BOTANOPHILI, writers who have treated of plants, not as botaniſts, but in regard to different operations, as gardeners, phyſicians, &c.

BOTANOSOPHIST, *n. ſ.* one ſkilled in herbs.

BOTANY.

INTRODUCTION.

SECT. I. DEFINITION *and* UTILITY *of* BOTANY.

(1.) * BOTANY. *n. ſ.* [from βοτανη, an herb.] The ſcience of plants; that part of natural hiſtory which relates to vegetables.

(2.) BOTANY in the utmoſt extent of the word, ſignifies a knowledge of plants, and of the uſes to which they may be applied, in medicine, chemiſtry, or the arts in general. But as the medical virtues of plants fall properly under the province of the phyſician, their chemical properties under that of the chemiſt, &c. botany is commonly reſtricted to a bare knowledge of the different plants themſelves, and of the diſtinguiſhing marks whereby each individual ſpecies may be known from another.

(3.) This knowledge is indiſpenſably neceſſary for thoſe who propoſe to apply plants to any uſeful purpoſe. Thus let a phyſician be ever ſo well acquainted with the virtues of opium, or a chemiſt with the method of preparing it, yet if both be entirely ignorant of botany, and unable to diſtinguiſh the particular ſpecies of poppy which produces opium, from others of the ſame genus, their medicinal and chemical ſkill could be of little uſe.

(4.) The utility of this ſcience may be farther illuſtrated from the following conſiderations, reſpecting the uſe of vegetables, as food and medicine.

(5.) Many animals are endowed with an inſtinctive faculty of diſtinguiſhing with certainty whether the food preſented to them be ſalutary or noxious. Mankind have no ſuch inſtinct. They muſt have recourſe to experience and obſervation. But they are not ſufficient guides in every caſe. The traveller is often allured by the agreeableneſs of ſmell and taſte to eat poiſonous fruits. A general caution, not to eat any thing but what we know from experience to be ſalutary, will not anſwer in every emergency. A ſhip's company, in want of proviſions, may be thrown upon an uninhabited coaſt, or a deſart iſland. Totally ignorant of the nature of the plants they meet with, diſeaſes, or ſcarcity of animals, may make it abſolutely neceſſary to uſe vegetable food. The conſequence is dreadful: they muſt firſt eat before they can form any certain concluſion.

(6.) Such dangers are not merely imaginary. Before the vegetables that grow in America, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, &c. became familiar to our ſailors, many lives were loſt by trials of this kind: neither has all the information received from experience been ſufficient to prevent individuals from ſtill falling a prey to ignorance or raſhneſs.

(7.) If the whole ſcience of botany were as complete as ſome of its branches, very little ſkill in it would be ſufficient to guard us infallibly from committing ſuch fatal miſtakes. There are certain orders and claſſes which are called *natural*, (See Part II.) becauſe every genus and ſpecies comprehended under them are not only diſtinguiſhed by the ſame characteriſtic marks, but likewiſe poſſeſs the ſame qualities, though not in an equal degree. For example:

(8.) Show a botaniſt the flower of a plant whoſe calyx is a double valved glume, with three ſtamina, two piſtils, and one naked ſeed; he can pronounce with abſolute certainty, that the plant from which the flower was taken, bears ſeeds of a farinaceous quality, and that they may be ſafely uſed as food. In like manner, ſhow him a flower with 12 or more ſtamina all inſerted into the internal ſide of the calyx, though it belonged to a plant growing in Japan, he can pronounce without heſitation, that the fruit of it may be eat with ſafety. On the other hand, ſhow him a plant whoſe flower has 5 ſtamina, one piſtil, one petal, and whoſe fruit is of the berry kind, he will tell you to abſtain from it, becauſe it is poiſonous. Facts of this kind render botany a moſt intereſting ſcience.

(9.) With reſpect to medicine, it is found by experience, that plants, which are diſtinguiſhed by the ſame characters in the flower and fruit, have the ſame qualities, though not always in an equal degree as to ſtrength; ſo that, upon inſpecting the flower and fruit, a botaniſt can determine the

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BOTANOMANCY, *n. ſ.* [from βοτανη, ... and μαντεια, magic.] an ancient ſpecies of ... tion by means of plants; eſpecially ſuch ... leaves. The manner of performing ... the perſons who conſulted wrote the ... which they expoſed to the wind; and ... the letters as remained in their own ... taken up, and being joined together, ... an anſwer to the queſtion.

BOTANOPHILI, writers who love ... plants, not as botaniſts, but in regard to ... operations, as gardeners, phyſicians, &c.

BOTANOSOPHIST, *n. ſ.* one ſkilled ...

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diſeaſes, or ſcarcity of animals, may make ... ſolutely neceſſary to uſe vegetable food. ... conſequence is dreadful: they muſt firſt ... they can form any certain concluſion.

(6.) Such dangers are not merely imagi... Before the vegetables that grow in Amer... Eaſt and Weſt Indies, &c. became familiar ... ſailors, many lives were loſt by trials of the ... neither has all the information received from ... rience been ſufficient to prevent individuals ... ſtill falling a prey to ignorance or raſhneſs.

(7.) If the whole ſcience of botany were ... plete as ſome of its branches, very little ... would be ſufficient to guard us againſt ... committing ſuch fatal miſtakes. There ... tain orders and claſſes which are called ... (See Part II.) becauſe every genus ... comprehended under them are not only ... ed by the ſame characteriſtic marks, but ... poſſeſs the ſame qualities, though not in ... degree. For example:

(8.) Show a botaniſt the flower of a plant ... calyx is a double valved glume, with three ... na, two piſtils, and one naked ſeed; he ... nounce with abſolute certainty, that the ... from which the flower was taken, bears ... farinaceous quality, and that they may be ... uſed as food. In like manner, ſhow him ... with 12 or more ſtamina all inſerted into ... ternal ſide of the calyx, though it belong ... plant growing in Japan, he can pronounce ... out heſitation, that the fruit of it may be ... ſafety. On the other hand, ſhow him ... whole flower has 5 ſtamina, one piſtil, and ... and whoſe fruit is of the berry kind, he ... you to abſtain from it, becauſe it is poiſ... Facts of this kind render botany a moſt ... ſcience.

(9.) With reſpect to medicine, it is ... (9.) that plants, which are diſtinguiſhed ... perience, by characters in the flower and ... poſſible, though not always ...

the effects that will reſult when taken into the ſtomach.

(10.) To determine therefore the medical virtues of all the plants belonging to a natural claſs, the phyſician has nothing to do but to aſcertain by a ſet of clear and unqueſtionable experiments, the virtues of any one of them. This greatly ſhortens the labour of inveſtigation. Suppoſing the number of known ſpecies to be 20,000; by aſcertaining the virtues of one genus, at a medium, you determine the number of 12 ſpecies. But by aſcertaining the virtues of one genus belonging to a natural order, the virtues of perhaps 300 or 400 ſpecies are aſcertained.

SECT. II. HISTORY *of* BOTANY.

(11.) It is highly probable, that ſome degree of botanical knowledge has exiſted in every age of the world. The firſt botanical writings, of which we have any account, are thoſe of SOLOMON, who wrote a treatiſe upon this ſubject; which is totally loſt. Among the Greeks, Anaxagoras, Pythagoras, and other ancient philoſophers, wrote treatiſes on plants; but their works are alſo loſt; and from the quotations that yet remain, in the works of Theophraſtus, Dioſcorides, and Pliny, we learn, that thoſe firſt botanical writings could convey but little uſeful knowledge.

(12.) The hiſtorical æra of botany commences with THEOPHRASTUS the diſciple of Ariſtotle, who flouriſhed about A. A. C. 300; being about 100 years poſterior to Hippocrates. His work is intitled *The Hiſtory of Plants*, and treats of their origin, propagation, anatomy, and conſtruction; of vegetation, and vegetable life. It conſiſted originally of ten books, but only 9 are now extant. In theſe, vegetables are diſtributed into 7 claſſes, which reſpect the generation of plants; their place of growth; their ſize, as trees, and ſhrubs; their uſe as pot herbs and eſculent grains; and their laſtreſidence, or the liquor, that flows from plants when cut. In his work, about 500 different plants are deſcribed.

(13.) DIOSCORIDES, a Grecian who flouriſhed near 300 years after Theophraſtus, is the next botaniſt of any note. He deſcribed about 600 plants, and arranged them, for their uſes medicinal and domeſtic, into 4 claſſes; viz. aromatic, alimentary, medicinal, and vinous plants.

(14.) Antonius Muſa, Cato, Varro, Virgil, and Columella, were nearly cotemporary with Dioſcorides. The firſt was author of a treatiſe ſtill extant on the plant *betony*; the others are celebrated for their uſeful tracts on agriculture and rural œconomy.

(15.) PLINY, the Elder, in his *Hiſtory of the World*, has a botanical part in 15 books; wherein, beſides the plants of Theophraſtus and Dioſcorides, he has deſcribed ſeveral new ſpecies. He takes ſcarce any mode of arrangement, except the ancient diſtinction into trees, ſhrubs and herbs. His work, however, extends not only to botanical diſtinctions, but to gardening, agriculture, and whatever is connected with the knowledge of plants. He deſcribes above 1000 different ſpecies; but from the want of a proper ſyſtematic arrangement, it is often difficult, and perhaps impoſſible, to determine what plants he and the other ancient botaniſts deſcribe. This want of preciſion in arranging their plants was the reaſon why the botany of the ancients was always very limited, and after the time of Pliny declined ſo rapidly.

(16.) On the deſtruction of the weſtern empire by the Goths and other barbarous nations, it is not to be thought that botany could ſurvive any more than the other ſciences. It was not till the cloſe of the 8th century, that the ancient botany began again to appear in Arabia. SERAPION, well known in medicine, ſtands firſt in the Arabian catalogue of botaniſts; to him ſucceeded RHAZIS, AVICENNA, AVERRHOES, ACHUARIUS, &c. PLATO APULEIUS, or *Apuleyus*, of whoſe *Herbarium* very old M. S. copies are preſerved in ſome curious libraries, is ſuppoſed to have lived near this period. The works of moſt of theſe botaniſts, however, were only tranſlations and compilations from the Greek writers; ſo that, for want of a proper ſyſtematic arrangement, the ſcience ſunk a ſecond time into total oblivion.

(17.) For near 400 years after Abenguefit, an Arabian phyſician who flouriſhed in the end of the 12th century, ſcarce any attempts were made in the botanical way. Some obſcure writers on botany, indeed appeared in ſeveral parts of Europe; as Arnoldus de Villa Nova; Platearius; Mattheus Sylvaticus; and Bartholomew Glanvil, an Engliſhman; but they were ſo totally deſtitute of method, that their works remain one great chaos, from whence it is impoſſible to extract any thing intelligible.

(18.) In the beginning of the 16th century, the botany of the ancients was reſtored a ſecond time. The Greek writings were tranſlated into Latin, the common language of Europe. Gaza, a Greek refugee at Rome, made elegant tranſlations of Ariſtotle and Theophraſtus, which Scaliger and Stapel afterwards commented upon. Dioſcorides was alſo tranſlated and commented on by Hermolaus Barbarus, Fuchſius, Ruellius Cordus, Geſner, and Matthiolus. The moſt diſtinguiſhed commentaries on Pliny are thoſe of Daleſchamp in 1604, Salmaſius in 1689, Harduin and Guilandinus. Meurſius and Urſinus have written commentaries upon Cato; Campegius and Monardes upon Meſue the Arabian, and Lonicer upon Avicenna. This laſt hath been tranſlated into Latin by Alpagus, Coſtæus, and Plempius; and into Hebrew, by Amaltheus.

(19.) The firſt modern, who gave a methodical arrangement of plants, was Hieronymus Bock, or Bouc, a German generally known by the name of *Tragus*. In 1532, he publiſhed a Hiſtory of Plants, in which he deſcribes 800 ſpecies; and theſe he divides into 3 claſſes, founded on the qualities of vegetables, their figure, habit, and ſize. The ſame method of arrangement was followed by Lonicer, Dodonæus, L'Obel, Cluſius, Brunſelſius, Monardes, Cordus, and ſome other botaniſts of this period. It was not till 1560, that CONRAD GESNER firſt propoſed to the world an arrangement of vegetables from the parts of the flower and fruit. He did not eſtabliſh any plan founded upon this principle; but, having ſuggeſted the idea, left the application to others.

(20.) In 1582, Dr ANDREW CÆSALPINUS, phy-

ſician at Piſa, and afterwards profeſſor of botany at Padua, availing himſelf of the ingenuity of his predeceſſor, propoſed a method of arrangement which has the fruit for its baſis; and thus gave riſe to SYSTEMATIC BOTANY, the 2d grand æra of that ſcience. Even this improved method of Cæſalpinus was not without very great inconveniences. But as it was greatly ſuperior to every thing that had appeared before, it might have been expected that the learned would have immediately adopted it, and that all the former equivocal and inſufficient characters would have been laid aſide. The fact, however, was otherwiſe. Cæſalpinus's method of arrangement died with him; and it was not till near a century after, that Dr ROBERT MORISON of Aberdeen, attaching himſelf to the principles of Gefner and Cæſalpinus, re-eſtabliſhed ſcientific arrangement upon a ſolid foundation; ſo that, being only the reſtorer of ſyſtem, he has been generally celebrated as its founder.

(21.) In the long interval between Cæſalpinus and Moriſon flouriſhed ſome eminent botaniſts. The moſt noted are, Daleſchamp, author of *A general Hiſtory of Plants*; Theodore, ſurnamed *Tabemæmontanus*, and Thalius, two German writers; Porta, an Italian, famous for an arrangement of plants from their relations to the ſtars, to men, and other animals; Proſper Alpinus, author of a Catalogue of the plants of Egypt; Fabius Columna, inventor of many of the botanical terms now uſed; the two Bauhins; Gerard, and Parkinſon; Zaluzianſki, a Pole, author of an arrangement from the qualities and habit of plants; Marcgrave and Piſo, celebrated for their *Natural Hiſtory of Brazil*; Hernandez, equally celebrated for his *Hiſtory of Mexico*; Paſſæus, or Du Pas, author of an arrangement of plants from the time of flowering, of all characters the moſt uncertain and inſufficient; Johnſton; Bontius, a Dutchman, author of a *Natural Hiſtory of the Eaſt Indies*; Aldrovandus, the celebrated naturaliſt; and Rheede, governor of Malabar, and author of the well known *Hortus Malabaricus*.

(22.) MORISON's method has the fruit for its baſis, as well as that of Cæſalpinus; to which, however, it is greatly inferior both in the plan and execution. Of all methods it is indeed the moſt difficult in practice; and has therefore not been adopted by any, except Bobart, who, in 1699, completed Moriſon's Univerſal Hiſtory of Plants, and an anonymous author whoſe work appeared in 1720.

(23.) Imperfect, however, as Moriſon's method was, it furniſhed many uſeful hints, which ſucceeding botaniſts have improved. Ray and Tournefort owe him much, and are not aſhamed to own the obligation. The ſame has been done even by LINNÆUS; who has eſtabliſhed the ſcience of botany on the moſt ſolid foundation, by introducing a method of arrangement, if not abſolutely perfect, at leaſt as nearly approaching to perfection as can be expected; and therefore it has been deſervedly followed, in preference to every other, by almoſt all botaniſts, ſince its firſt publication.

(24.) To give a particular account, therefore, of all the different botanical ſyſtems, with the advantages and diſadvantages of each, now that they are exploded, would be to little purpoſe. Yet it may not be improper to give a brief view of the moſt celebrated ſyſtems, which have been invented within theſe two centuries.

SECT. III. *Of the moſt celebrated* BOTANICAL SYSTEMS, *from the time of* CÆSALPINUS *to that of* LINNÆUS.

(25.) CÆSALPINUS ſets out with an ancient diſtinction of vegetables from their duration, into trees and herbs. With the former he combines ſhrubs; with the latter, under ſhrubs; and diſtributes his plants into the 15 following claſſes. 1. Trees with the germ (radicle or principle of life in the ſeed) on the point of the ſeed. 2. Trees with the germ on the baſe of the ſeed. 3. Herbs having one ſeed only. 4. Herbs having two ſeeds. 5. Herbs having four ſeeds. 6. Herbs having many ſeeds. 7. Herbs having one grain or kernel. 8. Herbs having one capſule. 9. Herbs having two capſules. 10. Herbs having fibrous roots. 11. Herbs having bulbous roots. 12. Herbs having ſuccory or endive-like flowers. 13. Herbs having common flowers. 14. Herbs having ſeveral follicles or ſeed bags. 15. Herbs having neither flower nor ſeed. The inconveniences of this method will appear upon attempting to refer any common plant to one of theſe 15 claſſes. His ſections, or orders, are 47, and depend upon a variety of circumſtances: viz. the diſpoſition, ſituation, and figure of the flowers; the nature of the ſeed veſſel; the ſituation of the radicle in the ſeed; the number of ſeminal leaves; the diſpoſition of the leaves, the colour of the flowers; and the lacteſcence.

(26.) The chief object MORISON had in view was to inveſtigate the order of nature, not to form an eaſy method of arrangement. Hence his ſyſtem is void of uniformity, and clogged with a multiplicity of characters; his claſſes are frequently not ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed, and the key of arrangement ſeems totally loſt. He ſets out with a diviſion of plants, from their conſiſtence, into ligneous and herbaceous. He founds his ſyſtem on the fruit, the bloſſoms, and the habit of the plants. His claſſes are, 1. Trees. 2. Shrubs. 3. Under ſhrubs. 4. Herbs climbing: 5. Leguminous or papilionaceous: 6. Podded: 7. Tricapſular: 8. with 4 or 5 capſules: 9. Corymbiferous: 10. Having a milky juice, or downy tops: 11. Culmiferous: 12. Umbelliferous: 13. Having 3 kernels: 14. Having helmet-ſhaped flowers: 15. Having many capſules: 16. Berry-bearing: 17. Capillary: 18. Anomalous. Of the claſſes, the 4th and 8th poſſeſs no genuine diſtinctive character; nor are the 9th and 10th ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed; the 15th is not ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed from the 8th, nor the 16th from the 4th. His ſecondary diviſions are 108, and ariſe from the figure and ſubſtance of the fruit; the number of ſeeds, leaves, and petals; the figure of the root; the direction of the ſtem; the colour of the flowers; the place of growth; and, in one claſs, from the medicinal virtues of ſome plants that compoſe it.

(27.) Mr RAY propoſed his ſyſtem to the world, in 1682, two years are the publication of Moriſon's. It conſiſted originally of 25 claſſes: but he carefully corrected it at different times; ſo that the plan

plan of arrangement which now bears his name, and was first published in 1700, is entirely different from what had appeared in 1682. In consists of 33 classes. Their distinguishing marks are taken from the habit of the plants; their degree of perfection; their place of growth; the number of seed-lobes, pericarpia, capsules, and seeds; the situation and disposition of the flowers, flower cup, and leaves; the presence of the buds, flower-cup, and petals; the substance of the leaves and fruit; and the difficulty of classing certain plants. They are, 1. Sea plants. 2. Fungi. 3. Mosses. 4. Capillary plants. 5. *Plants* without petals: 6. With compound flowers, semiflosculous: 7. With compound flowers radiated: 8. With compound flowers flosculous: 9. With one seed: 10. Umbellated: 11. Star-shaped: 12. Rough leafed: 13. Verticillate: 14. With many seeds. 15. *Herbs* apple-bearing: 16. Berry-bearing: 17. With many pods: 18. Monopetalous: 19. With 2 and 3 petals: 20. With great and small, or long and short, pods. 21. Leguminous plants: 22. Pentapetalous. 23. Bulbs, and bulbous-like plants: 24. Stamineous: 25. Anomalous. 26. Palms. 27. *Trees* without petals: 28. With an umbilicated fruit: 29. With fruit not umbilicated: 30. With a dry fruit: 31. With podded fruit: 32. Anomalous.

(28.) RAY's distinction into herbs and trees is a different, but not more certain, principle, than that of Cæsalpinus and Morison. The former, in making this distinction, had an eye to the duration of the stem; the latter, to its consistence. Ray called in the buds as an auxiliary; and denominates trees, "all such plants as bear buds;" herbs, "such as bear none." But against this, there lies an unanswerable objection; viz. that though all herbaceous plants rise without buds, all trees are not furnished with them; many of the largest trees in warm countries, and some shrubby plants in every country, being totally destitute of them. It seems to have been Ray's great object, to collect as many natural classes as possible; and these being separately investigated, a multiplicity of characters was required to connect them: and hence the intricacy which must always take place, where the classes give rise to the connecting characters, and not the characters to the classes. The characters of the orders, in Ray's method, are no less multifarous than those of the classes. They respect the place of growth of plants; their qualities; the figure of the stem; the number, situation, substance, and division, of the leaves; the situation and disposition of the flowers and calyx; the number and regularity of the petals; with the number and figure of the fruit.

(29.) In his improved method, Ray has adopted Tournefort's character of the genera, wherever his plan would permit. His *General History of Plants* contains 18,655 species and varieties. The 3d volume, published in 1704, contains the plants discovered by Tournefort in the Levant, and by Camelli at Luzon. Ray's method was followed by Sir Hans Sloane, in his *Natural History of Jamaica*; by Petiver, in his *British Herbal*; by Dillenius, in his *Synopsis of British plants*; and by Martin, in his *Catalogue of plants that grow near Cambridge*.

(30.) To Ray's original method succeeded that of Christopher Knaut, a German; which acknowledges the same principle. In his enumeration of the plants that grow round Hall in Saxony, published in 1687, he divides vegetables into 17 classes, and 62 subdivisions.

(31.) In 1696, a new method proposed by Dr HERMAN, professor of botany at Leyden, was published by Zumbac, who arranged according to it the plants contained in the public gardens at Leyden. Rudbeckius jun. in a dissertation on the fundamental knowledge of plants, adopted Herman's method with a few variations. The classes in Dr Herman's system are 25, and the orders 82.

(32.) To Dr Herman's method succeeded that of Dr BOERHAAVE, which is that of Herman, blended with a part of those of Tournefort and Ray; and contains the following classes. 1. Sea plants. 2. Imperfect land plants. 3. Capillary plants: 4. Many naked seeds: 5. Four naked seeds, and verticillated: 6. Four naked seeds, and rough leaves: 7. Four naked seeds, and 4 petals: 8. One seed vessel: 9. Two seed vessels: 10. Three seed-vessels: 11. Four seed-vessels: 12. Five seed-vessels: 13. Many seed vessels: 14. Two naked seeds, and umbelliferous: 15. Two naked seeds, and star-shaped: 16. One naked seed, and a simple flower: 17. One naked seed, and compound flowers, semiflosculous: 18. Ditto radiated: 19. Ditto corymbiferous: 20. Ditto flosculous. 21. Berry-bearing herbs: 22. Apple-bearing: 23. Without petals: 24. With petals, and one cotyledon: 25. One cotyledon, without petals. 26. Trees having one cotyledon. 27. Many podded. 28. Podded 29. Tetrapetalous and cruciform. 30. Leguminous. 31. Having no petals. 32. Bearing catkins. 33. Monopetalous flowers. 34. Rosaceous flowers.

(33.) Dr BOERHAAVE's 34 classes are subdivided into 104 sections, which have for their characters, the figure of the leaves, stem, calyx, petals, and seeds; the number of petals, seeds, and capsules; the substance of the leaves; the situation of the flowers, and their difference in point of sex. By this method, Dr Boerhaave arranged near 6000 plants, the produce of the botanical garden at Leyden, which he carefully superintended for near 20 years, and left to his successor, Dr Adrian Royen, in a much more flourishing state than he himself had received it. His catalogue of the Leyden plants was published in 8vo, in 1710; and with great additions, in 4to, in 1720. This last edition contains descriptions of 5650 plants; of which upwards of two thirds had been introduced into the garden by Boerhaave. His characters are derived from the habit of plants combined with all the parts of fructification; so that he was the first who employed the calyx, stamina, and style, in determining the genus. He established about 17 new genera; among others, the very splendid family of the protea or silver tree, which, although partly described by Morison, had remained generally unknown. His method was adopted by Emiting, a German, in a treatise intitled *The first principles of Botany*, published in 8vo at Wolfenbuttle, in 1748.

(34.) All botanists had hitherto been more intent upon investigating the order of nature, than facilita-

facilitating the arrangement of plants. Their methods were therefore very intricate and perplexed. In 1690, however, Auguſtus Quirinus Rivinus, profeſſor of botany at Leipſic, convinced of the inſufficiency of characteriſtic marks drawn only from the fruit, attached himſelf to the flower, which, he was ſenſible, would furniſh characters no leſs numerous, permanent, and conſpicuous, than thoſe drawn from the fruit. The calyx, petals, ſtamina, and ſtyle, are ſufficiently diverſified in point of number, figure, proportion, and ſituation, to ſerve as the baſis of a mode of arrangement; yet all are not equally proper for this purpoſe. Rivinus made uſe of the petals as the largeſt and moſt beautiful part, and that from which the flower itſelf is commonly characterized.

(35.) RIVINUS's method conſiſts of 18 claſſes, which have for their baſis the perfection and diſpoſition of the flowers, and regularity and number of the petals: viz. 1. *Regular* monopetalous: 2. Dipetalous: 3. Tripetalous: 4. Tetrapetalous: 5. Pentapetalous: 6. Hexapetalous: 7. Polypetalous. 8. *Irregular* monopetalous: 9. Dipetalous: 10. Tripetalous: 11. Tetrapetalous: 12. Pentapetalous: 13. Hexapetalous: 14. Polypetalous. 15. *Compound flowers* of regular florets: 17. Of irregular florets only. 18. Incomplete, or imperfect plants.

(36.) Having ſet out with the deſign of imparting facility to botany, Rivinus judged very properly, in diveſting his method of all extraneous matter, and rendering it as ſimple and uniform, as the nature of the ſcience would admit. The diſtinction into herbs and trees had been adopted by every writer on plants ſince the time of Ariſtotle; and maintained a kind of importance from its antiquity, to which it was by no means intitled. Rivinus was the firſt who, in this matter, dared to think for himſelf. Senſible of the inconveniences of employing it as a primary diviſion, he reſolved to get rid of a diſtinction, that is often uncertain, always deſtructive to uniformity, and in its nature repugnant to the ſpirit of ſyſtem, becauſe totally unconnected with the parts of fructification. In the uniformity of its orders, which are 91 in number, and are founded on the fruit, Rivinus's method equals, perhaps exceeds, all that went before or ſucceeded it. Only 3 claſſes of his method were publiſhed by Rivinus himſelf. Theſe are the 11th, 14th, and 15th, which were offered to the public at different times, illuſtrated with very ſplendid figures. The method was completed and publiſhed entire by HEUCHER, in a work intitled *Hortus Wittenbergenſis*, printed in 4to at Wittemberg, in 1711.

(37.) Several German authors have followed Rivinus's method, either wholly or in part: viz. Koenig, in a work on vegetables, publiſhed at Baſil in 1696; Welſch, in his *Baſis Botanica*, Leipſic, 8vo, 1697; Gemeinhart, in a catalogue of plants, 1725: Kramer, in his *Tentamen Botanicum*, Dreſden, 1728, and Vienna, 1744; Hecker in a diſſertation on botany, publiſhed at Hall in Saxony, in 1734; and Hebenſtreit, an ingenious botaniſt, who, in a treatiſe on plants, publiſhed at Leipſic, in 1731, eſtabliſhed generic characters, which had hitherto been wanting in Rivinus's method. And Bernard Ruppius, Chriſtopher Ludwig, and Chriſtian Knaut, have alſo attempted to improve upon Rivinus's method.

(38.) RUPPIUS, in his *Flora Jenenſis*, publiſhed at Francfort in 1718, has arranged the 1200 plants there deſcribed by a method partly Rivinus's and partly his own. It conſiſts of 17 claſſes, and ſets out with the ſame diviſions and ſubdiviſions as that of Rivinus; with this difference, that whereas in Rivinus's method all perfect flowers are diſtributed into ſimple and compound, in Ruppius's the diviſion of regular and irregular flowers precedes that juſt mentioned, and ſimple and compound flowers are made ſubdiviſions of the regular flowers only.

(39.) LUDWIG's method, which was publiſhed in 1737, and conſiſts of 20 claſſes, differs but little from that of Rivinus. The author accompanied Hebenſtreit in his expedition into Africa and ſeems to have made plants his favourite ſtudy. His improvement, however, on Rivinus's plan conſiſts chiefly in having enriched it with many genera collected from the works of Tournefort, Ray, Boerhaave, Dillenius, and other eminent botaniſts, whoſe generic characters he has alſo adopted. His plan of arrangement has been followed by M. Wedel, in a botanical eſſay publiſhed in 1747; and by M. Boehmer, in his catalogue of the plants which grow in the garden of Leipſic in 1750.

(40.) CHRISTIAN KNAUT's method is much more properly his own, and departs in a much greater degree from that of Rivinus than either of the two former. The regularity and number of the petals furniſhed the claſſical diviſions in Rivinus's method; in that of Knaut, number takes place of regularity; ſo that it is very properly termed by Linnæus, "The ſyſtem of Rivinus inverted." This method was publiſhed in 1716, and ſets out with a diviſion into flowers which have one petal, and ſuch as have more than one. It conſiſts of 27 claſſes, and 121 ſections. His diviſions are ſingular, and his definitions whimſical. Every kind of fruit, whether pulpy or membranaceous, he terms a *capſule*. This term he extends alſo to *naked ſeeds*, the exiſtence of which Knaut abſolutely denies. In numbering the cells or internal diviſions of the pulpy fruits, he had adopted a method equally ſingular. Some fruits of the apple kind incloſe a capſule that is divided into 5 membranaceous cells. It might then be expected to find ſuch fruits arranged with compound capſules of 5 cells; but, inſtead of this, he whimſically combines in their arrangement the idea both of a ſimple and compound capſule. The pulpy part is undivided; in other words, it is a ſimple capſule furniſhed with one cell; the cells compound capſule incloſed contains 5 cells, which added to that of the pulp makes the number ſix; and thus theſe kinds of fruit are arranged with thoſe having capſules of ſix cells! This method of calculation is not the only ſingularity for which Knaut is remarkable. The eſſence of the flower is made by Ray, Tournefort, Rivinus, and many other botaniſts, to conſiſt in the ſtamina and ſtyle. This poſition Knaut abſolutely denies; and has eſtabliſhed for principles, 1. That there can be no flowers without petals; and, 2. That the regularity or irregularity of the flower can never

pend on the ſtamina and ſtyle, which are only occaſionally preſent, and nowiſe eſſential to its exiſtence; both of which are known to be falſe by every botaniſt.

(41.) No leading method in botany has appeared ſince the time of Rivinus, except thoſe of Tournefort and Linnæus. Tournefort ſets out with rejecting the diſtinction of plants into herbs and trees, which had been exploded by Rivinus. His ſyſtem is founded on the regularity and figure of the petals, together with the two-fold ſituation of the receptacle of the flowers; his orders, on the pericarpium or calyx. The claſſes are, 1. *Herbs with ſimple flowers* monopetalous, and bell-ſhaped: 2. monopetalous, tunnel and wheel-ſhaped: 3. monopetalous, labiated: 4. monopetalous, anomalous: 5. monopetalous, cruciform: 6. polypetalous and roſaceous: 7. polypetalous, umbellated: 8. polypetalous, caryophyllaceous, clove-form: 9. polypetalous, liliaceous: 10. polypetalous, and papilionaceous: 11. polypetalous, anomalous. 12. *Compound flowers*, floſculous: 13. ſemifloſculous: 14. radiated. 15. Apetalous. 16. Without flowers, but bearing ſeed. 17. No flower nor ſeed, in the vulgar eſtimation. 18. *Trees* with no petals, but bare ſtamina: 19. with no petals, bearing catkins: 20. monopetalous: 21. roſaceous: 22. papilionaceous. His ſections are 122, and are founded principally upon the fruit.

(42.) TOURNEFORT has had a vaſt number of followers, among whom the moſt conſiderable was W. Sherard, who, in 1689, publiſhed the firſt ſketch of Tournefort's method, under the title of *Schola Botanices*. Five years after, the *Elementa Botanica*, was publiſhed by Tournefort himſelf. Father Plumier publiſhed, in 1703, at Paris, a deſcription of American plants, which he has arranged according to Tournefort's ſyſtem. In this work he accurately characterized 96 new genera. Fabius, an Italian, has deſcribed in Latin verſe all Tournefort's genera, in his *Proſopopœiæ Botanicæ*, publiſhed at Florence, 1705. Several celebrated French academicians, particularly Marchant, Dodart, Niſſole, Juſſieu, and Vaillant, have alſo occaſionally paid their acknowledgements to this author, from 1700 to 1740.

(43.) The other authors of note who have followed Tournefort's method, are, M. Petit, an ingenious French botaniſt; Johren, a German, author of a treatiſe publiſhed at Colberg in 1710, intitled *Vade mecum Botanicum, ſeu Odegus Botanicus*: Feuille in his deſcription of the plants of Chili and Peru, Paris, 4to. 1714: Chriſtopher Vatrin, a German, author of a book entitled *Tournefortius Contractus*; Francfort, fol 1715: Ripa, an Italian, in his *Hiſtoriæ Univerſalis Plantarum Cognoſcendi Propoſitum*; Padua, 1718: Michael Valentin, a German in his *Viridarium Reformatum*; fol. Francfort, 1719: the celebrated Dillenius, profeſſor of botany at Oxford, and author of ſeveral much eſteemed publications on botany, particularly the *Hortus Eltbamenſis*, and Hiſtory of Moſſes, in his *Flora Giſſenſis*; Francfort, 1719: Pontedera, an Italian, author of the delineation of a method which combines thoſe of Tournefort and Rivinus, publiſhed at Padua, in his *Botanical Diſſertations*, in 1720: Monti, an Italian, in his *Indices Plantarum Variæ*: Bologna, 1724: Lindem, a German, in his *Tournefortius Alſaticus*, 1728: Sig. Micheli, author of ſeveral curious diſcoveries reſpecting moſſes and muſhrooms, in his *Nova Genera Plantarum*; fol. Florence, 1729: Elvebemes, a Swede, in a work publiſhed in the Swediſh language; Upſal, 1730: Fabricius, a German, in his *Primitiæ Floræ Butiſbacenſis, ſeu ſex Decades Plantarum Rariorum*; 1743: Sabbati, an Italian, in his catalogue of the plants that grow near Rome; 1745: and the ingenious Dr Alſton, late profeſſor of botany at Edinburgh, in his *Tyrocinium Botanicum*; Edinburgh, 1753.

(44.) Among all theſe authors, Plumier and Pontedera alone ventured to quit Tournefort's tract. The former relinquiſhed the diſtinction into herbs and trees; but the latter attempted greater variations; and publiſhed a method, conſiſting of 26 claſſes, formed chiefly on the forms of the flowers and buds.

(45.) Other two methods have been invented, founded upon the calyx: The one by Peter Magnol, profeſſor of botany at Montpelier, publiſhed in 1720, 5 years after the author's death: The other by Linnæus, publiſhed in his *Claſſes Plantarum*, in 1738, 3 years after the publication of the ſexual ſyſtem. Magnol diſtinguiſhes two kinds of calyx; one external, which is the flower cup that invelopes and ſuſtains the flower; the other internal, which is the ſeed veſſel or fruit. According to this idea, all plants are furniſhed with either the external calyx only, or with both. His claſſes are, 1. *Herbs with the calyx external, including a flower* unknown: 2. *a flower* ſtaminous: 3. monopetalous: 4. polypetalous: 5. compound. 6. *Calyx external, ſupporting a flower* monopetalous: 7. polypetalous. 8. Calyx internal only. 9. *Calyx external and internal, flower* monopetalous: 10. with 2 and 3 petals: 11. tetrapetalous: 12. polypetalous. 13. *Trees, with the calyx* external only: 14. internal only: 15. both external and internal. His characters of the orders are derived chiefly from the figure of the calyx, petals, and ſeeds; from the diſpoſition of the flowers, the number of petals, and ſubſtance of the fruit. From the combination of theſe characters with thoſe of the claſſes ariſe 55 orders; which are ſubdivided into genera, poſſeſſing this ſingularity, that, in place of diſtinctive characters hitherto employed, they exhibit complete deſcriptions of all the parts of fructification of one or two ſpecies of each genus. From this improvement, Linnæus borrowed the hint of his generical characters.

(46.) Sir JOHN HILL, in his *Vegetable Syſtem*, endeavours to claſs plants according to their internal ſtructure. "On the different inner ſtructure, (ſays he) of the vegetable body, under certain courſes of its veſſels, evidently depend the differences which characterize the 7 firſt families, to the diſtinction of which all claſſes are ſubordinate; and as theſe original diſtinctions are truly natural, we may here begin very ſafely. The 7 families are theſe, 1. Muſhrooms. 2. Algæ. 3. Moſſes. 4. Ferns. 5. Graſſes. 6. Palms. 7. The common race of Plants." Sir John thus diſtinguiſhes theſe: "1. The muſhrooms are fleſhy; and deſtitute of leaves and viſible flowers. 2. The algæ are merely foliaceous, the entire plant conſiſting of a leafy matter without other viſible [illegible].

3. The

3. The moſſes have proceſſes of the inner rhind for leaves. 4. The ferns conſiſt of a ſingle leaf raiſed on a ſtalk; and bear their flowers upon its back. 5. The graſſes have jointed ſtalks and undivided leaves, and huſks to hold the ſeeds. 6. The palms have a ſimple trunk, with leaves only on the top, and the flowers and fruit in divided ears." 7. The common race of plants, have their roots, leaves, ſtalks, flowers, and fruits, diſtinct and obvious; and have not the characters of any of the other ſix. To this natural method his artificial one, conſiſting of 43 claſſes, is deſigned only as an index; but his ſyſtem is univerſally allowed to be inferior to Linnæus's, though he pretends to improve it.

(47.) Thus we have given a brief view of the moſt celebrated ſyſtems, that have prevailed amongſt botaniſts, previous to the perfection of the ſcience by LINNÆUS's introduction of the SEXUAL SYSTEM. That great botaniſt, ſo eminent for claſſification, divides all the former ſyſtems of botany into two claſſes, which he ſtyles HETERODOX and ORTHODOX. The former are founded on an alphabetical arrangement, the ſtructure of the root, the habits of plants, their time of flowering, their native climate, their medicinal uſes, &c. The latter are either univerſal or partial; ſuch as belong to the plants in general, or ſuch as are accommodated to the nomenclature and arrangement of particular kinds. The univerſal ſyſtems are 4, though, by various modifications, this number has been conſiderably augmented. Linnæus alſo diſtinguiſhes the ſeveral patrons of them by the appellations of FRUCTISTÆ, COROLLISTÆ, CALYCISTÆ, and SEXUALISTÆ. The Fructiſts, are ſuch as form the ſeveral claſſes of vegetables from the *pericarpium*, the *ſeed* and the *receptacle*; of this number are Cæſalpinus, Moriſon, Ray, Herman, Boerhaave, &c. The Coroliſts, thoſe who diſtinguiſh the ſeveral claſſes by the *corolla* and *petals*; ſuch as Rivinus, Tournefort, &c. The Calyciſts diſtributed them from the calyx, as Magnol; and the Sexualiſts found their ſyſtem on the different ſexes of plants.

(48.) LINNÆUS, beſides his ſexual ſyſtem, which is now almoſt univerſally followed, formed another, which, like that of Magnol, had the calyx for its baſis; but greatly ſuperior both in the idea and execution, being indeed ſingularly ſerviceable to the novice in botany, by familiarizing to him various appearances of an organ ſo important in its nature, and ſo diverſified in its form, as the calyx is. The claſſes are, 1. Spathaceous. 2. Glumoſe. 3. Amentaceous. 4. Umbellated. 5. Common calyx. 6. Double calyx. 7. Flowering; the petals and ſtamina inſerted into the flower cup. 8. Crowned with a radius. 9. Irregular. 10. Difform. 11. Caducous. 12. Not caducous, uniform and monopetalous. 13. Not caducous, uniform and polypetalous. 14. Not caducous, difform and monopetalous. 15. Not caducous, difform and polypetalous. 16. Incomplete calyx. 17. Apetalous. 18. Naked.

PART I.

THE SEXUAL SYSTEM OF BOTANY.

SECT. I. HISTORY *of the* SEXUAL SYSTEM.

(1.) The SEXUAL SYSTEM, as its title imports, is founded on a diſcovery that there is in vegetables, as well as in animals, a *diſtinction of ſexes*. This was not wholly unknown to the ancients; but their knowledge of it was very imperfect. The flowers of the generality of vegetables are now known to be *Hermaphrodite*, containing in themſelves the characters of both ſexes; but in the claſſes *Monœcia* and *Diœcia*, the ſexes are parted, and allotted to different flowers; and in the claſs *Diœcia* in particular, the ſexes are even on different plants, the male flowers growing all upon one plant, and the female upon another. Now this laſt circumſtance the ancients had obſerved: indeed it could hardly eſcape their notice; for the palm tree whoſe fruit was in eſteem, being of the claſs *Diœcia*, a very little obſervation was requiſite to diſcover, that in theſe trees the flowers of the male were neceſſary to ripen the fruit of the female. Accordingly we find, in the account given by Herodotus of the country about Babylon, (*Lib.* I.) where theſe trees are in plenty, that it was a cuſtom with the natives, in their culture of this plant, to aſſiſt the operations of nature, by gathering the flowers of the male trees, and carrying them to the female. Thus they ſecured the ripening of the fruit; which might otherwiſe, from unfavourable ſeaſons, or the want of a proper intermixture of the trees of each ſex, have been precarious, or at leaſt not very productive.

(50.) It might have been expected, that this diſcovery ſhould have led the ancients to detect the whole proceſs of nature in the propagation of the various ſpecies of vegetables; and yet it does not appear, by their writings, that they went farther than this obvious remark upon the palm tree, and ſome ſimilar notions concerning the fig, and a few others. They had indeed, from what they ſaw in theſe plants, formed a notion that all others were male and female likewiſe; but this notion was falſe, the far greater part having hermaphrodite flowers: and ſerves to convince us, that what they diſcovered of the palm and fig, was not founded on any knowledge of the anatomy of flowers, either in thoſe trees, or any other plants.

(51.) Linnæus is indeed at great pains to trace the notion of ſexes in plants to the remoteſt periods of antiquity. He informs us, that Empedocles, Anaxagoras, and other ancient philoſophers, not only attributed the diſtinction of ſexes to plants, but maintained that they were capable of perceiving pleaſure and pain. He next introduces Hippocrates and Theophraſtus, as diſtinguiſhing the conyza, the abies, the filex, &c. into male and female; and tells us, that Dioſcorides takes notice of a male and female mandragora, mercurialis, ciſtus, &c.

(52.) Pliny does not confine his views of ſex to animals and vegetables, but exclaims that every thing this earth produces is characterized by the diſtinction of ſex. From the days of Pliny to thoſe of Cæſalpinus, the analogy between the vegetable and animal ſeems to have been entirely neglected. Cæſalpinus tells us, that the males of the oxycedrus, taxus, mercurialis, urtica, and cannabis, are barren; and that the females of theſe plants only bear fruit.

(53.) In this dark ſtate the doctrine of the ſexes of plants remained, not only through all the age

of antiquity, but almoſt to the end of the laſt century, the moderns diſcovering no more of this doctrine than the ancients; and hence we have ſtill in uſe, the falſe diſtinctions of *male* and *female* ſpecies of *Cornus*, *Paeony*, *Ciſtus*, and many other parts, which have all hermaphrodite flowers; the diſtinction being grounded, in theſe inſtances, on nothing more than ſome difference in the habit of the two ſpecies, with which the ſexes are no ways concerned.

(54.) The honour of having firſt ſuggeſted the true ſexual diſtinctions in plants is due to our countryman, Sir THOMAS MILLINGTON, who firſt ſtarted it, in a converſation with Dr GREW, concerning the utility of the ſtamina and ſtyli of plants. The reſult of this converſation was the mutual agreement of theſe two eminent naturaliſts, that the ſtamina and ſtyli of vegetables were analogous to the organs of generation in animals, and that they were adapted by nature to anſwer the ſame purpoſes. Dr Grew, in his *Anatomy of plants*, after enumerating the analogies between plants and animals, concludes that the pollen probably emits certain *vivific* effluvia, which may ſerve for the impregnation of the ſeeds.

(55.) Mr Ray gave a further ſanction to the doctrine of ſexes, by concurring with Grew, and adding ſome farther illuſtrations from analogy.—In 1695, Camerarius attempted to prove the ſexes of plants. But, as he truſted ſolely to the palm tree, and withal ſeemed to be doubtful as to the authenticity of the fact, he cannot be conſidered as having done any thing in confirmation of the ſexual hypotheſis.

(56.) Mr MORELAND, in 1703, adopted the ſame hypotheſis; but gave it a new modification, by ſuppoſing that the pollen contained the ſeminal plant in miniature, and conſequently that it behoved one pollen, at leaſt, to be conveyed into every ſeparate ſeed, before it could be properly impregnated. Analogy and the ſtructure of the parts are the only arguments he employs.

(57.) After this, Geoffroy, Vaillant, Blair, Juſſieu, Bradley, &c. purſued their enquiries and experiments ſo far as to remove all doubts concerning theſe diſcoveries; and at laſt the great LINNÆUS founded thereon the ſyſtem of Botany, of which it is now our object to treat particularly.

Sect. II. EVIDENCES *of the* TRUTH *of the* SEXUAL SYSTEM.

(58.) The Sexual Hypotheſis, on its firſt appearance, was received with all that caution that becomes an enlightened age; and nature was traced experimentally through all her variations, before it was univerſally aſſented to. Tournefort refuſed to give it any place in his ſyſtem; and Ponteder, though he had examined it, treated it as chimerical; but the proofs which Dr Linnæus has collated amongſt the aphoriſms of his *Fundamenta Botanica*, and farther illuſtrated in his *Philoſophia Botanica*, are ſo clear, that the birth of animals is not more evidently the conſequence of an intercourſe between the ſexes, than that of vegetables; and it would be now as ridiculous for any one, who has inveſtigated the ſubject, to doubt of the one as of the other.

(59.) Our room will not permit us to lay all theſe proofs before our readers; our buſineſs is to explain, not demonſtrate: but as it may be ſatisfactory to ſee ſome facts eſtabliſhed, that carry conviction with them, we ſhall inſert a few extracts from Linnæus and others, in proof of the Sexual hypotheſis.

(60.) LINNÆUS, after ſhowing that vegetables are endued with a certain degree of life, and that they propagate their ſpecies in a manner ſomewhat ſimilar to animals, their *antheræ* being analogous to the *teſtes*, and their ſeeds to the *ova* or eggs of animals, and requiring, like them, *impregnation* by the *pollen* of the antheræ, which is analogous to the *ſeminal fluid*, mentions the following, among numberleſs other proofs of his theory.

(61.) "When the flowers of the male hemp are pulled off before thoſe of the female are fully expanded, the females do not produce fertile ſeeds. But as a male flower is ſometimes found upon a female plant, this may be the reaſon why fertile ſeeds are ſometimes produced even after this precaution has been obſerved. The tulip affords another experiment to the ſame purpoſe.—Cut off all the antheræ of a red tulip before the pollen is emitted; then take the ripe antheræ of a white tulip, and throw the pollen of the white one upon the ſtigma of the red; the ſeeds of the red tulip being thus impregnated by one of a different complexion, will next ſeaſon produce ſome red, ſome white, but moſt variegated flowers.

(62.) "In the month of January 1760, the *anthoſyza cunonia* flowered in a pot in my parlour, but produced no fruit, the air of the room not being ſufficiently agitated to waft the pollen to the ſtigma. One day, about noon, ſeeing the ſtigma very moiſt. I plucked off one of the antheræ, by means of a fine pair of forceps, and gently rubbed it on one of the expanded ſtigmata. The ſpike of flowers remained 8 or 10 days longer; when I obſerved, in gathering the branch for my herbarium, that the fruit of that flower only, on which the experiment had been made, had ſwelled to the ſize of a bean. I then diſſected this fruit, and diſcovered that one of the 3 cells contained ſeeds in conſiderable number, the other two being entirely withered.

(63.) "In the month of April I ſowed the ſeeds of hemp (*cannabis*) in two different pots. The young plants came up ſo plentifully, that each pot contained 35 or 40. I placed each by the light of a window, but in different and remote apartments. The hemp grew extremely well in both pots. In one of them I permitted the male and female plants to remain together, to flower and bear fruit, which ripened in July; and being macerated in water and committed to the earth, ſprung up in 12 days. From the other, however, I removed all the male plants, as ſoon as they were old enough for me to diſtinguiſh them from the females. The remaining females grew very well, and preſented their long piſtilla in great abundance, theſe flowers continuing a very long time, as if in expectation of their mates; while the plants in the other pot had already ripened their fruit, their piſtilla having, quite in a different manner, faded as ſoon as the males had diſcharged all their pollen. It was certainly a beautiful and truly admirable ſpectacle, to ſee the unimpregnated females preſerve

ſerve their piſtilla ſo long green and flouriſhing, not permitting them to begin to fade, till they had been for a conſiderable time expoſed, in vain, to the acceſs of the male pollen. Afterwards when theſe virgin plants began to decay through age, I examined all their calyxes in the preſence of ſeveral botaniſts, and found them large and flouriſhing, although every one of the ſeed-buds was brown, compreſſed, membranaceous, and dry, not exhibiting any appearance of cotyledons or pulp. Hence I am perfectly convinced, that the circumſtance which authors have recorded, of the female hemp having produced ſeeds, although deprived of the male, could only have happened by means of pollen brought by the wind from ſome diſtant place. No experiment can be more eaſily performed than the above; none more ſatisfactory in demonſtrating the generation of plants.

(64.) "The *Chutia tenella* was in like manner kept growing in my window through the months of June and July. The male plant was in one pot, the female in another. The latter abounded with fruit, not one of its flowers proving abortive. I removed the two pots into different windows of the ſame apartment: ſtill all the female flowers continued to become fruitful. At length I took away the male entirely, leaving the female alone, and cutting off all the flowers which it had already born. Every day new ones appeared from the axilla of every leaf; each remained 8 or 10 days; after which their footſtalks turning yellow, they fell barren to the ground. A botanical friend, who had amuſed himſelf with obſerving this phenomenon with me, perſuaded me to bring from the ſtove in the garden a ſingle male flower, which he placed over one of the female ones then in perfection, tying a piece of red ſilk round its piſtillum. The next day the male flower was taken away, and this ſingle ſeed-bud remained and bore fruit. Afterwards I took another male flower out of the ſame ſtove, and with a pair of ſlender forceps pinched off one of its antheræ, which I afterwards gently ſcratched with a feather, ſo that a very ſmall portion of its pollen was diſcharged upon one of the three ſtigmata of a female flower, the two other ſtigmata being covered with paper.—This fruit likewiſe attained its due ſize; and on being cut tranſverſely, exhibited one cell filled with a large ſeed, and the other two empty.—The reſt of the flowers being unimpregnated, faded and fell off. This experiment may be performed with as little trouble as the former.

(65.) "The *Datiſca cannabina* came up in my garden from ſeed, ten years ago, and has every year been plentifully increaſed by means of its perennial root. Flowers in great number have been produced by it; but being all female, they proved abortive. Being deſirous of procuring male plants, I obtained more ſeeds from Paris. Some more plants were raiſed; but theſe likewiſe, to my great mortification, all proved females, and bore flowers but no fruit. In 1757, I received another parcel of ſeeds. From theſe I obtained a few male plants, which flowered in 1758. Theſe were planted at a great diſtance from the females; and when their flowers were juſt ready to emit their pollen, holding a paper under them, I gently ſhook the ſpike or panicle with my finger, till the paper was almoſt covered with the yellow powder. I carried this to the females which were flowering in another part of the garden, and ſtrewed it over them. The cold nights of the year in which this experiment was made, deſtroyed the datiſcas, with many other plants, much earlier than uſual. Nevertheleſs, when I examined the flowers of thoſe plants which I had ſprinkled with the fertilizing powder, I found the ſeeds of the full due magnitude; while in the more remote datiſcas which had not been impregnated with pollen, no traces of ſeeds were viſible.

(66.) "Several ſpecies of *Momordica*, cultivated with us, like other Indian vegetables, in the ſtoves, have frequently born female flowers, which, although at firſt very vigorous, after a ſhort time have conſtantly faded and turned yellow without perfecting any ſeed, till I inſtructed the gardener, as ſoon as he obſerved a female flower, to gather a male one and place it above the female. By this contrivance we are ſo certain of obtaining fruit, that we dare pledge ourſelves to make any female flowers fertile that ſhall be fixed on.

(67.) "The *Jatropha urens* has flowered every year in my hot-houſe; but the female flowers, coming before the males, in a week's time drop off their petals, and faded before the latter were expanded; from which cauſe no fruit has been produced, but the germina themſelves have fallen off. We have therefore never had any fruit of the jatropha till 1752, when the male flowers were in vigour on a tall tree at the ſame time that the females began to appear on a ſmall jatropha which was growing in a garden pot. I placed this pot under the other tree, by which means the female flowers bore ſeeds, which grew on being ſown. I have frequently ſince amuſed myſelf with taking the male flowers from one plant, and ſcattering them over the female flowers of another, and have always found the ſeeds of the latter impregnated by it.

(68.) "Two years ago I placed a piece of paper under ſome of theſe male flowers, and afterwards folded up the pollen which had fallen upon it, preſerving it ſo folded up, 4 or 6 weeks, at the end of which time another branch of the ſame jatropha was in flower. I then took the pollen which I had ſo long preſerved in paper, and ſtrewed it over three female flowers, the only ones in that time expanded. Theſe 3 females proved fruitful, while all the reſt which grew in the ſame bunch fell off abortive.

(69.) "The interior petals of the *Ornithogalum* commonly, but improperly, called *Canadenſe*, cohere ſo cloſely together, that they only juſt admit the air to the germen, and will ſcarcely permit the pollen of another flower to paſs: the plant produced every day new flowers and fruit, the fructification never failing in any inſtance; therefore, with the utmoſt care, extracted the antheræ from one of the flowers with a hooked needle; and, as I hoped, this ſingle flower proved barren. This experiment was repeated about a week after with the ſame ſucceſs.

(70.) "I removed all the antheræ out of a flower of *Chelidonium corniculatum* (ſcarlet horned poppy) which was growing in a remote part of the garden, upon the firſt opening of its petals, and ſtrip-

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ped off all the reſt of the flowers; another day I treated another flower of the ſame plant in a ſimilar manner, but ſprinkled the piſtillum of this with the pollen borrowed from another plant of the ſame ſpecies: the reſult was, that the firſt flower produced no fruit, but the ſecond afforded very perfect ſeed. My deſign in this experiment was to prove, that the mere removal of the antheræ from a flower is not in itſelf ſufficient to render the germen abortive.

(71.) "Having the *Nicotiana fruticoſa* growing in a garden pot, and producing plenty of flowers and ſeed, I extracted the antheræ from a newly expanded flower before they had burſt, at the ſame time cutting away all the other flowers; this germen produced no fruit, nor did it even ſwell.

(72.) "I removed an urn, in which the *Aſphodelus fiſtuloſus* was growing, to one corner of the garden, and from one of the flowers which had lately opened I extracted its antheræ; this cauſed the impregnation to fail. Another day I treated another flower in the ſame manner: but bringing a flower from a plant in a different part of the garden, with which I ſprinkled the piſtillum of the mutilated one, its germen became by that means fruitful.

(73.) "*Ixia chinenſis*, flowering in my ſtove, the windows of which were ſhut, all its flowers proved abortive. I therefore took ſome of its antheræ in a pair of pincers, and with them ſprinkled the ſtigmata of two flowers, and the next day one ſtigma only of a third flower; the ſeed-buds of theſe flowers remained, grew to a large ſize, and bore ſeed; the fruit of the third, however, contained ripe ſeed only in one of its cells."

(74.) Dr Hasselquist, in one of his letters to Linnæus, dated Alexandria, May 18th, 1750, gives the following account of the fecundation of the palm tree. "The firſt thing I did after my arrival was to ſee the date tree, the ornament and a great part of the riches of this country. It had already bloſſomed; but I had, nevertheleſs, the pleaſure of ſeeing how the Arabs aſſiſt its fecundation, and by that means ſecure to themſelves a plentiful harveſt of a vegetable, which was ſo important to them, and known to them many centuries before any botaniſt dreamed of the difference of ſexes in vegetables. The gardener informed me of this before I had time to inquire; and would ſhow me, as a very curious thing, the male and female of the date or palm trees: nor could he conceive how I, a Frank, lately arrived, could know it before; for (ſays he) all who have yet come from Europe to ſee this country, have regarded this relation either as a fable or miracle. The Arab ſeeing me inclined to be further informed, accompanied me and my French interpreter to a palm tree, which was very full of young fruit, and had by him been wedded, or fecundated with the male, when both were in bloſſom. This the Arabs do in the following manner: When the ſpadix has female flowers, that come out of its ſpatha, they ſearch on a tree that has male flowers, which they know by experience, for a ſpadix which has not yet burſted out of its ſpatha: this they open, take out the ſpadix, and cut it lengthwiſe in ſeveral pieces, but take care not to hurt the flowers. A piece of this ſpadix with male flowers they put lengthwiſe between the ſmall branches of the ſpadix which hath female flowers, and then lay the leaf of a palm over the branches. In this ſituation I ſaw the greateſt part of the ſpadices which bore their young fruit; but the male flowers which were put between were withered. The Arab beſides gave me the following anecdotes: Firſt, unleſs they, in this manner, wed and fecundate the date tree, it bears no fruit. 2dly, They always take the precaution to preſerve ſome unopened ſpathæ with male flowers from one year to another, to be applied for this purpoſe, in caſe the male flowers ſhould miſcarry or ſuffer damage. 3dly, If they permit the ſpadix of the male flowers to burſt or come out, it becomes uſeleſs for fecundation: it muſt have its *maidenhead*, (theſe were the words of the Arab,) which is loſt in the ſame moment the bloſſoms burſt out of their caſe. Therefore the perſon who cultivates date trees muſt be careful to hit the right time of aſſiſting their fecundation, which is almoſt the only article in their cultivation. 4thly, On opening the ſpatha, he finds all the male flowers full of a liquid which reſembles the fineſt dew; it is of a ſweet and pleaſant taſte, reſembling much the taſte of freſh dates, but much more refined and aromatic: this was likewiſe confirmed by my interpreter, who hath lived 32 years in Egypt, and therefore had opportunities enough, of taſting both the nectar of the bloſſoms and the freſh dates."

(75.) Mr Milne, author of the Botanical Dictionary, relates an experiment nearly akin to the above. "In the garden of M. de la Serre, of the Rue S. Jacques at Paris, was a female turpentine tree, which flowered every year, without furniſhing any fruit capable of vegetation. This was a ſenſible mortification to the owner, who greatly deſired to have the tree increaſed. Meſſieurs Duhamel and Juſſieu very properly judged that they might procure him that pleaſure by the aſſiſtance of a male piſtachio tree. They ſent him one very much loaded with flowers. It was planted in the garden of M. de la Serre, very near the male turpentine tree, which the ſame year produced a great quantity of fruits, that were well conditioned, and roſe with facility. The male plant was then removed; the conſequence was, that the turpentine tree in none of the ſucceeding years bore any fruit that, upon examination, was found to germinate."

(76.) We ſhall conclude this ſection, with an account, given by Mr Mylius of Berlin, to Dr Watſon, of a remarkable experiment made on the palm tree. "The ſex of plants (ſays he) is very well confirmed, by an experiment that has been made here on the *palma major foliis flabelliformibus*. There is a great tree of this kind in the garden of the royal academy. It has flowered and born fruit theſe 30 years, but the fruit never ripened, and when planted it did not vegetate. The palm tree, as you know, is *Planta Diœcia*, that is, one of thoſe, in which the male and female parts of generation are upon different plants. We having therefore no male plants, the flowers of our female were never impregnated with the farina of the male. There is a plant of this kind in a garden at Leipſic, 20 German miles from Berlin. We procured from thence, in April 1749, a branch

a branch of male flowers, and ſuſpended it over our female ones; and our experiment ſucceeded ſo well, that our palm tree produced more than 100 perfectly ripe fruit, from which we have already 11 young palm trees. This experiment was repeated laſt year, and our palm tree bore above 2000 ripe fruit." *Phil. Tranſ. Vol.* XVII. *p.* 169.

Sect. III. Of *the* parts *of* Plants.

(77.) The principal outlines of a plant are thus delineated by Linnæus, in his *Principia Botanica*.

(78.) A plant conſiſts of Root, Trunk, Leaves, Props, Fructification, and Inflorescence; to which may be added the Habit.

(79.) I. The ROOT conſiſts of two parts, *viz.* the caudex and the radicula, diſtinguiſhed according to ſhape, direction, duration, &c.

1. Caudex, the ſtump, is the body or knob of the root, from which the trunk and branches aſcend, and the fibrous roots deſcend; and in different plants is either ſolid, bulbous, or tuberous. Solid, as in trees, ſhrubs, and many of the herbs. Bulbous is explained under Hybernaculum. (§ 108.) Tuberous knobs are alſo ſolid and hard, containing one or more embryos or eyes. They are either only one knob, as turnip, carrot, &c containing only one eye at the top; or conſiſt of many knobs connected together by ſlender fibres, as in potatoes, Jeruſalem artichokes, &c. each containing many eyes diſperſed over the ſurface: and are either pitted, when the eyes lie inward, as in potatoes, &c. or tuberculated, containing the eyes outward, as in Jeruſalem artichokes, &c. In tuberous knobs, the fibres or ſtringy parts iſſue from every part of the ſurface; which is an eſſential difference from bulbous knobs, where they are confined to the caudex of the bulb only, and are the true and genuine roots, the bulb itſelf being only a large bud under ground. Thoſe tuberous knobs with only one eye, differ as to duration, but are in general biennial; thoſe with many eyes are perennial; both ſeem to be produced by the nutriment of the ſtem like buds, and not by the fibrous roots, for the ſtem is firſt formed and becomes ſtrong, and as it grows to maturity, the tuberous knobs increaſe.

2. Radicula, a little root, is the ſtring or fibrous part of the root, deſcending from the caudex: it is really the principal and eſſential part of every root, and by which the nouriſhment is drawn from the earth for the ſupport of the plant.

(80.) II. The TRUNK riſes immediately from the caudex, and produces the leaves, flowers, and fruit. It is either herbaceous, ſhrubby, or arboreſcent; and is diſtinguiſhed according to its ſhape, ſubſtance, ſurface, &c. as follows:

1. Caulis, a ſtalk or ſtem, is the main trunk which elevates the leaves and fructification, and is applied to trees, ſhrubs, and herbs: It is denominated *ſimple* when it does not divide, and *compound* when it is divided into branches.

2. Culmus, a ſtraw or haulm, is the proper trunk of graſſes; and alſo elevates both the leaves and fructification: It is ſometimes jointed, and ſometimes not, it is alſo ſometimes round and ſometimes angular.

3. Scapus, a ſtalk, is an herbaceous trunk, which elevates the fructification, but not the leaves; that is, it is a ſtalk proceeding immediately from the root, and terminated by the flowers, as in narciſſus, hyacinth, &c.

4. Stipes, a trunk, uſed by Linnæus for the trunk of muſhrooms; as alſo for that ſlender thread or foot-ſtalk which elevates the feathery or hairy down with which ſome ſeeds are furniſhed, and connects it with the ſeed.

(81.) III. The LEAVES are ſaid by Linnæus to be the muſcles or organs of motion of a plant; by others, the organs by which perſpiration and inſpiration are performed. They are defined as proceeding from the expanſion of the veſſels of the ſtalk, forming ſeveral ramifications like net-work, extended in length and breadth in a determinate manner, having the interſtices filled up with a tender pulpy ſubſtance; and the external covering is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of the ſcarf ſkin of the ſtalk. They are either ſimple or compound; and are diſtinguiſhed by their figure, ſituation, inſertion, number, diviſions, &c.

1. A simple leaf is ſuch as adheres to the branch ſingly, or whoſe footſtalk is terminated by a ſingle ſimple expanſion, not parted to the middle rib; and is determined by its ſhape, ſurface, and diviſions.

2. A compound leaf is ſuch whoſe footſtalk is furniſhed with ſeveral ſeparate ſimple expanſions; or, whoſe diviſions extend to the middle rib, now called a *common petiole* or footſtalk, ſupporting ſeveral lobes or little ſimple leaves, of which the compound leaf conſiſts: they are diſtinguiſhed by ſhape, &c. and the form by which they are attached to the common footſtalk, as palmated, winged, feathered, &c. Sometimes leaves are twice or more compounded; which diviſions admit of many modifications, and give riſe to a great variety of terms. It may ſometimes be difficult, at firſt ſight, to know a common footſtalk to a compound leaf, from a branch: but a common footſtalk, where it iſſues from the branch, is either flat or hollow on one ſide, and convex on the other; whereas branches are alike on both ſides, whether round, flat, or angular: again, buds are never found at the angles formed by the lobes of a compound leaf with the footſtalk, but at the angles formed by the footſtalk of the whole compound leaf and the ſtem: and it may always be certainly diſtinguiſhed by its falling off with the little leaves which it ſupports. The manner or place in which leaves are attached to the plant, is called the *determination of leaves*; and is diſtinguiſhed by ſeveral terms, according to number, diſpoſition, inſertion, figure, &c.

(82.) IV. The PROPS, *fulcra*, a term uſed to expreſs thoſe external parts which ſtrengthen, ſupport, or defend the plants on which they are found, or ſerve to facilitate ſome neceſſary recretion, are as follow.

1. Petiolus, the footſtalk or ſupport of a leaf.

2. Pedunculus, the footſtalk or ſupport of a flower.

3. Stipula, haulm, or huſk, a ſort of ſcale or ſmall leaf, ſtationed on moſt plants, (when preſent) on each ſide the baſe of the footſtalk of leaves and flowers, at their firſt appearance, for the purpoſe of ſupport: They are placed either ſingle or double; and ſometimes on the inſide, as

on the fig and mulberry; or on the outside, as in the birch, lime, and papilionaceous flowers. They are also either sitting, extended downwards, or sheathing along the stem, as in the plane tree. As to duration, they sometimes fall before the seeds, and sometimes are equally persistent. They often afford a good distinction for the species.

4. CIRRHUS, a clasper or tendril, is the fine spiral string or fibre by which plants fasten themselves to some other body for support; They are sometimes placed opposite to the leaves; sometimes at the side of the footstalks of the leaves; sometimes they issue from the leaves themselves; and sometimes they put out roots, as in ivy, &c.

5. PUBES, a term applied to the hair, down, awl, beard, bristles, glands, and several other appearances on different parts of plants, serving the same purpose of defence and vessels of secretion.

6. ARMA, the defensive weapons of plants; as thorns, prickles, &c.

7. BRACTEÆ, the floral leaves, mean not only those leaves situated on the stalk nearest to the lower parts of the flower, but those which sometimes terminate the flower stalk; being composed of the bracteæ, resembling a bush of hair. They are then called *bracteæ comosæ*, as in crown-imperial, lavender, and some species of sage.

VII. V. The FRUCTIFICATION, or mode of fruit bearing, consists of the calyx, corolla, stamina, pistillum, pericarpium, semina, and receptaculum; which are explained in SECT. VI.

VIII. VI. The INFLORESCENCE, or mode by which flowers are joined to their several pedicles, whether common or partial.

1. A FLOWER, in the Sexual system, has a very different signification from the same term of former botanists; for if the antheræ and stigma be present, though the calyx, corolla, filaments of the stamina, and style of the pistillum be wanting, it is still a flower; and if all the parts are present, it is a complete flower. The seed also constitutes the fruit, whether there be a pericarpium or not.

2. COMPLETE FLOWERS are either simple or aggregate; SIMPLE, when no part of the fructification is common to many flowers or florets, but is confined to one only: AGGREGATE, when the flower consists of many florets collected into a head, by means of some part of the fructification common to them all, as by a common receptacle, or common calyx; as in dipsacus, scabiosa, &c. From the different structure, disposition, and other circumstances of the receptacle or calyx, being the only part common to aggregate flowers, arise 7 subdivisions.

IX. 1. AGGREGATE FLOWERS, properly so called, are formed by the union of several lesser flowers, placed on partial peduncles, on a common dilated receptacle, and within a common perianthium; and in those flowers where each floret has its proper calyx, that is also a perianthium. A flower is said to be *radiate*, when the florets in the radius or circumference differ from those in the disk; in which case they are generally larger, and are called *semi-florets*, from their difference in form, and in distinction from those of the disk, which are called *proper florets*: and they also differ as to sex, which gives rise to several of the orders in the class syngenesia, which contains the compound flowers.

2. COMPOUND AGGREGATE FLOWERS consist also of several florets, placed sitting (or without partial peduncles) on a common dilated receptacle, and within a common perianthium; and where each floret hath its proper calyx, it is also a perianthium. Compound flowers also admit of a further description, viz. each floret consists of a single petal, with generally five divisions, and having five stamina distinct at the base, but united at the top by the antheræ into a cylinder, through which passes the style of the pistillum, longer than the stamina, and crowned by a stigma with two divisions that are rolled backwards, and having a single seed placed upon the receptacle under each floret. This is the general character of a compound flower, to which there are a few exceptions; it also differs when the flower is radiate: but the essential character of a regular floret consists in the antheræ being united so as to form a cylinder, and having a single seed placed upon the receptacle under each floret.

3. UMBELLATE AGGREGATE are when the flower consists of many florets placed on fastigiate peduncles proceeding from the same stem or receptacle; and which, though of different lengths, rise to such a height as to form a regular head or umbel, whether flat, convex, or concave. Both the common and partial calyx Linnæus calls an *involucrum*. It is called a *simple umbel*, when it hath no lesser divisions; a *compound umbel*, when each peduncle is subdivided at its extremity into many lesser peduncles for supporting the flowers, so as to form several little umbellas, uniting in one head; the whole together is called an *universal umbel*, and the little umbellas are called *partial umbels*. In some genera, that have radiated umbels, the florets of the centre and those of the circumference, differ both as to sex and size; but in general each have 5 petals, 5 stamina, and two styles; or one that is bifid, with a germen placed beneath, and two naked seeds, which when ripe, separate below, but remain connected at the top.

4. CYMOUS AGGREGATE, (from *cyma*, a sprout,) called by Linnæus a *receptacle*, is when several fastigiate peduncles proceed from the same centre like the umbel, and rise to nearly an even height; but unlike the umbel, the secondary or partial peduncles proceed without any regular order, as in sambucus, viburnum, &c.

5. AMENTACEOUS AGGREGATE are such flowers as have a long common receptacle, along which are disposed squamæ or scales, which form that sort of calyx called *amentum* or *catkin*, as in corylus, pinus, juglans, &c. Amentaceous flowers generally want the petals, and all of them are of the classes monœcia and dicecia.

6. GLUMOSE AGGREGATE are such flowers as proceed from a common husky calyx belonging to grasses, called *gluma*; many of which are placed on a common receptacle called *rachis*, collecting the florets into the spike, as triticum, hordeum, secale, lolium, &c.

7. SPADICEOUS AGGREGATE are also such flowers as have a common receptacle, protruded from within a common calyx, called *spatha*, along which

which are diſpoſed ſeveral florets. Such a receptacle is called a *ſpadix:* and is either branched, as in phœnix; or ſimple, as in narciſſus, &c. In this laſt caſe the florets may be diſpoſed, either all around it, as in calla, dracontium, pothos, &c. on the lower ſide of it, as in arum, &c. or in two ſides, as in zoſtera, &c. Theſe flowers have generally no partial calyx.

(86.) Under the head of *Inflorescence* might alſo be mentioned the SEXES of plants; but as the whole SEXUAL SYSTEM is founded upon theſe, they belong more properly to SECT. IV. There are, beſides the above, ſeveral other modes of flowering, properly ſo called, that come under the general term INFLORESCENCE, and often afford the beſt marks to diſcriminate the ſpecies. They are chiefly expreſſed as follows:

(87.) VERTICILLUS, a *whorl*, when the flowers are placed in whorls at each joint, round the common ſtalk: they have very ſhort partial peduncles; are all of the labiated kind; and have either 2 or 4 ſtamina, and 4 naked ſeeds, as in ſalvia, marubium, mentha, &c. A verticil hath ſeveral diſtinctions, as naked, bracted, &c. and all thoſe genera with 4 ſtamina are of the claſs didynamia.

(88.) CAPITULUM, a *little head*, is when many flowers are connected into nearly a globular form or head, on the ſummit of the common ſtalk, ſometimes with and ſometimes without partial peduncles, as in gomphrena, &c. and is diſtinguiſhed by its ſhape and other circumſtances.—Under *capitulum* is now introduced the term *faſciculus*, (a little bundle,) which was formerly conſidered as diſtinct. It means when the peduncles are erect, parallel, approaching each other, and raiſed to the ſame height as in ſweet William, where they generally proceed from different parts of the common ſtalk, oppoſite to each other.

(89.) SPICA, a *ſpike*, is when the flowers, having no partial peduncles, are arranged alternately around a common ſimple peduncle. It is called *ſpica ſecunda*, (a ſingle-row'd ſpike,) when the flowers are all turned one way, following each other; and *ſpica diſticha*, (a double-row'd ſpike,) when the flowers ſtand pointing two ways, as in lolium, &c. And it is diſtinguiſhed by ſhape and other circumſtances.

(90.) CORYMBUS, (a *cluſter of ivy berries*,) when the leſſer peduncles of the flowers proceed from different parts of the common peduncle or ſtalk; and though of unequal lengths, and ſometimes ſimple, ſometimes branched, yet form a regular ſurface at the top; as in the ſiliquoſe plants. The corymbus may be ſuppoſed to be formed from a ſpike, by adding partial peduncles to the flowers; and ſeems to be the mean between racemus and umbella, the peduncles riſing gradually from different parts of the common ſtalk, like thoſe of the raceme, and proceeding to a proportionable height like thoſe of the umbel.

(91.) THYRSUS, (a *young ſtalk*,) a mode of flowering reſembling the cone of a pine: Linnæus defines it a panicle contracted into an ovate or egg-ſhaped form; the lower peduncles, which are longer, horizontally; and the upper, which are ſhorter, mount vertically, as ſyringa, &c.

(92.) RACEMUS, (a *bunch of grapes*,) is when the flowers are placed on ſhort partial peduncles proceeding as little lateral branches, from and a long the common peduncle. It reſembles a ſpik in having the flowers placed along a common pe duncle, but differs from it in having partial pe duncles: it alſo differs from a corymbus in th ſhortneſs and equal length of its peduncles, nc forming a regular ſurface at the top; as in ribe rubrum, vitis, &c.

(93.) PANICULA, (the *tuft* upon *reeds*,) is whe the flowers are diſperſed upon peduncles variouſl ſubdivided; or it is a ſort of branching ſpik compoſed of ſeveral ſmaller ſpikes, attached alon a common peduncle, as in avena, panicum, ar ſeveral other graſſes, and many other plant When the partial peduncles diverge and har looſe, it is called a *diffuſe*, and when they co verge, it is called a *cloſe*, *panicle*.

(94.) AXILLARES, ſuch flowers as proceed fro the angle formed by the leaf and the ſtem, as moſt common.

(95.) TERMINALES, ſuch flowers as termina the ſtalk or branch. Every other mode of flowe ing is called the *Inflorescence*, whether oppoſite the leaves, lateral, ſingle, double, erect, ben ing, &c.

(96.) LUXURIANT, or DOUBLE FLOWERS, a conſidered only as varieties. A luxuriant flow is ſuppoſed generally to be owing to ſuperabu dant nouriſhment; the luxuriant part is general the corolla, but ſometimes the calyx alſo. The are 3 degrees of luxuriant flowers: viz. 1. *mul plicatus*; 2. *plenus*; and 3. *proliſer*.

1. FLOS MULTIPLICATUS is when the pet of the corolla are only ſo far multiplied as to e clude part of the ſtamina; and is called *duplica triplicate*, *quadruplicate*, &c. according to t number of rows of petals.

2. FLOS PLENUS is when the corolla is ſo mu multiplied, as to exclude all the ſtamina; whi is occaſioned by the ſtamina turning petals, a the flower is often ſo crowded as to exclude choke the piſtillum alſo. Therefore, as the eſſ tial parts of generation are thus wholly, or in p deſtroyed, the plants become barren and imp fect, and no ſeed, or very little, can be expect from them. Flowers with one petal are not v ſubject to fulneſs; when they are, it generally riſes from an increaſe of the diviſions of the pe It is moſt uſual in flowers of many petals, wh it ariſes various ways; ſometimes by multipli tion of the petals only, ſometimes of the calyx nectarium, and ſometimes of all. Compou flowers are alſo ſubject to luxuriance, ariſing ſeveral ways.

3. FLOS PROLIFER is when one flower gro out of another; this generally happens in flowers, from their greater luxuriancy. In ſim flowers, it riſes from the centre, and proce from the piſtillum ſhooting up into another fl er, ſtanding on a ſingle footſtalk. In aggreg flowers (properly ſo called) many footſtalked fl ers are produced out of one common calyx. umbellate flowers, a ſecond umbel proceeds fr the centre of the firſt umbel, producing little bels; which by a greater exertion of luxuria may produce others with little umbels, and t may produce ſeveral heads of flowers, each gr

ing out of that immediately below it, furniſhed with little umbels variouſly compounded. A proliferous flower is alſo called *leafy (frondoſus,)* when it produces branches with flowers and leaves, which though rare, ſometimes happens in roſa, anemone, monarda, and others. As in luxuriant flowers many parts of the natural character are deficient in the whole, or in any part, they can only be diſtinguiſhed by the general habit, and by ſuch parts as remain in the natural ſtate; as very often by the calyx, and in the polypetalous flowers, the loweſt ſeries or rows of petals remain the ſame, as in roſa, papaver, nigella, &c.

(97.) FLOS MUTILATUS is the oppoſite imperfection, being ſuch a flower as occaſionally is deprived of all, or the greateſt part of the petals, or bears ſeeds, as in ſome ſpecies of tuſſilago, campanula, &c. This term is oppoſed to luxuriant, and is ſuppoſed by Linnæus to be cauſed by a defect of heat, though it may alſo happen from other cauſes.

(98.) VII. The HABIT of plants, by which ancient botaniſts meant the whole external appearance of every part thereof, whereby they were arranged in their ſeveral ſyſtems, is by Linnæus applied to the agreement of plants of the ſame genus, or natural order; chiefly in the following circumſtances:

(99.) GEMMATION. The ſtructure and diſpoſition of the bulb, as ſolid, coated, ſcaly, ſtem. Alſo of the bud; its origin petioled, ſtipuled, cortical; its contents leafy, floral, common.

(100.) VERNATION. The complication of the leaves within the bud, as conduplicate or doubled together; convolute or rolled together; involute or rolled in; revolute or rolled back; imbricated or tiled; equitant or riding; obvolute or rolled againſt each other; plaited or folded over; ſpiral or coiled like a watch-ſpring, one end in the centre.

(101.) ÆSTIVATION. The ſtate of the bud in ſummer, as convolute, imbricated, conduplicate, valved, unequally valved.

(102.) TORTION. The twiſting or bending of the parts, as uniform, diſſimilar, from the right, from the left, reciprocal, reſupine, ſpiral.

(103.) NUPTIALS. Male, female, androgynous, hermaphrodite.

(104.) SEMINATION. The ſhape and other circumſtances of the ſeed, as tail, wing, tuft, awn, hooks, gluten, curvature. Alſo of the pericarpium; as berrying, inflation, viſcoſity, elaſticity, texture.

(105.) PLACENTATION. The number and diſpoſition of the cotyledons; or if wanting.

(106.) VARIATION. Of colour, ſize, pubeſcence, &c. 1. *External*: plaited, bundled, broad-leaved, carved, awnleſs. 2. *Internal*: mutilated, great-flowered, luxuriant, creſted, viviparous, bulb-bearing. By *variation* or *variety* are meant ſuch differences as are only incidental to vegetables, and are not found conſtant and unchangeable; that is, where plants raiſed from the ſame ſeed, by ſome accidental cauſe differ in their form and appearance, from the true character of the ſpecies to which they belong; which cauſe being removed, the plant is reſtored to its true ſpecific character: and theſe incidental varieties chiefly ariſe by difference of ſoil or culture, in ſome of the above circumſtances. And though it is as neceſſary to collect varieties under their proper ſpecies, as the ſpecies under their proper genera; yet it is often more difficult; firſt, from the difficulty of aſcertaining the genus, and, ſadly, from the variety of confounding the ſpecies; and ſometimes ſome parts of the ſpecific character itſelf are alſo ſubject to variety, particularly the leaves; though in general the true ſpecific character is conſtant and unchangeable, ariſing only from circumſtances wherein plants of the ſame genus are found to diſagree, which diſtinctions are commonly taken with moſt certainty from the parts explained in this ſection.

(107.) The HYBERNACULUM, (*winter lodgement,*) is that part of a plant which defends the embryo or future ſhoot from external injuries during the winter; and is either a bulb or a bud.

(108.) 1. A BULB, (*bulbus,*) is a large ſort of bud produced under ground, placed upon the caudex of certain herbaceous plants, hence called *bulbous* plants; all of which are perennial, that is, perpetuated by their bulbs or ground buds, as well as by ſeeds: they are therefore improperly called roots, being only the hybernacle of the future ſhoot. Bulbs are of the following ſorts:

1. Squamous; conſiſting of ſcales laid over each other like tiles, as in the lily.

2. Solid; conſiſting of a cloſe ſubſtance, as in tulips.

3. Coated; conſiſting of many coats infolding each other, as in onions.

4. Cauline; produced not only from the ſides of the principal bulb, called a *ſucker* or *offset*, but from other parts of the ſtem; as in crow or wild garlic, and in ſome ſpecies of onion (hence called *bulbiferous;*) where they are produced at the origin of the umbel of flowers.

(109.) A BUD *(gemma,)* is the embryo of the plant, ſeated upon the ſtem of the branches, covered with ſcales. In general there are three ſorts of buds: That containing the flower only, as in poplar, aſh, &c. where the leaf buds and flower buds are diſtinct: That containing the leaves only, as in birch, &c.: and, That containing both flower and leaves, as in the generality of plants; and theſe laſt ſometimes contain leaves and male flowers, ſometimes leaves and female flowers, ſometimes leaves and hermaphrodite flowers. Annual plants are only renewed from ſeeds; and ſeveral other plants, both trees and ſhrubs, have no winter buds: It is alſo obſerved in hot countries, that few plants have buds; or at leaſt they are without that ſcaly covering which ſeems eſſential to a bud, and conſtitutes the hybernacle; inſtead whereof are protruded ſmall feather-like branches from the wings of the leaves, (defence and protection from cold not being neceſſary;) whereas in cold countries moſt plants have buds, which are wrapped up all the winter, in readineſs to greet the approaching ſpring.

(110.) Analogous to the protection afforded by the buds, is the SLEEP of plants, which according to Linnæus, happens various ways; as by converging, including, ſurrounding, fortifying, conduplicating, involving, diverging, depending, inverting, imbricating. This diſpoſition in plants is very remarkable in chick-weed, pimpernell, dandelion,

delion, goats-beard, &c. which expand their flowers only at certain times of the day, and ſhut them up at the approach of night or a ſtorm; from which may be prognoſticated a change of weather. In many plants, not only the flowers, but the young ſhoots, are defended from external injuries, by the neareſt leaves converging and incloſing the tender rudiments.—Thus we have delineated the principal outlines of plants; but a more particular deſcription of thoſe parts, which ſerve chiefly to characteriſe the different claſſes, orders, genera, and ſpecies will be given in the following ſections, particularly SECT. VI.

SECT. IV. *Of the* CLASSES *of* PLANTS.

(111.) The FLOWERS of plants being, beyond all controverſy, their parts of generation, Linnæus very properly made them the ſole foundation of his beautiful ſyſtem of botany. Being the ſame in all parts of the globe capable of producing plants, the claſſification founded upon them affords a kind of *univerſal language* (ſo to ſpeak) to botaniſts, whereby they can no longer miſtake each others meaning, as has unfortunately been the caſe, leſs or more, with almoſt all former botanical ſyſtems.

(112.) FLOWERS, in reſpect of SEX, are diſtinguiſhed into male, female, hermaphrodite, and neuter. MALE flowers are ſuch as have only the ſtamina, as in the claſſes monœcia, dioecia, and polygamia. FEMALE flowers are ſuch as have only the piſtilla, as in the ſame claſſes. HERMAPHRODITE flowers are ſuch as have both the ſtamina and piſtilla in the ſame flower, as in almoſt all the other claſſes: hermaphrodites are alſo diſtinguiſhed into *male* hermaphrodites, when the female is ineffectual; and *female* hermaphrodites, when the male is ineffectual. NEUTER flowers are ſuch as have neither ſtamina nor piſtilla perfect.

(113.) The PLANTS themſelves alſo take a denomination from the ſex of their flowers; male plants are ſuch as bear male flowers only; female plants bear female flowers only; hermaphrodite plants bear hermaphrodite flowers only. ANDROGYNOUS plants are ſuch as bear male and female flowers, diſtinct upon the ſame root, as in the claſs monœcia. POLYGAMOUS plants are ſuch as bear hermaphrodite flowers, and male or female flowers, or both diſtinct, on the ſame or on different roots.

(114.) When on the ſame root, the flowers are either male hermaphrodites and female hermaphrodites; or hermaphrodites and male; or hermaphrodites and female, diſtinct: if on different roots, the flowers are either hermaphrodites and male; hermaphrodites and female; hermaphrodites and both male and female; or are androgynous and male; and ſometimes androgynous and male and female on 3 diſtinct plants. Upon theſe differences in the flowers of plants, Linnæus has the merit of founding the SEXUAL SYSTEM; which, in beauty, uniformity, regularity, comprehenſiveneſs, and utility, infinitely excels all that have gone before it.

(115.) TABLE OF THE CLASSES.

PLANTS celebrate their nuptials
- Either PUBLICKLY, *i. e.* have viſible flowers:
  - Plants, which have viſible flowers are either
    - MONOCLINIA, males and females in the ſame bed:—*i. e.* The flowers are all hermaphrodite
    - Among the Monoclinia, there is either
      - DIFFINITAS, the males or ſtamina unconnected with each other:
        - In theſe the ſtamina are either
          - *Indifferentiſſima*, *i. e.* the males having no fixed proportion as to length:
            1. MONANDRIA, *i. e.* one male or ſtamen in a hermaphrodite flower.
            2. DIANDRIA, —— two males or ſtamina.
            3. TRIANDRIA, —— three males.
            4. TETRANDRIA, —— four males.
            5. PENTANDRIA, —— five males.
            6. HEXANDRIA, —— ſix males.
            7. HEPTANDRIA, —— ſeven males.
            8. OCTANDRIA, —— eight males.
            9. ENNEANDRIA, —— nine males.
            10. DECANDRIA, —— ten males.
            11. DODECANDRIA, —— twelve males.
            12. ICOSANDRIA, —— twenty, or more males inſerted into the calyx.
            13. POLYANDRIA, —— all above 20 males inſerted into the receptacle.
          - Or *Subordinata*, two of the males are uniformly ſhorter than the reſt.
            14. DIDYNAMIA, —— four males, two long and two ſhort.
            15. TETRADYNAMIA,— ſix males, four long and two ſhort.
      - Or AFFINITAS, the ſtamina either connected to each other, or to the piſtillum.
        16. MONADELPHIA, the ſtamina united into one body by the filaments.
        17. DIADELPIA, the ſtamina united into two bodies by the filaments.
        18. POLYADELPHIA, the ſtamina united into 3 or more bodies by the filament
        19. SYNGENESIA, the ſtamina united in a cylindrical form by the antheræ.
        20. GYNANDRIA, the ſtamina inſerted into the piſtillum.
    - Or DICLINIA, males and females in ſeparate beds; *i. e.* plants that have ſtamina and piſtilla in different flowers in the ſame ſpecies.
      21. MONOECIA, male and female flowers diſtinct, in the ſame plant.
      22. DIOECIA, males and females in different plants, of the ſame ſpecies.
      23. POLYGAMIA, male, female, and hermaphrodite flowers in the ſame or different plants.
- Or CLANDESTINELY, *i. e.* have their parts of fructification either inviſible, or not diſtinct.
  24. CRYPTOGAMIA, the flowers inviſible, ſo that they cannot be ranked according to the parts of fructification, or diſtinctly deſcribed.

mina and piſtills in the ſame flower, a
all the other claſſes: hermaphrodites a
tinguiſhed into *male* hermaphrodites, w
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when the male is ineffectual. Neuter
are ſuch as have neither ſtamina nor pi
fect.

(113.) The PLANTS themſelves al
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plants bear hermaphrodite flowers on
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flowers, diſtinct upon the ſame root,
claſs monœcia. POLYGAMOUS plants
bear hermaphrodite flowers, and ma
flowers, or both diſtinct, on the ſame
ferent roots.

(114.) When on the ſame root, the h
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GYNOUS and male; and ſometimes
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henſiveneſs, and utility, infinitely exc
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BLE OF THE CLASSES.

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e. one male or ſtamen in a hermaphrodite flow
— two males or ſtamina.
— three males.
— four males.
— five males.
— ſix males.
— ſeven males.
— eight males.
— nine males.
— ten males.
— twelve males.
— twenty, or more males inſerted into the ca
the males are uniformly ſhorter than the rest.
— four males, two long and two ſhort.
— ſix males, four long and two ſhort.
either connected to each other, or to the piſt
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the ſtamina united in a cylindrical form by the
ſtamina inſerted into the piſtillum.
ſtamina inſerted into the receptacle.
in ſeparate beds; *i. e.* plants that have ſtamen
flowers in the ſame ſpecies.
and female flowers diſtinct, in the ſame plan
and females in different plants, of the ſame ſpe
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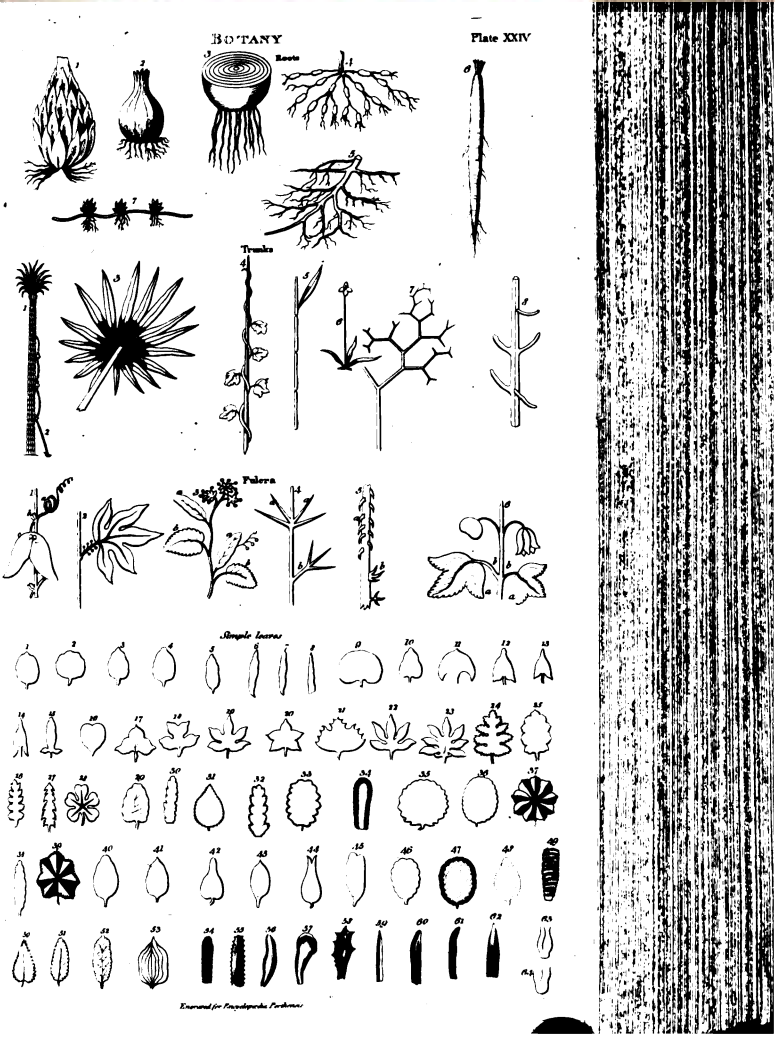
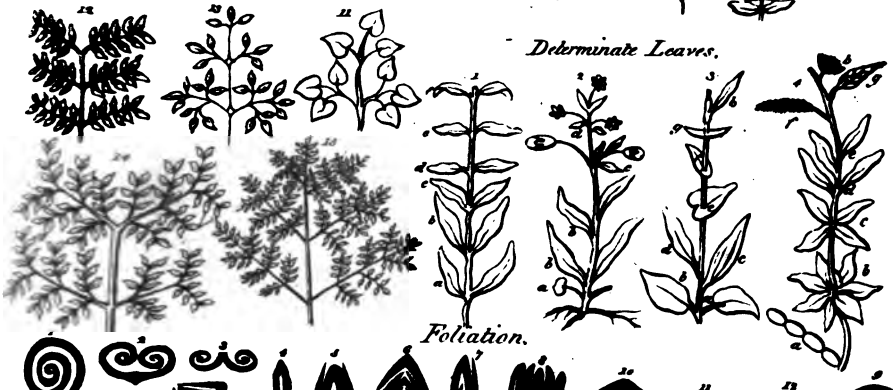


Compound Leaves.

Determinate Leaves.



Foliation.

Miscellaneous.

Rheum Palmatum or True Rhubarb.

Bignonia Radicans or Trumpet Flower.

Engrav. ad for Encyclopedia Perthensis.

SECT. V. *Of the* ORDERS *of* PLANTS.

(123.) The ORDERS are inferior diviſions, which lead us a ſtep nearer the genus. In the firſt 13 claſſes, they are taken from the female parts, in the ſame manner as the claſſes from the male: and named monogynia, digynia, trigynia, tetragynia, &c. *i. e.* one, two, three, four, &c. piſtilla, or female parts. When the piſtils have no ſtalk or filament like the ſtamina, they are numbered by the ſtigmata or tops of the piſtils, which in that caſe adhere to the capſule in the form of ſmall protuberances, as may be obſerved in the flowers of the poppy, &c.

(124.) In the 14th claſs the orders are derived from a different ſource. The plants belonging to it have their ſeeds either incloſed in a capſule, or altogether uncovered. Hence they are divided into *gymnoſpermia*, comprehending ſuch as have naked ſeeds; and *angioſpermia*, comprehending ſuch as have their ſeeds covered, or incloſed in a capſule. Mr Lee, in his *Introduction to Botany*, adds a 3d order, viz. *Polypetala*; but he mentions only one genus under it, viz. the melianthus, and the diſtinction ſeems hardly neceſſary, as it comes properly enough under *Angioſpermia*.

(125.) The 15th claſs is divided into two Orders, viz. the *ſiliculoſa*, or thoſe which have a ſhort pod; and the *ſiliquoſa*, or thoſe which have a longer one.

(126.) The Orders of the 16th, 17th, 18th, and 20th claſſes, are taken from the number of ſtamina; *e. g.* monadelphia *pentandria*, *decandria*, *polyandria*, &c.

(127.) The Orders of the 19th claſs are, 1. *Polygamia æqualis*, thoſe whoſe floſcules are all furniſhed with ſtamina and piſtils. *Polygamia ſuperflua*, comprehends plants that have hermaphrodite floſcules in the diſk, and female floſcules in the margin; which is made the foundation of the 3 next orders; viz. 2. *Polygamia ſuperflua*, thoſe whoſe hermaphrodite flowers in the diſk are furniſhed with ſtigmata, and bear ſeed; and whoſe female flowers in the radius likewiſe produce ſeeds. 3. *Polygamia fruſtranea*, ſuch as have hermaphrodite ſeed-bearing floſcules in the diſk; but whoſe floſcules in the radius, having no ſtigmata, are barren. 4. *Polygamia neceſſaria* is the reverſe of the former: the hermaphrodite flowers in the diſk want ſtigmata, and are barren; but the female floſcules in the radius are furniſhed with ſtigmata, and produce ſeeds. 5. *Polygamia ſegregata*, many floſcules incloſed in one common calyx, and each of the floſcules likewiſe furniſhed with a perianthium proper to itſelf. 6. *Monogamia*. This order conſiſts only of 7 genera, none of which have properly compound flowers, but are ranked under this claſs merely from having their ſtamina united by the antheræ.

(128.) The Orders of the 21ſt claſs are partly taken from the number of ſtamina, and partly from the names and characters peculiar to ſome of the other claſſes; *e. g.* monœcia *triandria*, monœcia *ſyngeneſia*, monœcia *gynandria*.

(129.) The Orders of the 22d claſs are founded upon the number, union, and ſituation of the ſtamina in the male flowers. The Orders of the 23d are all taken from claſſical characters; *e. g.* poly-

gamia *monœcia*, polygamia *diœcia*, and polygamia *triœcia*.

(130.) The 24th class is divided into 4 Orders: 1. *Filices*, comprehending all plants that bear their seeds in the back or edges of the leaf, and those that are called *capillary plants*. 2. *Musci*, which comprehends all the moss kind. 3. *Algæ*, including the lichens, fuci, and many others whose parts of fructification are either altogether invisible or exceedingly obscure. 4. *Fungi*, comprehending all the mushroom tribe.

(131.) In the following table the classes are repeated, for the more readily understanding the orders into which each class is subdivided. *Plate* XLIII. exhibits a view of the distinctive characters of each order; and in *Plate* XXVI. the classes are all expressed, along with one of the orders.

(132.) TABLE OF THE ORDERS.

CLASSES.	NUMBER *and* NAMES *of the* ORDERS.	
1. MONANDRIA	2	*Monogynia, Digynia.*
2. DIANDRIA	3	*Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia.*
3. TRIANDRIA	3	*Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia.*
4. TETRANDRIA	3	*Monogynia, Digynia, Tetragynia.*
5. PENTANDRIA	6	*Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia, Pentagynia, Polygynia.*
6. HEXANDRIA	5	*Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia, Polygynia.*
7. HEPTANDRIA	4	*Monogynia, Digynia, Tetragynia, Heptagynia.*
8. OCTANDRIA	4	*Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia.*
9. ENNEANDRIA	3	*Monogynia, Trigynia, Hexagynia.*
10. DECANDRIA	5	*Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Pentagynia, Decagynia.*
11. DODECANDRIA	5	*Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Pentagynia, Dodecagynia.*
12. ICOSANDRIA	5	*Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Pentagynia, Polygynia.*
13. POLYANDRIA	7	*Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia, Pentagynia, Hexagynia, Polygynia.*
14. DIDYNAMIA	2	*Gymnospermia, Angiospermia.*
15. TETRADYNAMIA	2	*Siliculosa, Siliquosa.*
16. MONADELPHIA	8	*Triandria, Pentandria, Octandria, Enneandria, Decandria, Endecandria, Dodecandria, Polyandria.*
17. DIADELPHIA	4	*Pentandria, Hexandria, Octandria, Decandria.*
18. POLYADELPHIA	4	*Pentandria, Dodecandria, Icosandria, Polyandria.*
19. SYNGENESIA	6	*Polygamia æqualis, Polygamia superflua, Polygamia frustranea, Polygamia necessaria, Polygamia segregata, Monogamia.*
20. GYNANDRIA	9	*Diandria, Triandria, Tetrandria, Pentandria, Hexandria, Octandria, Decandria, Dodecandria, Polyandria.*
21. MONOECIA	11	*Monandria, Diandria, Triandria, Tetrandria, Pentandria, Hexandria, Heptandria, Polyandria, Monadelphia, Syngenesia, Gynandria.*
22. DIOECIA	15	*Monandria, Diandria, Triandria, Tetrandria, Pentandria, Hexandria, Octandria, Enneandria, Decandria, Dodecandria, Icosandria, Polyandria, Monadelphia, Syngenesia, Gynandria.*
23. POLYGAMIA	3	*Monœcia, Diœcia, Triœcia.*
24. CRYPTOGAMIA	4	*Filices, Musci, Algæ, Fungi.*
APPENDIX	1	*Palmæ.*

(133.) Some botanists rank these last as a 25th class; but this is improper, as they are all capable of being arranged in the preceding classes of the system, although on account of their singular structure, Linnæus placed them in an appendix. They contain such genera as have a spadix and spatha, *i. e.* whose flowers and fruit are produced on that particular receptacle called a *spadix*, protruded from a common calyx in form of a sheath, called *spatha*. This order consists of trees and shrubs only. These have always a simple stem, not branched, bearing leaves at the top, resembling those of fern, being a composition of a leaf and a branch, called *frondes*; and the corolla hath always 3 petals.

(134.) EXPLANATION *of the* BOTANICAL FIGURES *in* PLATE XXVI.—CLASSES *and* ORDERS. *Fig.* 1. Illustrates the class *Monandria*, and order *Monogynia*; one stamen and one pistil.

Diandria Monogynia, two stamina, one pistil.

Triandria Digynia, three stamina, two stigmata.

Tetrandria Monogynia, four stamina, one pistil.

Pentandria Monogynia, five stamina, one pistil.

Hexandria Monogynia, six stamina, one pistil.

Heptandria Monogynia, seven stamina, one pistil.

Octandria Monogynia, eight stamina, one pistil.

Enneandria Monogynia, nine stamina, one pistil.

Decandria Pentagynia, ten stamina, five pistils.

Dodecandria Monogynia, 12 stamina, one pistil.

Icosandria Polygynia, 20 stamina arising from the substance of the calyx or corolla, with many stigmata.

Polyandria Monogynia, many stamina, one pistil.

Didynamia, two stamina longer than the other two.

Tetradynamia, six stamina, 4 long and 2 short.

Monadelphia Pentagynia, many stamina united at the base, and forming a cylinder with five stigmata.

Diadelphia, the stamina in two parcels.

Polyadelphia, many sets of stamina in one flower.

Syngenesia, antheræ united.

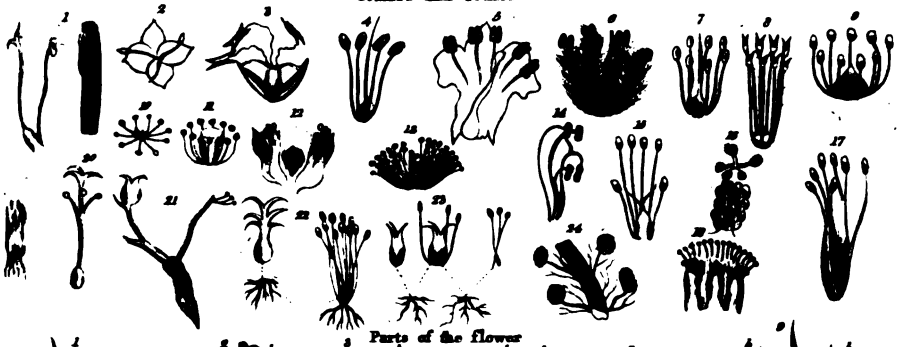
Gynandria, stamina connected to the pistil.

Monœcia, male and female flowers separate, but on the same plant.

Diœcia, male and female flowers on distinct plants, bearing from a separate root.

Polygamia,

Claſſes and Orders



Parts of the flower

Parts of the fruit

Bos Caffer, or Cape Buffalo.

BOS.

Bos Indicus, or Little Indian Buffalo.

Bubalus, or Common Buffalo.

The Musk Bull and Cow.

Engraved for Encyclopædia Perthensis.

BOTANY.

Linnean System.

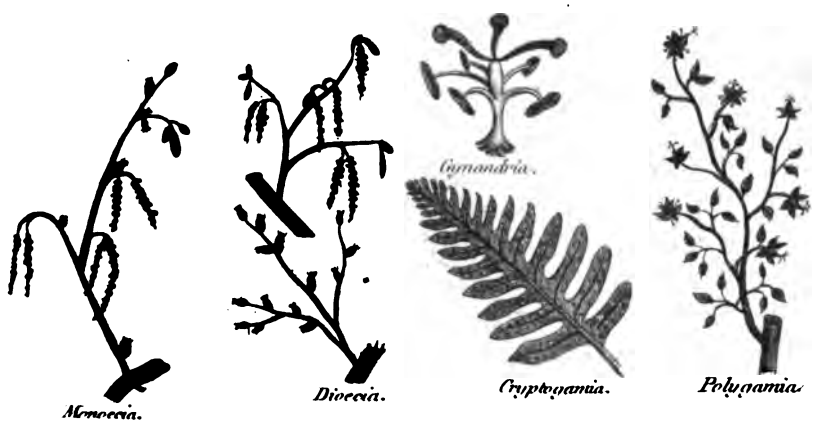
Monandria. *Diandria.* *Triandria.* *Tetrandria.* *Pentandria.* *Hexandria.*

Octandria. *Enneandria.* *Decandria.* *Dodecandria.*

Polyandria. *Didynamia.* *Tetradynamia.*

Monadelphia. *Diadelphia.* *Polyadelphia.*

Syngenesia.



Monoecia. *Dioecia.* *Gymnandria.* *Cryptogamia.* *Polygamia.*

Engraved for Encyclopædia Perthensis.

LINNEAN SYSTEM.

Monœcamia

Diœcia

Triœcia

Tetragynia

Pentagynia

Hexagynia

Heptagynia

Decagynia

Dodecagynia

Polygynia

Gymnospermia

Angiospermia

Siliculosa

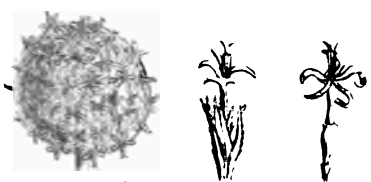
Siliquosa

Polygamia Æqualis

Polygamia Superflua

Polygamia Frustanea

Polygamia Necessaria


Polygamia Segregata

Trioecia

Polygamia Monogamia

Filices

Musci

Algæ

Fungi

Library of the Encyclopaedia Britannica

gamia, male, female, and hermaphrodite flowers. 24. *Cryptogamia*, concealed fructification.——PARTS *of the* FLOWER, *Fig.* 1. A flower with its corolla, piſtillum, and ſtamina; *a*, the petals of the corolla; *b*, the germen; *c*, the ſtyle; *d*, the ſtigma; *e*, the filaments; *f*, the antheræ. 2. The calyx, piſtillum, and ſtamina, ſeparate from the corolla; *a*, the perianthium; *b*, the germen; *c*, the ſtyle; *d*, the ſtigma; *e*, the filaments; *f*, the antheræ burſting and diſcharging the pollen; *g*, an anthera before it has burſt. 3. A flower whoſe corolla is monopetalous; *a*, the corolla; *b*, the perianthium. 4. A polypetalous corolla; *a*, the ungues; *b*, the laminæ. 5. A *Narciſſus* iſſuing from its ſpatha: *a*, the flower; *b*, the ſpatha. 6. An amentum. 7. The fructification of a *Moſs*; *a*, the calyptra. 8. A *Fungus*; *a*, the volva. 9. A *Graſs*; *a*, the gluma, *b*, the ariſta. 10. A compound umbel: *a*, the univerſal umbel; *b*, partial umbels; *c*, univerſal involucrum; *d*, partial involucra. 11. A bractæa accompanying the flowers of the *Tilia*: *a*, the bractæa. 12. *a*, the pollen ſeen with a microſcope; *b*, an elaſtic vapour diſcharged from it.—PARTS *of the* FRUIT, *Fig.* 1. A capſule; *a*, the valvules. 2. *a*, A receptacle of ſeeds. 3. A ſtrobilus. 4. A winged ſeed; *a*, the ſeed; *b*, the wing. 5. A legumen; *a*, the upper ſuture, along which runs the receptacle of the ſeeds. 6. A ſiliqua: *a*, *b*, the two ſutures to which the ſeeds are faſtened alternately. 7. A ſeed crowned with a pappus; *a*, the ſeed; *b*, the ſtipes which ſupports the pappus; *c*, a hairy pappus; *d*, a feathery pappus. 8. The ſeed of a *Bean* ſplit in two; *a*, the cotyledons; *b*, the corculum, *c*, the roſtellum; *d*, the plumula; *e*, the hilum. 9. A drupa; *a*, the nucleus, or ſtone; *b*, the pulp. 10. A pomum; *a*, the capſule; *b*, the pulp. 11. A berry; *a*, the ſeeds; *b*, the pulp. 12. A ſeed crowned with a calyculus; *a*, the ſeed; *b*, the calyculus.

SECT. VI. *Of the* PARTS *that diſtinguiſh the* GENERA *of* PLANTS.

(135.) In inveſtigating the genus of a plant, we muſt firſt conſider its eſſence. The eſſence of every vegetable, ſays Linnæus, conſiſts in the fructification; the eſſence of the fructification in the flower and fruit; the eſſence of the flower conſiſts in the antheræ and ſtigma, and the eſſence of the fruit in the ſeed. Hence he makes the flower and fruit the foundation of his generic diſtinctions, in his ſexual theory.

(136.) Theſe are generally compoſed of 7 parts; the CALYX, the COROLLA, the STAMINA, the PISTILLUM, the PERICARPIUM, the SEMINA, and the RECEPTACULUM; and the preſence or abſence, the number, figure, proportion, and ſituation of the ſeveral parts, conſtitute the genus. But as there are few genera wherein all the parts of the *natural* character are conſtant in every one of the ſpecies, it is neceſſary to fix upon ſuch circumſtances as are conſtant in both genus and ſpecies, and call thoſe the *eſſential* or ruling character; both to diſtinguiſh one genus from another, and to fix the ſeveral ſpecies and their varieties to their reſpective genera; for which purpoſe, in ſome caſes, Linnæus was obliged to have recourſe to the *nectarium*. The firſt 4 parts of the fructification are properly parts of the flower, and the laſt 3 of the fruit.

(137.) I. The CALYX, or cup, is the termination of the outer bark of a plant. Its chief uſe is to incloſe, ſupport, and protect the other parts of the fructification. When preſent, it is ſeated on the receptacle: and is diſtinguiſhed by its figure: by the number, diviſion, and ſhape of its leaves, or ſegments; and by the following names, according to the circumſtances with which it is attended.

(138.) PERIANTHIUM, when its ſtation is cloſe to, and ſurrounds the other parts of the fructification, is called the *perianthium of the fructification*: If it includes many floſcules, as in ſcabioſa, and other aggregate and compound flowers, it is called a *common perianthium*: if it includes only one floſcule, it is called a *proper perianthium*: if it includes the ſtamina, and not the germen, it is the perianthium of the *flower*, and is ſaid to be *above*, as in lonicera, ribes, campanula, &c.: if it includes the germen, but not the ſtamina, it is the perianthium of the *fruit*, and is ſaid to be *below*, as in linnea and morina, each of which have two calyxes and two receptacles above each other, one of the flower and the other of the fruit.

(139.) INVOLUCRUM, when ſtationed at the foot of an umbel, below the common receptacle, and at a diſtance from the flower, is called *univerſal*, if placed under the univerſal umbel; and *partial*, if placed under a partial umbel.

(140.) AMENTUM conſiſts of a great number of chaffy ſcales, diſpoſed along a ſlender axis or common receptacle, which, from its reſemblance to a cat's tail, has obtained the name of *catkin*; and theſe flowers have generally no petals: Sometimes the ſame amentum ſupports both male and female flowers, diſtinct, on the ſame plant, as in carpinus, &c. ſometimes the male and female flowers are removed from each other on the ſame plant, and the amentum ſupports only the male flowers, and the female flowers are incloſed by a perianthium, as in corylus, fagus, &c. and ſometimes an amentum only ſupports male flowers on one plant, and female flowers on another plant, as in ſalix, populus, &c.

(141.) SPATHA, a ſort of calyx growing from the ſtalk, burſting lengthways, and protruding a ſpadix, ſupporting one or more flowers, which have often no perianthium. It conſiſts either of one leaf, with a valve on one ſide only, as in the greater number of ſpathaceous plants; or of two leaves, with two valves, as in ſtratiotes, &c. or is imbricated, as in muſa, &c. with one or two valves.

(142.) GLUMA, a huſk, chiefly belongs to corn and graſſes, conſiſting of 1, 2, 3, or more valves, folding over each other like ſcales, and frequently terminated by a long, ſtiff, pointed prickle, called the *ariſta*.

(143.) CALYPTRA, the proper calyx of moſſes, is placed over the antheræ of the ſtamina, reſembling an extinguiſher, a hood, or monk's cowl.

(144.) VOLVA, ſo named from its *infolding*, is the proper calyx of funguſſes, being membranaceous, and ſurrounding the ſtalk, before their expanſion.

(145.) It is often difficult to diſtinguiſh the

calyx from the *bracteæ*, which are found on many plants, situated on the flower ſtalks; and are often ſo near to the lower parts of the fructification as to be miſtaken for the calyx, as in tilia, paſſiflora, &c. but they may be beſt diſtinguiſhed by this rule; the bracteæ differ in ſhape and colour from the other leaves of the plant, but are commonly of the ſame duration; whereas the calyx always withers when the fruit is ripe, if not before.

(146.) II. The COROLLA is the termination of the inner bark of the plant; which accompanies the fructification in the form of leaves variouſly coloured. It is generally ſeated on the receptacle, ſometimes on the calyx; ſerving as an inner work of defence to the part it incloſes; as the calyx, which is uſually of ſtronger texture, does for an outer. The leaves of the corolla are called *petals*, by the number, diviſion, and ſhape of which it is diſtinguiſhed. It is ſaid to be *below*, when it includes the germen, and is attached to the part immediately below it, as in borago, &c. and it is ſaid to be *above*, when it is placed above the germen, as in crataegus, &c. In reſpect to duration, the corolla either continues till the fruit is ripe, as in nymphæa; or falls off at the firſt opening of the flower, as in actæa; or with the ſtamina and other parts of the flower, as in moſt plants; or does not fall, but withers, as in campanula, &c.

(147.) The NECTARIUM, Linnæus ſays, principally belongs to the corolla, as an appendage to the petals: and contains the honey, which is the principal food of bees and other inſects. But though, in plants where it is found, it may be attached to the corolla, and be then moſt evident; yet it is almoſt as often attached to other parts of the fructification: Linnæus therefore chiefly makes uſe of it as an eſſential character in many of the genera, as being leſs variable than others, and obſerves, that when it is not united with the ſubſtance of the petals, thoſe plants are generally poiſonous: The tube or lower part of monopetalous flowers, he conſiders as a true nectarium, becauſe it contains a ſweet liquor. But as it affords very ſingular varieties in other inſtances, it has the following diſtinctions.

1. CALYCINE NECTARIA ſuch as are ſituated upon, and make a part of, the calyx; as in tropæolum, monotropa, &c.

2. COROLLACEOUS NECTARIA are attached to the corolla, and are called calcariate when they reſemble a ſpur. They are either on flowers of one petal, as in valeriana, &c. or on flowers of many petals, as in viola, &c. or within the ſubſtance of the petals, as in lilium, iris, &c.

3. STAMINEOUS NECTARIA attend the ſtamina, and are either ſeated upon the antheræ, as in adenanthera; or upon the filaments, as in lauſus, &c.

4. PISTILLACEOUS NECTARIA accompany the piſtillum, and are placed upon the germen, as in hyacinthus, butomus, &c.

5. RECEPTACULACEOUS NECTARIA join the receptacle, as in polygonum, ſedum, &c.

NECTARIA, that crown the corolla, are placed in a row within the petals, though entirely united with their ſubſtance, as in ſilene, &c. and in this ſituation often reſemble a cup, as in narciſſus, &c.

7. NECTARIA of ſingular conſtruction, are ſuch as cannot properly be placed under any of the foregoing diſtinctions, as in amomum, curcuma, ſaliva, urtica, &c. The proper uſe of the nectarium, is not yet diſcovered.

(148.) III. The STAMINA, or chives, are the males of the flower, proceeding from the wood of the plant. Each ſtamen conſiſts of two parts, viz. the filament and the antheræ. In moſt flowers they are placed upon the receptacle, within the corolla, and round the germen; and are chiefly diſtinguiſhed by number.

(149.) 1. The FILAMENT is the thread-ſhaped part of the ſtamen, ſerving as a footſtalk to elevate the antheræ, and ſometimes has jags or diviſions; which are either two, as in ſalvia; 3 as in fumaria; or 9, as in the claſs diadelphia. They are alſo diſtinguiſhed by their form or figure, as awl-ſhaped, thread-ſhaped, hair-like, ſpiral, revolute, &c. by their proportion, as equal, unequal, irregular, long, or ſhort; and by their ſituation, being generally oppoſite to the leaves or diviſions of the calyx, and alternate with the petals; that is, when the diviſions of the calyx are equal in number to the petals, and to the ſtamina. In monopetalous flowers they are generally inſerted into the corolla; but ſcarcely ever in flowers of more than one petal, but into the receptacle: Yet in the claſs icoſandria they are inſerted into the calyx or corolla (though the flowers have many petals,) as alſo in a few other plants. But in the claſs polyandria, and moſt other polypetalous plants, they are inſerted into the receptacle, like the calyx and corolla. The claſs gynandria, however, is an exception to the above rules, where the ſtamina are ſometimes without filaments.

(150.) 2. The ANTHERA, from ἄνθος, a flower, emphatically ſo called from its great utility in the fructification, is the top of the filament, containing the impregnating pollen; and is either one to each filament, as in moſt plants; or one common to three filaments, as in cucurbita, &c. or one common to 5 filaments, as in the claſs ſyngeneſia: or ſometimes there are two antheræ to each filament, as in ranunculus and mercurialis: 3 to each filament, as in fumaria; 5 to 3 filaments, as in bryonia; or 5 to each, as in theobroma. The anthera is alſo diſtinguiſhed by its form or figure, as oblong, round, angular, &c. It conſiſts of one or more cells, which burſt differently in different parts; either in the ſide, as in moſt plants; on the top; or from the top to the baſe. It is alſo faſtened to the top of the filament, either by its baſe, as in moſt plants, or horizontally by its middle, to the top of the filament, ſo poiſed as to turn like a vane; or it is fixed by its ſide, leaning to the top of the filament, then called incumbent. Sometimes it grows to the nectarium, as in coltus; to the receptacle, as in arum; or to the piſtillum, in the claſs gynandria.

(151.) IV. The PISTILLUM, or the female of the flower, proceeding from the pith of the plant, is that erect column which is generally placed in the centre of the flower, amidſt the ſtamina; and conſiſts of 3 parts, the germen, the ſtyle, and the ſtigma.

(152.)

(152.) 1. The GERMEN is the baſe of the piſtillum, ſupporting the ſtyle. After ſome time, it becomes a ſeed-veſſel, and may therefore be conſidered as the rudiment of the pericarpium. It is diſtinguiſhed by its ſhape, number, and ſituation; and is ſaid to be *above* or *below*, according to its ſituation above or below the attachment of the corolla.

(153.) 2. The STYLE elevates the ſtigma from the germen, to receive the influence of the ſtamina, and to convey it down to the germen as through a tube. It is diſtinguiſhed either by its number, which, when preſent (or when abſent, the number of ſtigmata,) gives riſe to moſt of the orders, and are called ſo many females; or by its divisions, being double, treble, or quadruple, &c. though joined at the baſe; or by its length, being longer, ſhorter, or equal with the ſtamina; or by its proportion, being thicker or thinner than the ſtamina; or by its figure, being regular, cylindric, awl ſhaped, bent, &c. or by its ſituation, being generally on the top of the germen, though in ſome inſtances ſuppoſed to be both above and below, as in capparis and euphorbia; unleſs the lower part in theſe genera be conſidered as the extenſion of the receptacle. It is often placed on the ſide of the germen, as in hirtella, ſuriana; alſo in roſa, rubus, and the reſt of the plants in the claſs icoſandria and order polygynia. With reſpect to duration, it generally falls with the other parts of the flower; but in ſome plants it is permanent, and attends the fruit to its maturity, as in the claſs tetradynamia. In flowers which have no ſtyle, the ſtigma adheres to the germen.

(154.) 3. The STIGMA, when ſingle, is generally placed like a head on the ſummit of the ſtyle; when ſeveral, they are placed on the top, or regularly diſpoſed along the ſide; and covered with moiſture, to retain the pollen of the antheræ. It is diſtinguiſhed either by its number, being ſingle in moſt plants; or by its diviſions, figure, length, thickneſs, or duration; as in moſt plants it withers when the germen is become a ſeed-veſſel; in ſome it is permanent, as in papaver.

(155.) V. The PERICARPIUM, is the germen grown to maturity, and become a matrix. All plants, however, are not furniſhed with a ſeed-veſſel, as corylus, &c. In many, it is ſupplied chiefly by the calyx, which converging incloſes the ſeeds till they arrive at maturity; as is the caſe with the rough-leaved plants, and the labiat and compound flowers of the claſſes, pentandria, didynamia, and ſyngeneſia. Sometimes the receptacle ſupplies the office of ſeed-veſſel, as in gundelia; and ſometimes the nectarium, as in carex. The pericarpium is ſituated at the receptacle of the flower, either above or below, or both, as in ſaxifraga and lobelia: and is diſtinguiſhed by the following appellations, according to its different ſtructure.

(156.) 1. CAPSULA is frequently ſucculent whilſt green; but when ripe, it is a dry huſky ſeed-veſſel, that parts to diſcharge its contents; and by ſome elaſtic motion, the ſeeds are often darted forth with conſiderable velocity, as in dictamnus, &c. It opens either at the top, as in moſt plants; at the bottom; at the ſide, horizontally acroſs the middle; or longitudinally; and if it is articulated or jointed, it opens at each of the joints, which contains a ſingle ſeed. It is diſtinguiſhed externally, by its number of valves; and internally, by the number of its cells, wherein the ſeed is incloſed; as well as by its ſhape and ſubſtance.

(157.) 2. SILIQUA, a pod, is a pericarpium of two valves; but as ſome are long, others round or broad, Linnæus diſtinguiſhes them by their form into *ſiliqua* and *ſilicula* which give name to the 2 orders in the claſs tetradynamia. The *ſiliqua* is a long pod, being much longer than broad, as in braſſica, ſinapis, &c. the *ſilicula*, a little pod, is a roundiſh pod, either flat or ſpherical, and the length and breadth nearly equal, as in lunaria, draba, &c. In both, the apex, which had been the ſtyle, is often ſo long beyond the valves, as to be of equal length with the pod; and the ſeeds in both are faſtened alternately by a ſlender thread, to both the ſutures or joinings of the valves.

(158.) 3. LEGUMEN, pulſe, is alſo a pod, and is likewiſe a pericarpium of two valves, wherein the ſeeds are faſtened to ſhort receptacles along the upper ſuture only, on each ſide, alternate: this chiefly belongs to the papilionaceous flowers of the claſs diadelphia.

(159.) 4. POLLICULUS, or CONCEPTACULUM, is a pericarpium of one valve only, opening lengthways on one ſide, and the ſeeds not faſtened to the ſuture, but to a receptacle within the fruit, as in aſclepias, &c.

(160.) 5. DRUPA is a pericarpium that is pulpy, having no valve. It contains within its ſubſtance a nut, or ſeed incloſed with a hard ligneous cruſt, as olea, cornus, &c. and when the drupa is ſeated below the calyx, it is furniſhed with an umbilicus like the pomum.

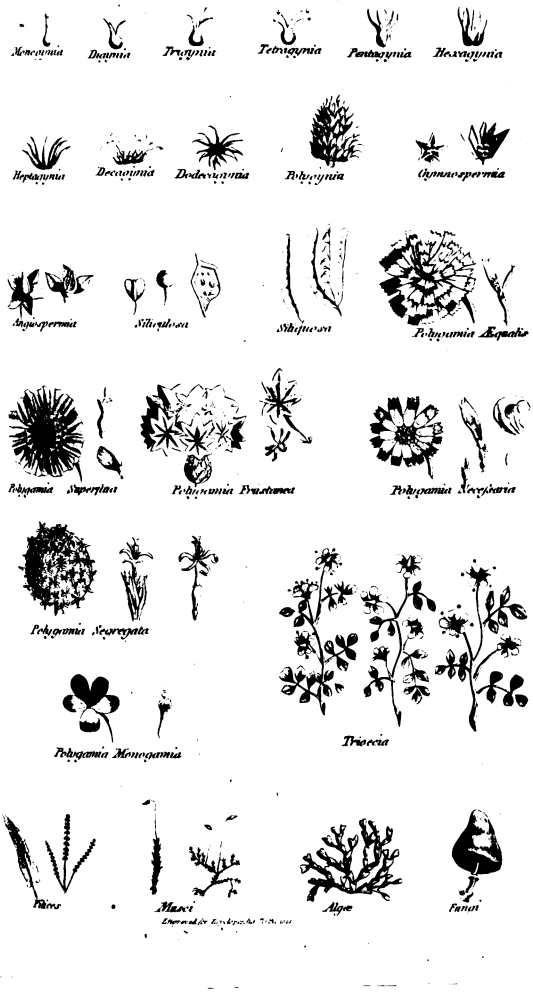
(161.) 6. POMUM, an apple, is alſo a pulpy pericarpium without valve; but containing in the middle a membranous capſule, with ſeveral cells containing the ſeeds; and at the end oppoſite to the footſtalk there is generally a ſmall cavity, called *umbilicus* from its reſemblance to the navel in animals; and which was formerly the calyx, ſeated above the fruit, and perſiſtent, as in pyrus, cucumis, &c.

(162.) 7. BACCA, a berry, is alſo a pulpy pericarpium without valve, incloſing one or more ſeeds, which have no membranous capſule or covering, but are diſpoſed promiſcuouſly through the pulp, as in ſolanum, &c. and are generally placed on footſtalks attached to receptacles within the pulp, as in ribes, &c. The berry alſo admits of the following diſtinction: It is ſaid to be *proper*, when it is a true pericarpium formed of a germen; and *improper*, when it is formed from other parts of the fructification; as in roſa, juniperus, &c. A large ſucculent calyx becomes a berry; and in juniperus, the 3 petals become the umbilicus; in poterium the berry is formed of the tube of the corolla; in fragaria, &c. it is formed of the top of the receptacle; in rubus, &c. it is formed from a ſeed, which is the receptacle of the berry; in ruſcus, &c. it is incloſed within and is a part of the nectary. The berry is commonly either round or oval, and is frequently furniſhed with an umbilicus, as in ribes, &c. it does not naturally

BOTANY

Plate XLIII.

LINNEAN SYSTEM.



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Sideroxylum, Rhamnus, Arduina, Ellisia, Phylica, Bladhia, and Fragræa. 6. Polypetalous, viz. Ceanothus, Byttneria, Myrsine, Celastrus, Euonymus, Diosma, Brunia, Itea, Galax, Cedrela, Mangifera, Hirtella, Ribes, Gronovia, Hedera, Vitis, Lagœtia, Sauvagesia, Claytonia, Achyranthes, Roridula, Kunhia, Plectronia, Cyrilla, Aquilicia, Heliconia, Carissa, Celosia, Calodendrum, Chenolea, and Corynocarpus. 7. Incomplete flowers, viz. Illecebrum, Glaux, and Thesium. 8. Such as have lobes of the corollæ bent obliquely to the right, viz. Rauvolfia, Cerbera, Vinca, Gardenia, Nerium, Plumeria, Echites, Cameraria, and Tabernæmontana. II. Digynia contains, 75 genera, distinguished into, 1. Such as have the lobes of the corollæ bent obliquely to the right, viz. Periploca, Cynanchum, Apocynum, Asclepias, Linconia, and Stapelia. 2. Monospermous, viz. Herniaria, Chenopodium, Beta, Salsola, Anabasis, Cressa, Gomphrena, Steris, Bosea, and Ulmus. 3. Polyspermous, viz. Nama, Hydrolea, Heuchera, Swertia, Schrebera, Velezia, Gentiana, Bumalda, Coprosma, Cussonia, Melondinus, Russelia, and Vahlia. 4. Gymnodispermous, with a simple umbel, viz. Phyllis, Eryngium, and Hydrocotyle. 5. Gymnodispermous with an universal umbel and partial involucrum, viz. Sanicula, Astrantia, Bupleurum, Echinophora, Tordylium, Caucalis, Artedia, Daucus, Ammi, Bunium, Conium, Selinum, Athamanta, Peucedanum, Crithmum, Hasselquistia, Cachrys, Ferula, Laserpitium, Heracleum, Ligusticum, Angelica, Sium, Sison, Bubon, Cuminum, and Oenanthe. 6. Gymnodispermous, with only one partial umbel, viz. Phellandrium, Cicuta, Æthusa, Coriandrum, Scandix, Chærophyllum, Imperatoria, and Seseli. 7. Gymnodispermous without any involucrum, viz. Thapsia, Pastinaca, Smyrnium, Anethum, Carum, Pimpinella, Apium, and Ægopodium. III. Trigynia, 17 genera, viz. Rhus, Viburnum, Cassine, Sambucus, Spathelia, Staphylea, Tamarix, Turnera, Telephium, Corrigiola, Pharnaceum, Alcine, Drypis, Basella, Sarothra, Xylophylla, and Semicarpus. IV. Tetragynia, 2 genera, viz. Parnassia, and Evolvulus. V. Pentagynia, 10 genera, viz. Aralia, Mahernia, Statice, Linum, Aldrovanda, Drosera, Crassula, Sibbaldia, Gisekia, and Commersonia. VI. Polygynia, 1 genus, viz. Myosorus.

(181.) Class VI. Hexandria. Ord. I. Monogynia, contains 62 genera, distinguished into 1. Such as have trifid corollæ, and a calyx, viz. Bromelia, Tillandsia, Burmannia, Tradescantia, Burfera, Licuala, and Lachenalia. 2. Such as have monophyllous spatha, viz. Pontederea, Hæmanthus, Galanthus, Leucoium, Tulbagia, Narcissus, Pancratium, Duroia, and Nandina. 3. Such as are hexapetalous and naked, viz. Crinum, Amaryllis, Bulbocodium, Aphyllanthes, Allium, Lilium, Fritillaria, Uvularia, Gloriosa, Tulipa, Erythronium, Albuca, Ornithogalum, Scilla, Hypoxis, Cyanella, Asphodelus, Anthericum, Leontice, Dracena, Asparagus, Ehrharta, Massonia, Phormium, and Pollia. 4. Monopetalous and naked, viz. Convallaria, Polyanthes, Hyacinthus, Aletris, Yucca, Aloe, Agave, Alstroemeria, Capura, and Hemerocallis. 5. Such as have a calyx, but the corollæ not trifid, viz. Acorus, Orontium, Calamus, Juncus, Achras, Richardia, Pisonia, Buxus, Berberis, Loranthus, Frankenia, Hillia, Peplis, and Canaria. II. Digynia, contains 4 genera, viz. Atraphaxis, Oryza, Falkia, and Gahnia. III. Trigynia, 10 genera, viz. Flagellaria, Rumex, Scheuchzeria, Triglochin, Melanthium, Medeola, Trillium, Colchicum, Helonias, and Wurmbea. IV. Tetragynia, one genus, viz. Petiveria. V. Polygynia, one genus, viz. Alisma.

(182.) Class VII. Heptandria. Order I. Monogynia, contains 3 genera, viz. Trientalis, Disandra, and Æsculus. II. Digynia, one genus, viz. Limeum. III. Tetragynia, two genera, viz. Saururus, and Aponogeton. IV. Heptagynia, one genus, viz. Septas.

(183.) Class VIII. Octandria. Ord. I. Monogynia, contains 31 genera, viz. Tropæolum, Osbeckia, Rhexia, Oenothera, Gaura, Epilobium, Melicocca, Grisiea, Amyris, Allophylus, Combretum, Fuchsia, Ximenia, Mimusops, Jambolifera, Memecylon, Lawsonia, Vaccinium, Erica, Daphne, Dirca, Gnidia, Stellera, Passerina, Lachnæa, Antichorus, Chlora, Dodonæa, Ophira, Guarea, and Bæckea. II. Digynia, 5 genera, viz. Galenia, Weinmannia, Moehringia, Schmidelia, and Codia. III. Trigynia, 5 genera, viz. Polygonum, Coccoloba, Paulinia, Cardiospermum, and Sapindus. IV. Tetragynia, 4 genera, viz. Paris, Adoxa, Elatine, and Haloragis.

(184.) Class IX. Enneandria. Order I. Monogynia, contains 3 genera, viz. Laurus, Tinus, and Cassyta. II. Trigynia, one genus, viz. Rheum. III. Hexagynia, one genus, viz. Butomus.

(185.) Class X. Decandria. Ord. I. Monogynia contains 56 genera, distinguished into 1. Such as have declined stamina, viz. Sophora, Anagyris, Cercis, Bauhinia, Parkinsonia, Hymenæa, Cassia, Poinciana, Cæsalpinia, Guilandina, Guaiacum, Cynometra, Anacardium, Swietenia, and Dictamnus. 2. Such as have erect stamina, viz. Ruta, Toluifera, Hæmatoxylum, Adenanthera, Melia, Trichilia, Zygophyllum, Quassia, Fagonia, Tribulus, Thyrallis, Murraya, Monotropa, Justicua, Limonia, Melastoma, Kalmia, Ledum, Quisqualis, Dais, Bergera, Bucida, Copaifera, Samyda, Rhododendron, Andromeda, Epigæa, Gualtheria, Arbutus, Clethra, Pyrola, Prosopis, Heisteria, Chalcas, Codon, Styrax, Turræa, Dionæa, Ekebergia, Inocarpus, and Myroxylon. II. Digynia, contains 12 genera, viz. Royena, Hydrangea, Cunonia, Chrysosplenium, Saxifraga, Tiarella, Metella, Scleranthus, Triathema, Gypsophila, Saponaria, and Dianthus. III. Trigynia, 12 genera, viz. Cucubalus, Silene, Stellaria, Arenaria, Cherleria, Garidella, Malpighia, Banisteria, Triopteris, Erythroxylon, Hirtæ and Deutzia. IV. Pentagynia, 14 genera, viz. Averrhoa, Spondias, Cotyledon, Sedum, Penthorum, Oxalis, Suriana, Lychnis, Agrostemma, Coraftium, Spergula, Grielum, Forskohlea, and Begia. V. Decagynia, 2 genera, viz. Neurada and Phytolacca.

(186.) Class XI. Dodecandria. Ord. I. Monogynia, contains 25 genera, viz. Asarum, Gethyllis, Bocconia, Rhizophora, Blakea, Garcinia, Winterana, Cratæva, Triumfetta, Bassia, Peganum, Halesia, Nitraria, Portulaca, Hudsonia, Lythrum

Lythrum, Ginora, Decumaria, Befaria, Vatica, Apadis, Canella, Dodecas, Eurya, and Ariſtotelia. II. DIGYNIA, 2 genera, viz. Heliocarpus, and Agrimonia. III TRIGYNIA, 5 genera, viz. Reseda, Euphorbia, Pallaſia, Tacca, and Viſnea. IV. PENTAGYNIA, one genus, viz. Glinus. V. DODECAGYNIA, one genus, viz. Sempervivum.

(189.) CLASS XII. ICOSANDRIA. ORD. I. MONOGYNIA, contains 11 genera, viz. Cactus, Euphorbia, Philadelphus, Pſidium, Myrtus, Punica, Amygdalus, Prunus, Plinia, Chryſobalanus, and Semeratia. II. DIGYNIA, one genus, viz. Crataegus. III. TRIGYNIA, two genera, viz. Sorbus, and Sciuvium. IV PENTAGYNIA, 6 genera, viz. Mespilus, Pyrus, Tetragonia, Meſembryanthemum, Aizoon, and Spiræa. V. POLYGYNIA, 9 genera, viz. Roſa, Rubus, Fragaria, Potentilla, Tormentilla, Geum, Dryas, Comarum, and Calycanthus.

(192.) CLASS XII. POLYANDRIA. ORD. I. MONOGYNIA, contains 42 genera, diſtinguiſhed into, 1. Such as have ſcarce any ſtyle, viz. Marcgravia, Portlandia, Actæa, Sanguinaria, Podophyllum, Chelidonium, Papaver, Argemone, Muntingia, Cambya, Sarracena, and Nymphæa. 2. Such as have a ſtyle of ſome length, viz. Bixa, Sloanea, Capparis, Mammea, Ochna, Calophyllum, Grias, Thea, Lactia, Elæocarpus, Lecythis, Vateria, Lasianthroemia. Thea, Caryophyllus, Mentzellia, Portia, Ciſtus, Prockia, Corchorus, Seguieria, Loaſa, Trewia, Trilix, Alſtonia, Cleyera, Myriſtica, Sparrmania, Terniſtromia, and Vallea. II. DIGYNIA, 4 genera, viz. Pæonia, Calligonum, Canella, and Fothergilla. III. TRIGYNIA, 2 genera, viz. Delphinium, and Aconitum. IV. TETRAGYNIA, 3 genera, viz. Tetracera, Caſſytha, and Cimicifuga. V. PENTAGYNIA, 4 genera, viz. Aquilegia, Nigella, Reaumuria, and Brachys. VI. HEXAGYNIA, one genus, viz. Stratiotes. VII. POLYGYNIA, 21 genera, viz. Dillenia, Liriodendron, Magnolia, Michelia, Uvaria, Anona, Anemone, Atragene, Clematis, Thalictrum, Adonis, Illicium, Ranunculus, Trollius, Hydrastis, Helleborus, Caltha, Hydraſtis, Houttuynia, Unona, and Wintera.

(193.) CLASS XIV. DIDYNAMIA. ORD. I. GYMNOSPERMIA, contains 34 genera, diſtinguiſhed into, 1. Such as have the calyx quinquefid, and ringent, viz. Ajuga, Teucrium, Satureja, Thymbra, Hyſſopus, Nepeta, Lavandula, Betonica, Sideritis, Mentha, Glechoma, Perilla, Lamium, Galeopſis, Stachys, Ballota, Marrubium, Leonurus, Phlomis, and Moluccella. 2. Such as have the calyx bilabiate, viz. Clinopodium, Origanum, Thymus, Meliſſa, Dracocephalon, Hormium, Melittis, Ocymum, Trichoſtema, Scutellaria, Prunella, Cleonia, Praſium, and Phryma. II. ANGIOSPERMIA, contains 69 genera, diſtinguiſhed into, 1. Such as have a ſimple ſtigma, and perfonate corollæ, viz. Bartſia, Rhinanthus, Euphraſia, Melampyrum, Lathræa, Schwalbea, Tozzia, Pedicularis, Gerardia, Chelone, Geſneria, Antirrhinum, and Cymbaria. 2. A ſimple ſtigma and ſpreading corollæ, viz. Craniolaria, Martynia, Tweedia, Scrophularia, Celſia, Digitalis, Bignonia, Catharexylum, Halleria, Creſcentia, Gmelina, Petiveria, Lantana, Cornutia, Lœſelia, Capraria, Sutera, Hebenſtretia, Erinus, Buchnera, Brow-

allia, Linnæa, Sibthorpia, Limoſella, Hemimeris, Dombeya, Caſtilleja, Millingtonia, Thunbergia, and Amaſonia. 3. With a double ſtigma, viz. Stemodia, Obolaria, Orobanche, Dodartia, Lippia, Seſamum, Mimulus, Ruellia, Barleria, Duranta, Ovieda, Volkameria, Clerodendron, Vitex, Bontia, Columnea, Acanthus, Pedalium, Avicennia, Vandelia, Manulea, Beſleria, Lindernia, Premna, and Hyobanche. 4. Polypetalous, viz. Melianthus.

(190.) CLASS XV. TETRADYNAMIA. ORD. I. SILICULOSA, contains 14 genera, viz. Myagrum, Vella, Anaſtatica, Subularia, Draba, Lepidium, Thlaſpi, Cochlearia, Iberis, Alyſſum, Peltaria, Clypeola, Biſcutella, and Lunaria. II. SILIQUOSA, 18 genera, viz. Ricotia, Dentaria, Cardamine, Siſymbrium, Eryſimum, Cheiranthus, Heliophila, Heſperis, Arabis, Turritis, Braſſica, Sinapis, Raphanus, Bunias, Iſatis, Crambe, Cleome, and Chamira.

(191.) CLASS XVI. MONADELPHIA ORD. I. TRIANDRIA contains 3 genera, viz. Aphyteja, Galaxia, and Hydnora. II. PENTANDRIA 5; viz. Waltheria, Lerchea, Hermannia, Melochia, and Symphonia. III. OCTANDRIA, one genus; viz. Aytonia. IV. ENNEANDRIA one genus; viz. Dryandra. V. DECANDRIA, 3 genera; viz. Conarus, Geranium, and Hugonia. VI. ENDECANDRIA, one genus; viz. *Brownea*. VII. DODECANDRIA, one genus; viz. Pentapetes. VIII. POLYANDRIA, 21 genera; viz. Bombyx, Sida, Adanſonia, Althæa, Alcea, Malva, Lavatera, Malope, Urena, Goſſypium, Hibiſcus, Stewartia, Camellia, Moriſonia, Meſua, Malachra, Gordonia, Guſtavia, Carolinea, Barringtonia, and Solandra.

(192.) CLASS XVII. DIADELPHIA. ORD. I. PENTANDRIA, contains one genus; viz. Monnieria. II. HEXANDRIA, 2 genera; viz. Funaria, and Saraca. III. OCTANDRIA, 3; viz. Polygala, Securidaca, and Dalbergia. IV. DECANDRIA, 50 genera, diſtinguiſhed into, 1. Such as have monadelphous filaments: viz. Niſſolia, Erythrina, Piſcidia, Borbonia, Spartium, Geniſta, Aſpalathus, Amorpha, Crotolaria, Ononis, Anthyllis, Ebenus, Abrus, Pterocarpus, Ulex, Arachis, and Lupinus. 2. Such as have diadelphous filaments and a downy ſtigma; viz. Phaſeolus, Dolichus, Glycine, Clitoria, Piſum, Orobus, Lathyrus, Vicia, Cicer, and Ervum. 3. Such as have diadelphous filaments, bilabiate calyces, and the ſtigma not downy; viz. Cytiſus, Geoffroya, Robinia, Colutea, Glycirrhiza, and Coronilla. 4. Such as have diadelphous filaments, ſtigmata not downy, and calyces not bilabiate; viz. Ornithopus, Hippocrepis, Scorpiurus, Hedyſarum, Æſchynomene, Indigofera, Galega, Phaca, Aſtragalus, Biſerrula, Pſoralea, Trifolium, Lotus, Liparia, Trigonella, Medicago, and Mullera.

(193.) CLASS XVIII. POLYADELPHIA. ORD. I. PENTANDRIA, contains two genera; viz. Theobroma, and Abroma. II. DODECANDRIA, one genus; viz. Monſonia. III. ICOSANDRIA, one genus; viz. Citrus. IV. POLYANDRIA, 8 genera; viz. Hypericum, Aſcyrum, Hopea, Symplocos, Melaleuca, Durio, Munchhauſia, and Glabraria.

(194.) CLASS XIX. SYNGENESIA. ORD. I. POLYGAMIA ÆQUALIS, contains 42 genera, diſtinguiſhed into, 1. Such as have ligulate compound

flowers; viz. Geropogon, Tragopogon, Scorzonera, Picris, Sonchus, Lactuca, Chondrilla; Prenanthes, Leontodon, Hieracium, Crepis, Andriala, Hyoseris, Seriola, Hypochæris, Lapsana, Catananche, Cichorium, and Scolymus. 2. Such as have tubulose compound flowers; viz. Arctium, Serratula, Carduus, Cnicus, Onopordon, Cynara, Carlina, Carthamus, Bidens, Cacalia, Atractylis, Eupatorium, Ageratum, Ethulia, Stachelina, Chrysocoma, Calea, Tarchonanthus, Pteronia, Athanasia, Spilanthus, Santolina, and Barnadesia. II. POLYGAMIA SUPERFLUA, 38 genera, distinguished into, 1. Tubulose; viz. Tanacetum, Artemisia, Gnaphalium, Xeranthemum, Carpesium, Baccharis, Cotula, and Conyza. 2. Radiate; viz. Erigeron, Tussilago, Senecio, Aster, Solidago, Inula, Cineraria, Arnica, Doronicum, Perdicium, Helenium, Bellis, Leysera, Tagetes, Pectis, Chrysanthemum, Matricaria, Anacyclus, Anthemis, Achillea, Tridax, Zinnia, Verbesina, Sigesbeckia, Bupthalmum, Eclipta, Bellium, Amellus, Unxia, and Mutisia. III. POLYGAMIA FRUSTRANEA, 9 genera, all radiate; viz. Helianthus, Rudbeckia, Coreopsis, Gorteria, Osmites, Zoegea, Centaurea, Sclerocarpus, and Didelta. IV. POLYGAMIA NECESSARIA, 14 genera, most of which are radiate; viz. Milleria, Silphium, Chrysogonum, Melampodium, Calendula, Arctotis, Osteospermum, Othonna, Polymnia, Eriocephalus, Filago, Micropus, Baltimora, and Hippia. V. POLYGAMIA SEGREGATA, 7 genera, distinguished into, 1. Such as have 4 flosculi in each partial calyx; viz. Elephantopus, and Oedera. 2. With many flosculi; viz. Sphæranthus. 3. With one flosculus; viz. Echinops, Gundelia, and Stoebe. 4. With 3 flosculi; viz. Jungia. VI. MONOGAMIA, 7 genera; viz. Strumpfia, Seriphium, Corymbium, Jasione, Lobelia, Viola, and Impatiens.

(195.) CLASS XX. GYNANDRIA. ORD. I. DIANDRIA, contains 11 genera; viz. Orchis, Satyrium, Ophrys, Serapias, Limodorum, Arethusa, Cypripedium, Epidendrum, Gunnera, Forstera, and Disa. II. TRIANDRIA, 4 genera; viz. Sisyrinchium, Ferraria, Stilago, and Salacia. III. TETRANDRIA, one genus; viz. Nepenthes. IV. PENTANDRIA, 3 genera; viz. Passiflora, Gluta, and Ayenia. V. HEXANDRIA, 2 genera; viz. Aristolochia, and Pistia. VI. OCTANDRIA, one genus; viz. Scopolia. VII. DECANDRIA, two genera; viz. Helicteres, and Kleinhovia. VIII. DODECANDRIA, one genus; viz. Cytinus. IX. POLYANDRIA, 8 genera; viz. Grewia, Xylopia, Arum, Dracontium, Calla, Pothos, Ambrosinia, and Zostera.

(196.) CLASS XXI. MONOECIA. ORD. I. MONANDRIA, contains 10 genera; viz. Zanichellia, Ceratocarpus, Cynomorium, Elaterium, Chara, Ægopricon, Artocarpus, Nipa, Casuarina, and Phyllachne. II. DIANDRIA, 2 genera; viz. Lemna, and Anguria. III. TRIANDRIA, 12 genera; viz. Omphalea, Typha, Sparganium, Zea, Coix, Tripsacum, Olyra, Carex, Axyris, Tragia, Hernandia, and Phyllanthus. IV. TETRANDRIA, 9 genera; viz. Centella, Betula, Buxus, Urtica, Morus, Cicca, Serpicula, Littorella, and Aucuba. V. PENTANDRIA, 8 genera; viz. Xanthium, Ambrosia, Parthenium, Iva, Lcea, Amaranthus, Nephelium, and Clibadium. VI. HEXANDRIA, two genera; viz. Zizania, and Pharus. VII. HEPTANDRIA, one genus; viz. Guettarda. VIII. POLYANDRIA, 13 genera; viz. Ceratophillum, Myriophillum, Sagittaria, Begonia, Theligonum, Pisterium, Quercus, Juglans, Fagus, Carpinus, Corylus, Platanus, and Liquidambar. IX. MONADELPHIA, 15 genera; viz. Hura, Pinus, Cupressus, Thuja, Acalypha, Dalechampia, Plukenetia, Crozophora, Croton, Ricinus, Jatropha, Sterculia, Hippomane, Stillingia, and Gnetum. X. SYNGENESIA, 6 genera; viz. Trichosanthes, Momordica, Cucumis, Cucurbita, Sicyos, and Bryonia. XI. GYNANDRIA, 2 genera; viz. Andrachne, and Agyne

(197.) CLASS XXII. DIOECIA. ORD. I. MONANDRIA, contains 2 genera; viz. Najas, and Padanus. II. DIANDRIA, 3 genera; viz. Vallisneria, Salix, and Cecropia. III. TRIANDRIA, 6 genera; viz. Empetrum, Osyris, Caturus, Excœcaria, Rest and Maba. IV. TETRANDRIA, 7 genera; viz. Viscum, Hippophae, Myrica, Trophis, Batis, Mercurialis, and Brucea. V. PENTANDRIA, 12 genera; viz. Pistacia, Zanthoxylum, Astronium, Iresine, Antidesma, Spinacia, Acnida, Cannabis, Humulus, Zanonia, Fewillea, and Canarium. VI. HEXANDRIA, 4 genera; viz. Tamus, Smilax, Rajania, and Dioscorea. VII. OCTANDRIA, 3 genera; viz. Populus, Rhodiola, and Magaritaria. VIII. ENNEANDRIA, 2 genera; viz. Mercurialis, and Hydrocharis. IX. DECANDRIA, 4 genera; viz. Carica, Kiggelaria, Coriaria, and Schinus. X. DODECANDRIA, 3 genera; viz. Menispermum, Bustisca, and Euclea. XI. ICOSANDRIA, one genus; viz. Flacourtia. XII. POLYANDRIA, two genera; viz. Cliffortia, and Hedycaria. XIII. MONADELPHIA, 6 genera; viz. Taxus, Juniperus, Ephedra, Cissampelos, Napæa, and Adelia. XIV. SYNGENESIA, one genus; viz. Ruscus. XV. GYNANDRIA, one genus; viz. Clutia.

(198.) CLASS XXIII. POLYGAMIA. ORD. I. MONOECIA, contains 24 genera, distinguished into, 1. Polygamous by male hermaphrodites, and female hermaphrodites; one genus; viz. Musa. 2. By hermaphrodites and males; 22 genera; viz. Ophioxylon, Celtis, Veratrum, Fusanus, Andropogon, Holcus, Apluda, Ischæmum, Coix, Ægilops, Valantia, Parietaria, Atriplex, Broussonetia, Acer, Gouania, Solandra, Terminalia, Clusia, Hermas, Spinifex, and Manisurus. 3. By hermaphrodites and females; one genus; viz. Mimosa. II. DIOECIA, 10 genera; distinguished into, 1. Such as are polygamous by hermaphrodites and females; viz. Fraxinus, and Gleditsia. 2. By hermaphrodites and males; viz. Diospyrus, Nyssa, and Pisonia. 3. By androgynes and males; three genera; viz. Anthospermum, Arctopus, Panax, Chrysitrix, and Stilbe. III. TRIOECIA, comprehending such plants as have the polygamy on distinct plants; two genera; viz. Ficus, and Cecropia.

(199.) CLASS XXIV. CRYPTOGAMIA. ORD. I. FILICES, contains 18 genera; viz. Cycas, Zamia, Equisetum, Onoclea, Ophioglossum, Osmunda, Acrosticum, Pteris, Blechnum, Hemionitis, Lonchitis, Asplenium, Polypodium, Adiantum, Trichomanes, Marsilea, Pilularia, and Isoetes. II. MUSCI, 11 genera; viz. Lycopodium, Porella, Sphagnum, Phascum, Splachnum, Polytrichum, Mnium, Bryum, Hypnum, Fontinalis, and Buxbaumia. III. ALGÆ, 12 genera; viz. Jungermannia,

...ia, Targionia, Marchantia, Blaſia, Riccia, An...ceros, Lichen, Tremella, Fucus, Ulva, Conferva, ...Byſſus. IV. FUNGI, 10 genera; viz. Agari... Boletus. Hydnum, Phallus, Clathrus, Helvella, ...a, Clavaria, Lycoperdon, and Mucor.

... APPENDIX. Under the Order PALMÆ, ...ntained 9 genera; viz. Chamærops, Boraſſus, ...ra, Cocos, Phœnix, Elais, Areca, Elate, and ...

... EXPLANATION *of* PLATE XXIV.—... *Fig.* 1. A Squamoſe Bulb. 2. A Solid ... 3. Tranſverſe Section of a Tunicate Bulb. ... Pendulous Tuberoſe Root of the Filipendula. ... Ramoſe Root. 6. A Fuſiform Root. 7. A ... Root.—TRUNKS. *Fig.* 1. A Squamoſe ... 2. A Repent Stem. 3. A Frons. 4. A ... Stem. 5. An Articulate Culm. 6. A ... 7. A Dichotomous Stem. 8. A Bra... Stem.—FULCRA. *Fig.* 1. *a*, A Cirrhus; ...; *c*, Concave Glandules. 2. *a*, Pedi... Glandules. 3. *a*, Bracteæ differing from ...ves; *b*, The Leaves. 4. *a*, Simple Spines; ... Triple Spine. 5. *a*, Simple Aculei; *b*, Triple ... or Forks. 6. *a*, Oppoſite Leaves; *b*, The ...—SIMPLE LEAVES. *Fig.* 1. Orbiculate. ...rotund. 3. Ovate. 4. Oval. 5. Oblong. ...nceolate. 7. Linear. 8. Subulate. 9. Re... 10. Cordate. 11. Lunulate. 12. Tri... 13. Saggittate. 14. Cordato-ſagittate. ...Haſtate. 16. Fiſſa. 17. Trilobe. 18. Præ... 19 Lobate. 20. Quinquangular. 21. E... 22. Palmate. 23. Pinnatifid. 24. Laciniate. ...Sinuate. 26. Dentato-ſinuate. 27. Retrorſum... 28. Partite. 29. Repand. 30. Dentate. ... Serrate. 32. Duplicato-ſerrate. 33. Dupli...-crenate. 34. Cartilagineous. 35. Acutely ...ate. 36. Obtuſely crenate. 37. Plicate. 38. Cre... 39. Criſp. 40. Obtuſe. 41. Acute. 42. Acu... 43. Obtuſe with an acumen. 44. Acutely ...rginate. 45. Cuneiform emarginate. 46. Re... 47. Piloſe. 48. Tomentoſe. 49. Hiſpid. ...Ciliate. 51. Rugoſe. 52. Venoſe. 53. Ner... 54. Papilloſe. 55. Linguiform. 56. Aci... 57. Dolabriform. 58. Deltoid. 59. Tri...ous. 60. Canaliculate. 61. Sulcate. 62. Te... 63. Parabolic. 64. Spatulate.

...) EXPLANATION *of* PLATE XXV.—... LEAVES. *Fig.* 1. Binate. 2. Ternate, ...folioles ſeſſile. 3. Ternate, with the folioles ...ate. 4. Digitate. 5. Pedate. 6. Pinnate, ... an odd one. 7. Pinnate abrupt. 8. Pinnate ...rnately. 9. Pinnate interruptedly. 10. Pinnate ...oſe. 11. Biternate. 12. Bipinnate. 13. Tri...ate. 15. Tripinnate abrupt. 15. Tripinnate ...h an odd one.—DETERMINATE LEAVES. *Fig.* 1. *a*, Inflex; *b*, Erect; *c*, Patent; *d*, Hori...ontal; *e*, Reclined; *f*, Revolute. 2. *a*, Seminal; *b*, Caulline; *c*, Rameous; *d*, Floral. 3. *a*, Peltate; *b*, Petiolate; *c*, Seſſile; *d*, Decurrent; *e*, Amplex...caul; *f*, Perfoliate; *g*, Connate; *h*, Vaginant; ... *a*, Articulate; *b*, Stellate; *c*, Quartern; *d*, Op...poſite; *e*, Alternate; *f*, Aceroſe; *g*, Imbricate; *h*, Faſciculate.—FOLIATION. *Fig.* 1. Convolute. 2. Involute. 3. Revolute. 4. Conduplicate. 5. Equitant. 6. Imbricate. 7. Obvolute. 8. Plicate. 9. Convoluta (more than one leaf convolute). 10. Involute oppoſite. 11. Involute alternate. 12. Revolute oppoſite. 13. Equitant ancipit, with two prominent angles. 14. Equitant triquetrous, forming a triangle.—MISCELLANEOUS. *Fig.* 1. A Corymbus. 2. An Arillus exemplified in the Fruit of the *Euonymus*; *a*, the Valvules of the Capſule; *b*, a Seed; *c*, the Arillus opened to diſcover the Seed. 3. A Verticillus. 4. *a*, The Horned Nectaria in *Aconitum*; *b*, two Pedúncles or Styles that ſupport them. 5. A paleaceous Receptacle of a compound Flower ſhewn in *Rudbeckia*; *b*, the tubuloſe Florets of the Diſk; *c*, the ligulate Corollulæ of the Radius; *d*, a ligulate Corollula fallen off. 6. *a*, A Spatha; *b*, a Spadix. 7. A Racemus. 8. A tubuloſe Floret of a compound Flower. 9. A monopetalous hypocrateriform Corolla; *a*, the Tube; *b*, the Limb. 10. A Nectarium that crowns the Corolla ſhewn in the Cup of a *Narciſſus*; *a*, the Cup. 11. A Spike. 12. A calycine Nectarium ſhewn in the Flower of a *Tropæolum*; *a*, the Nectarium. 13. A Nectarium of ſingular conſtruction ſhewn in a Flower of the *Parnaſſia*; *a*, five heart-ſhaped Nectaria terminated by Styles or Threads, each of which is crowned with a little Ball. 14. A Cyma of the *Lauruſtinus*. 15. A Panicle.

SECT. VIII. *Of the* SPECIES *of* PLANTS.

(203.) The genera include a great number of ſpecies, diſtinguiſhed by the ſpecific difference of the root, the trunk, the branches, the leaves, &c. yet all agreeing in the eſſential generic character. They are called by trivial names, expreſſive of the difference or ſome other circumſtance, added to the generic name. To inveſtigate the ſpecies, therefore, it is neceſſary to underſtand thoſe differences, and to be acquainted with the names by which they are expreſſed. Several of theſe have been already incidentally explained; but for a complete enumeration, the reader muſt have recourſe to the GLOSSARY. To illuſtrate the manner in which thoſe terms are uſed, we ſhall here give a few examples.

(204.) Claſs II. DIANDRIA. Order MONOGYNIA. Genus VERONICA, or SPEEDWELL. Species *Veronica arvenſis* has ſolitary flowers; cut, ſeſſile, and cordated leaves. *Veronica agreſtis* has ſolitary flowers: cut, cordated, and petiolated leaves.

(205.) Claſs XVI. MONADELPHIA. Order POLYGYNIA. Genus MALVA, the MALLOW. Species *Malva ſpicata* has tomentoſe, crenated, and cordated leaves, and oblong hairy ſpicæ. *Malva ſylveſtris* has an erect, herbaceous ſtalk, with acute, ſeven-lobed leaves, and hairy pedunculi and petioli.

(206.) Claſs XIX. SYNGENESIA. Order POLYGAMIA ÆQUALIS. Genus CARDUUS, the THISTLE. Species *Carduus helenioides*, or *melancholy thiſtle*, has lanceolated, teethed, amplexicaule leaves; with unequal, ciliated ſmall ſpines.

(207.) Claſs XXIV. CRYPTOGAMIA. Order FILICES. Genus ASPLENIUM, or MAIDENHAIR. Species *Aſplenium trichomanes*, has a pinnated frons; the pinnæ are roundiſh, and crenated.

(208.) In general it may be obſerved, that *ſpecific* differences take their riſe from any circumſtance, wherein plants of the ſame genus diſagree; provided ſuch circumſtance is conſtant, and not liable to alteration by culture, or other accidents. Hence Linnæus aſſerts the ſpecies to be as numerous, as there were different forms of vegetables produced

at the creation; and conſiders all caſual differences as varieties of the ſame ſpecies.

(209.) Mr Lee remarks, that the root often affords a real ſpecific difference, and is ſometimes the chief diſtinction, as in *Scilla*, where the ſpecies are ſcarce to be diſtinguiſhed, but by the bulbs being tunicate, ſolid, or ſquamoſe; but as acceſs cannot always be conveniently had to the root, it is better to fix on ſome other ſpecific difference. The trunk, the ſtipulæ, the hybernacles, the buds, the inflorescence, and the fructification, afford much more certain and deciſive marks of diſtinction; as the attentive reader will obſerve in the deſcriptions of the various ſpecies of plants, given under their reſpective genera in the courſe of this work.

(210.) We ſhall conclude this ſection with a complete deſcription of a plant, reduced to its claſs, order, genus, and ſpecies.

(211.) RHEUM PALMATUM, the *True Rhubarb*. See *Plate* XXV. The flower of this plant has no calyx. The COROLLA, *d d*, conſiſts of one petal, narrower at the baſe, not perforated, and divided in the margin into ſix obtuſe ſegments, one leſs and one larger alternately; the petal is marceſcent. The STAMINA, *e e*, conſiſt of 9 capillary filaments, inſerted into the corolla, and about the ſame length with it. The *antheræ* are didymous, oblong, and obtuſe. The PISTILLUM, *f*, has a ſhort three-ſided germen. It can hardly be ſaid to have any ſtyli; but has 3 reflected plumoſe ſtigmata. The PERICARPIUM is wanting. Each flower contains but one large, three-ſided, acute SEED *g*, with a membranaceous edge. The number of *Stamina* determines this plant to belong to the ENNEANDRIA *Claſs*; and the number of *Stigmata* fixes its *Order* to be TRIGYNIA. The other parts of the above deſcription clearly demonſtrate the genus to be the RHEUM or *Rhubarb*, and ſufficiently diſtinguiſh it from the Laurus, Tinus, Caſſyta, and Butomus, the only other genera belonging to this claſs. The SPECIFIC mark is taken from the leaves, which are PALMATED, *a*, and ſharp and tapering at the points, *b*; none of the other ſpecies having palmated leaves.

SECT. IX. *Of the* VARIETIES *that occur in the* SPECIES *of* PLANTS.

(212.) The collecting of VARIETIES, ſays Mr Lee, under their proper ſpecies is no leſs neceſſary than that of collecting the ſeveral ſpecies under their proper genus. Theſe varieties, which are only incidental, are grounded on the circumſtances of ſex, magnitude, time of flowering, colour, ſcent, taſte, virtues, uſes, duration, multitude, pubeſcence, leaves, and monſtrous flowers.

(213.) The ſex of plants in the claſs *Diœcia* affords a variety of all others the moſt natural; for the male and female flowers in this claſs being upon different plants, theſe laſt are diſtinguiſhed by the fructification, though the ſpecies is the ſame in both. But this kind of variety holds only in the claſs Dioecia; for, in the genera that belong to any of the hermaphrodite claſſes, the ſame circumſtance, when it occurs, becomes a ſpecific diſtinction. Differences in magnitude, time of [illegible]ng, ſcent, taſte, virtues, duration, and mul[illegible]re all very uncertain marks of *ſpecific* diſ[illegible]but very proper to conſtitute *varieties*.

(214.) Colour is ſo very changeable in the ſame ſpecies of plants, that it can only afford a diſtinction of varieties. The moſt uſual change is from blue or red to white; and the whole plant is often found to vary in colour. But the trifling diſtinctions which have been made by floriſts, in ſome genera, from the colours of the corollæ, and to which they have given very pompous names, (ſuch as, *Phœbus*, *Aſtræa*, *Triumphus Floræ*, *Splendor Aſiæ*, &c.) are held by Linnæus to be below the notice of the botaniſt; and he warns him from the infection of ſuch idle amuſement. He alſo diſapproves of the diſtinctions made by gardeners with regard to the taſte of fruits, as too minute for the attention of the botaniſt, however uſeful for the purpoſes of gardening.

(215.) Leaves not only furniſh elegant ſpecific diſtinctions, but alſo, from their luxuriance, afford many diſtinctions of varieties in the ſame ſpecies. Thus *oppoſite* leaves will become *tern*, *quatern*, or *quine*; *digitate* leaves will gain an addition of one or more *foliolæ*; broad leaves will vary to narrow leaves; and bullate, criſp, and curled leaves frequently occur. In *tanacetum*, *mentha*, and other ſcented plants, when the leaves are curled, the ſcent is obſerved to be heightened by the criſpature.

(216.) Monſtrous flowers, whether multiplicate, full, or proliferous, are only varieties from luxuriance; owing to change of ſoil, climate, &c. and would all return to their original conditions, if theſe were again changed. In like manner the improvements made in plants cultivated for ſale, are not to be eſteemed laſting; as they would run off, if the plants were left to themſelves in a poor ſoil, and their original wild qualities return.

(217.) HYBRID, or MULE plants, muſt alſo be ranked among varieties, whether occaſioned by accident, by the pollen of one plant falling upon the piſtilla of another, or reared by art; of which Linnæus gives many curious inſtances.

(218.) Varieties may generally be reduced under their ſpecies, by comparing the variable marks of the variety with the natural plant: but there are ſome which are attended with difficulty, and require judgment and experience: particularly in ſome ſpecies of Helleborus, Gentiana, Fumaria, Valeriana, Scorpiurus, and Medicago. In theſe two laſt there is a remarkable diverſity in the fruit of the individuals. In the *Medicago*, or *Snail trefoil*, in particular, the forms of the real ſnails, which nature has imitated in theſe plants, are ſcarce more diverſified, than the fruit of this mimic ſpecies: ſo that the botaniſt, who is ſtudious of varieties, would find no end to his labour, were he to attempt to purſue nature through the various ſhapes ſhe has wantonly adopted. The whole order of the *Fungi* too, as Mr Lee obſerves, is ſtill a chaos; botaniſts not being yet able in theſe to decide what is a *ſpecies*, and what a *variety*.

PART II.

OF THE NATURAL METHOD OF CLASSIFICATION.

SECT. I. *Of the* NATURAL CLASSES *or* ORDERS.

(219.) Notwithſtanding the evident ſuperiority of the ſexual ſyſtem over all others, Linnæus and moſt other modern botaniſts are of opinion, that there

there is a *natural method*, or nature's ſyſtem, which we ſhould diligently endeavour to find out. That this ſyſtem, ſay they, is no chimera, will appear particularly from hence, that all plants, of what order ſoever, ſhow an affinity to ſome other; and thus, not only the virtues of a great number of ſpecies may be aſcertained, but we may know with certainty how to find a proper ſuccedaneum for plants which cannot eaſily be had.—On theſe principles, Linnæus divides vegetables into 58 natural claſſes or orders: viz.

(220.) 1. PALMÆ. Theſe are perennial, and moſtly trees or ſhrubs. The roots form a maſs of fibres which are commonly ſimple and without ramifications. The ſtem is generally ſimple, without branches, cylindrical, and from 2 feet to 100 in height. It is compoſed of ſtrong longitudinal fibres. The leaves, which are a compoſition of a leaf and a branch, by Linnæus called *frondes*, are of different forms; being ſometimes ſhaped like an umbrella or fan; ſometimes ſingly or doubly winged; the ſmall or partial leaves, which are often 3 feet in length, being ranged alternately. The principal leaves are 6, 8, 10, or 12 feet long; the length varying according to the age and ſize. They are covered at firſt with a thick brown duſt, like thoſe of ferns. The baſe of the leaves frequently embraces the greater part of the ſtem. The flowers are male and female upon the ſame or different roots; except in ſtratiotes, which bears hermaphrodite flowers only; and palmetto, in which the flowers are hermaphrodite and male upon diſtinct roots. The flowers are all diſpoſed in a panicle, except in the hydrocharis, ſtratiotes, and vallisneria; in which they proceed ſingly from the angles of the leaves. The common calyx is a ſpatha with one or two valves. The ſpadix is generally branched. Each flower generally has a perianthium conſiſting of 3 leaves, ſmall and permanent. The petals are 3, of a ſubſtance like leather, and permanent. The flowers of zamia have no petals. The ſtamina are from 2 to 20, cohering ſlightly at their baſe. The ſeed-buds are from 1 to 3, placed in the middle, and ſupporting ſhort ſtyles. The ſeed veſſel is generally a pulpy fruit, containing one cell filled with fibrous fleſh, and covered with a ſkin like leather. The ſeeds are from 1 to 3, in each fruit, of a hard bony ſubſtance, round or oval, and attached to the bottom of the fruit. They are aſtringent.

(221.) 2. PIPERITÆ are moſtly herbaceous and perennial. The ſtalks of pothos creep along rocks and trees, into which they ſtrike root at certain diſtances. Their height is from 3 to 15 feet. The ſmell of many of them is extremely fetid. The flowers, however, of an Ethiopian dracunculus or arum, and the cover in which they are involved, are ſaid to emit a very fragrant odour.

222.) 3. CALAMARIÆ. The baſe of the leaf, which embraces the ſtalk like a glove, is entire, and has no longitudinal aperture. The ſtalk is generally triangular, and without knots or joints. The roots of ſome are long and knotty; in others they are compoſed of fleſhy fibres which pierce deep into the ground: and in others, of a bulb. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, or male and female upon the ſame root. The inflorescence is generally a ſpike; ſometimes a capitulum. The calyx is either a gluma or an amentum. The corolla is wanting. The filaments of the ſtamina are 3, ſhort, ſlender, and ſometimes briſtly. The antheræ are generally long, ſlender, and erect. The ſeed-bud is very ſmall, blunt, and ſometimes three-cornered. The ſtyle is thread-ſhaped, and of the length of the ſcaly calyx. The ſtigmata are generally ſlender, hairy, and ſometimes permanent.

(223.) 4. GRAMINA are moſtly annual or perennial herbs; ſome of them creep; others are erect. The roots, in the greateſt number, are creeping, and emit fibres from each knot or joint; in others they are ſimply branching and fibrous. The ſtems and branches are round. The leaves are ſimple, alternate, entire, very long, and commonly narrow. They form a ſort of ſheath, which ſurrounds the ſtem, and is generally cleft on one ſide through its whole length. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, male and female on the ſame root, or hermaphrodite and male on the ſame root. They proceed either ſingly from the ſheath of the leaves, or are formed into a panicle. From one to 6 ſcales ſupply the place of calyx and corolla. The ſtamina are generally 3, placed irregularly. The antheræ are long, furniſhed with two cells, and ſlightly attached to the filaments. The ſeed bud is placed upon the ſame receptacle as the calyx, corolla, and ſtamina. The ſtyle is generally double, and crowned with a hairy ſtigma or ſummit. The ſeed-veſſel is wanting. The ſeeds are ſingle, oval, and attached below to the bottom of the flower.

(224.) 5. TRIPETALOIDEÆ have no very ſtriking characters, and are nearly allied to the graſſes. All the genera have not the circumſtance expreſſed in the title.

(225.) 6. ENSATÆ are nearly allied to the graſſes and lilaceous plants, and furniſh a beautiful collection of perennial herbs, of different heights, from one inch to 15 feet. The roots are fleſhy, and garniſhed with fibres; the ſtalks are ſimple, and commonly compreſſed on the ſides. The leaves are ſimple, alternate, entire, ſword-ſhaped, and form at their origin a ſheath which in the greateſt number is cleft through the whole length, except at the baſe, where it embraces the ſtalk like a ring. The flowers are hermaphrodite, and generally proceed from the ſummit of the ſtalks either ſingly, in an umbel, a ſpike, or a panicle. In pontederia they proceed from the angles of the leaves either ſingly or in an umbel. Moſt of them want the perianthium; the flowers burſt from a common ſpatha, which is frequently permanent. The petals are from one to 6: The ſtamina generally 3. The ſeed-bud is ſometimes above the flower, ſometimes below it. The ſtyle is generally ſingle, and crowned with a triple ſtigma. The ſeed-veſſel is a dry capſule, generally oblong, and opens at 3 valves, diſcovering the ſame number of cells, each incloſing a quantity of roundiſh ſeeds.

(226.) 7. ORCHIDEÆ. The roots of many of theſe plants are compoſed of one or more fleſhy tubercles, attached to the lower part of the ſtem, and ſending forth fibres from the top. Thoſe of orchis reſemble the ſcrotum in animals; from which circumſtance the genus has derived its name. The leaves are of a moderate ſize, inſcribed with a number of longitudinal vibs and

without any footſtalk. At their origin they form round the ſtalk a kind of ſheath, which is long, entire, and cylindrical. The flowers are hermaphrodite, and placed at the ſummit of the ſtalk, either in a ſpike or in a panicle. The calyx is a *ſpatha*, that burſting open protrudes a *ſpadix*, which has no perianthium. The petals are 5, and very irregular. The nectarium is remarkably conſpicuous; but different in the different genera; and has the appearance of a 6th petal. The filaments are always two, and placed upon the piſtillum. The antheræ are erect, and generally covered by the upper lip of the nectarium. The ſeed-bud is either oblong or pillar-ſhaped, twiſted like a ſcrew, and placed below the receptacle. The ſtyle is ſingle, very ſhort, and forms one ſubſtance with the inner margin of the nectarium. The ſeed-veſſel is generally a capſule with one cavity and 3 valves, keel-ſhaped, and open on the angular ſides. The ſeeds are numerous; very ſmall, like ſaw duſt, and attached, without footſtalks, to a ſlender receptacle, which extends lengthwiſe in the middle of each valve.

(227.) 8. Scitamineæ are beautiful exotics, all natives of very warm countries. Some of them furniſh exquiſite fruits; but though the plants riſe very high, they are perennial only by their roots. Thoſe which have only one filament, have in all their parts an aromatic odour, and an acrid taſte; the roots are hot and reſinous.

(228.) 9. Spathaceæ are nearly allied in habit and ſtructure to the liliaceous plants from which they are chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the ſpatha, out of which their flowers are protruded.

(229.) 10. Coronariæ are herbaceous, perennial, and from one inch to 15 feet high. The roots are either bulbous, fibrous, or compoſed of ſmall fleſhy knots, jointed at top. The bulbs either conſiſt of ſcales laid over each other, or are ſolid. The baſe of the leaves, enfolding each other, form at bottom a roundiſh fleſhy bulb. In the others the ſtem is ſimple, and is either furniſhed with leaves or riſes naked. The branches are alternate and cylindrical. The leaves are ſimple, alternate, and entire. Thoſe next the root, generally form at their origin a ſheath, which in a great number is entire; whilſt in others, it is divided longitudinally on one ſide. The flowers are univerſally hermaphrodite, except in white hellebore, which has both male and hermaphrodite flowers. The flowers are ſometimes ſingle, and terminate the ſtem; ſometimes they form an umbel, ſometimes a ſpike, and ſometimes a panicle. The ſingle cover in moſt of theſe plants, though beautifully coloured, ought to be denominated a calyx; as its diviſions, generally ſix, are oppoſite to the ſtamina. The coloured leaves of the flower are from one to ſix. The petals in ſome ſpecies are turned back. The nectarium is various in the different genera. The ſtamina are 6; erect, and inſerted into the receptacle, if the flower conſiſts of many petals; into the tube, or of the corolla, if it conſiſts of one. The long, divided below, and ſlightly at- ne filaments on which they turn like a ſeed-bud is ſingle, and placed either lower-cup or below it. The ſtyle is id-ſhaped, and generally of the length of the petals. The ſtigma is generally ſingle, of a conic form, and hairy at the extremity. The ſeed-veſſel is generally a capſule, divided externally into 3 valves, internally into 3 cells.

(230.) 11. Sarmentosæ have climbing ſtems and branches, that, like the vine, attach themſelves to other bodies for ſupport. They are not a true natural claſs, for they ſcarce agree in a ſingle circumſtance, except that of climbing, which is not peculiar to this order.

(231.) 12. Holeraceæ contains trees, ſhrubs, perennial, and annual herbs. Some of the woody vegetables retain their green leaves during the winter. The roots are very long, and frequently ſpindle-ſhaped; from the knots on the ſtems and branches of ſuch plants as creep on the ground, or float on the water, proceed fibrous and branching roots. The ſtems and young branches are cylindric; and in the greateſt part of the aquatic plants of this order, the ſtalks are hollow within. The buds are conic and naked. The leaves are generally ſimple, entire, alternate, and attached to the branches by a cylindric foot-ſtalk, commonly very ſhort. Some have two ſtipulæ attached to the branches near the origin of the foot-ſtalk of each leaf. In many others, each leaf bears on its foot-ſtalk a membranaceous cylindric ſheath, frequently fringed on the margin, and penetrated by the ſtem. The flowers are either hermaphrodite; male and female upon the ſame or different roots; hermaphrodite and male, or hermaphrodite and female on the ſame or different roots.

(232.) 13. Succulentæ. This order conſiſts of flat, fleſhy, and juicy plants, moſt of them ever-greens. They are aſtringent, refreſhing, and very wholeſome.

(233.) 14. Gruinales conſiſt of *geranium*, and a few other genera which Linnæus conſiders as allied to it in their habit and external ſtructure. They contain both herbaceous and woody plants. The roots are ſometimes fibrous, ſometimes tuberous, or jointed. The ſtems are cylindric; the young branches, in ſome, nearly ſquare. The buds are conic and covered with ſcales. The leaves are either ſimple or compound. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx conſiſts of 5 diſtinct leaves, or of one leaf divided almoſt to the bottom into 5 parts. The petals are 5, ſpreading, and frequently funnel-ſhaped. The ſtamina are generally ten, awl-ſhaped, erect, oblong; and frequently attached to the filaments by the middle, ſo as to lie, and ſometimes to veer about, upon them. The ſeed-bud is either oblong or five-cornered. The number of ſtyles is either one or five. The ſeed-veſſel is commonly a five-cornered capſule, with 1, 2, 5 or 10 cells; one ſeed is generally placed in each cell.

(234.) 15. Inundatæ are aquatic plants, low, herbaceous, and moſtly perennial. The roots are fibrous. The ſtem is generally wanting. In its place is an aſſemblage of leaves, which enfolding each other mutually form a ſheath; from the middle of which is produced the footſtalk. The leaves are ſometimes alternate, ſometimes placed in whirls. The flowers are hermaphrodite, or male and female on the ſame root. The flower-cup is either wanting, or conſiſts of 3, 4 or 5 diviſions or leaves. The ſtamina are from 1 to 16 or upwards.

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The filaments and antheræ are ſhort. The ſeed-buds are from 1 to 4. The ſeed-veſſel is univerſally wanting, except in Elatine. The ſeeds are generally 4. Theſe plants are aſtringent.

(235.) 16. CALYCIFLORÆ have the ſtamina inſerted into the calyx, and are all of the ſhrub or tree kind. Some riſe to 12 or 14 feet; others not above 2 or 3. The roots are branching, fibrous, and woody. The ſtems are cylindric. The branches, when young, are cornered; the buds of a conic form, and without ſcales. The leaves are ſimple, alternate, and attached to the branches by a very ſhort foot-ſtalk. The flowers are either male or female upon diſtinct roots, or hermaphrodite and male on the ſame root. The calyx is a perianthium compoſed of one leaf divided into 3, 5 or 4 ſegments. It is commonly placed upon the ſeed-bud. The corolla is univerſally wanting, except in *tropbis*. The ſtamina are generally 4, ſometimes 5, ſhort, placed at a diſtance from the ſtyle, and inſerted into the calyx. The piſtillum is compoſed of a roundiſh germen, crowned with the calyx; a ſingle thread-ſhaped ſtyle; and a cylindric ſtigma. The ſeed-veſſel is either an obtuſe oval fruit of the cherry kind, or a globular berry with one cell, containing a roundiſh ſeed.

(236.) 17. CALYCANTHEMÆ have the corolla and ſtamina inſerted in the calyx. This order conſiſts of trees, ſhrubs, and annual, biennial, and perennial herbs. The herbaceous annuals are the moſt numerous. The roots are branching and fibrous: the ſtems and branches cylindric, and ſquare. The buds are conic and without ſcales. The leaves are generally either alternate, ſimple, and attached to the branches by a ſhort foot-ſtalk, or oppoſite at the bottom of the ſtem; and in ſome, alternate towards the top. They are univerſally ſeſſile. The calyx is a perianthium, generally monophyllous. The corolla conſiſts of 4, 5, and 6 petals, attached to the tube of the calyx, and ſometimes placed alternate, ſometimes oppoſite to the diviſions of the limb. The ſtamina, are from 4 to 20 and upwards, attached to the tube of the calyx. The antheræ are generally hemiſpherical, frequently cleft below; and by that aperture attached ſlightly to the filaments, on which they often veer about like a vane. They are furrowed longitudinally, and open on the ſides into two loculi or cells. The pollen conſiſts of a number of minute particles, of an oval figure, yellow and tranſparent. The germen is placed either above or under the receptacle of the flower. The ſtyle is ſingle, thread ſhaped, and of the length of the ſtamina. The ſtigma is generally ſingle and undivided. The ſeed-veſſel is a capſule, generally divided internally into cells. The ſeeds are numerous, minute, and frequently three-cornered. Theſe plants are aſtringent.

(237.) 18. BICORNES, plants whoſe antheræ have the appearance of two horns. This appearance, however, is not very conſpicuous, except in a few genera. The plants of this order are all ſhrubs or trees. The roots are branching and fibrous. The ſtems and branches are cylindric; the buds conic; the leaves generally alternate; either ſeſſile, or ſupported by a very ſhort foot-ſtalk. The flowers are all hermaphrodite, except in Indian date plum, where hermaphrodite and male flowers are upon diſtinct roots. The calyx is generally placed around or below the germen; and is univerſally a perianthium. The corolla is generally monopetalous. The upper part of the petal, is generally divided into 4 or 5 ſegments. The lower part is cylindric, and generally of the length of the calyx. The number of ſtamina is from 4 to 20; generally erect, and attached to the lower part of the tube of the corolla. The antheræ are forked below, and, being ſlightly attached to the filaments, are frequently inverted ſo as to exhibit the appearance of two horns at top. The germen or ſeed-bud is generally roundiſh, and ſeated above the receptacle. The ſtyle is ſingle, thread-ſhaped, of the ſame length with the corolla, and in a few genera permanent. The ſeed-veſſel is either a capſule with 5 cells, a roundiſh berry, or an oblong four-cornered nut with two cells. Theſe are alſo aſtringent.

(238.) 19. HESPERIDEÆ are of the ſhrub and tree kind, and moſtly evergreen. The bark of the ſtalks is ſlender, and comes off in thin plates. The leaves are generally oppoſite, but in ſome alternate above. The buds are conic; the flowers generally hermaphrodite. The calyx is placed above the ſeed-bud. The petals are 3, 4, or 5, in number, and ſtand upon the brims of the tube of the calyx. The ſeed-bud is large, oblong, and placed below the receptacle. The ſtyle is ſingle, awl ſhaped, of the length of the ſtamina, and terminated with a ſingle ſtigma. The ſeeds are generally numerous, ſmall, and oblong.

(239.) 20. ROTACEÆ conſiſt of plants with one wheel-ſhaped petal without a tube. Theſe reſemble in quality thoſe of the order of preciæ, to which they are in all reſpects very nearly allied.

(240.) 21. PRECIÆ conſiſt of primroſe, an early flowering plant, and ſome others which agree with it in habit and ſtructure.

(241.) 22. CARYOPHYLLEÆ are all herbaceous, and moſtly annual. Some of the creeping kinds do not riſe above an inch, and the talleſt exceed not 7 or 8 feet. The roots are branching, fibrous, and of a moderate length. The ſtems are cylindrical. The branches proceed from the angles of the leaves, and are generally oppoſite, and jointed at each knot. The leaves are generally placed oppoſite in pairs, ſo as to reſemble a croſs; and are ſlightly united at the bottom by their foot-ſtalks. The hairs are ſimple, like ſilk. The flowers are hermaphrodite; but ſome have male and female flowers upon diſtinct roots. They either ſtand ſingle on their foot-ſtalks, and proceed from the angles of the leaves and branches, or are diſpoſed in a ſpike, corymbus, umbel, or panicle. The calyx is permanent, and compoſed either of one piece with 5 indentments, or of 4 or 5 diſtinct leaves. The corolla generally conſiſts of five petals, which have claws of the length of the calyx; and a ſpreading limb, ſometimes entire, but oftener cleft. The ſtamina are from 3 to 15. When their number is double the diviſions of the calyx, they are attached alternately to the claws of the petals, the remaining ſtamina are inſerted into the common receptacle, and ſtand oppoſite to the ſegments of the calyx. The antheræ are ſhort, hemiſpherical, marked with 4 longitudinal furrows below,

low, moſt commonly erect; ſometimes, however, *incumbent*, that is, faſtened to the filaments by the ſides. The piſtil is compoſed of a ſingle ſeed-bud, which is generally roundiſh, ſometimes cornered. The ſtyles are thread-ſhaped, of the length of the ſtamina, and crowned with a ſimple ſmooth ſtigma, ſlightly hollowed within. The ſeed-veſſel is a dry capſule, of an oval form of the length of the calyx, and conſiſts of 1 or 3 cells.

(242.) 23. TRIHILATÆ conſiſt of plants with 3 ſeeds, which are marked with an external cicatrix, where they are faſtened within to the fruit.

(243.) 24. CORYDALES have irregular flowers, ſomewhat reſembling a helmet, and are moſtly herbaceous and perennial. The roots are tuberous or knobby; the ſtems generally branching; The leaves alternate, ſometimes ſimple, but commonly winged. The foot-ſtalk of the leaves is ſtrait or narrow, except in *epimedium*. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx conſiſts of 2, 4, 5, or 6 leaves, which are frequently coloured. The corolla is generally irregular; of one, or many pieces; gaping; and furniſhed with a nectarium, which is very different in the different genera. The ſtamina are from 2 to 6. The filaments are diſtinct, except in two genera, fumitory and *monnieria*, which have two ſets united in a cylinder. The antheræ are univerſally diſtinct, except in *impatiens*, where they form a cylinder divided at the baſe. The ſeed-bud is generally roundiſh, but ſometimes angular. The ſtyle is commonly ſingle, extremely ſhort and ſlender, and crowned with a ſimple ſtigma. The ſeed-veſſel is either a hollow blown-up berry, a capſule of one cell, or a pod. The ſeeds are generally numerous and round.

(244.) 25. PUTAMINEÆ conſiſt of a few genera of plants allied in habit, whoſe fruit is frequently covered with a hard woody ſhell.

(245.) 26. MULTISILIQUÆ conſiſt of plants which have more ſeed-veſſels than one. The greater part have many dry capſules, and the remainder bear numerous diſtinct ſeeds. They are moſtly perennial; the ſtems of ſome are erect; others creep upon the ground, and produce roots near the origin of each leaf; others climb, and attach themſelves to other bodies, either by the foot-ſtalk, or by tendrils which terminate it. The greateſt height of thoſe that riſe erect ſeldom exceeds 8 feet. Thoſe which climb rarely exceed 15 or 20 feet. The roots are generally fleſhy. In ſome they are hand-ſhaped; in others finger-ſhaped; in others ſpherical or fibrous. The ſtems and young branches are cylindric. The leaves are of different forms; ſometimes ſimple and entire, ſometimes hand-ſhaped, generally alternate. The foot-ſtalk, which is ſometimes cylindric, ſometimes angular, is membranous, and very large at its origin, ſurrounding a great part of the ſtem. The flowers are hermaphrodite, and proceed either ſingly from the leaves, or terminate the branches in a ſpike, panicle, or head. The petals are from 4 to 15; generally equal, and ſometimes diſpoſed in 2 or 3 ſeries; 5 is the prevailing number. The ſtamina are from 5 to 300, diſtinct, and attached generally in ſeveral rows to the receptacle. The ſtyle is frequently wanting. In the ſeed-veſſel is wanting; in others it is compoſed of ſeveral dry capſules, each containing a ſingle cell. The ſeeds are numerous, and often angular. They are cauſtic and purgative.

(246.) 27. RHÆADEÆ, conſiſt of poppy and a few genera which reſemble it in habit and ſtructure. Upon being cut, they emit plentifully a juice which is white in poppy, and yellow in the others. Theſe plants are narcotic.

(247.) 28. LURIDÆ are an order of plants whoſe pale appearance indicates their baleful and noxious qualities. Moſt of them are herbaceous and perennial. Many of them are of the maſked tribe of flowers; others reſemble theſe in their general appearance, but differ from them in the equality of the ſtamina. The roots are generally branched, ſometimes tuberous. The ſtems and branches are cylindric. The leaves are generally ſimple, and placed alternate. The flowers are hermaphrodite. They proceed either ſingly or in cluſters from the angle formed by the leaves and branches. The calyx is generally of one piece deeply divided into 5 parts. The corolla conſiſts of one petal, which is either bell, funnel, or wheel ſhaped. The ſtamina are 4 or 5. The ſeed-bud is placed above the receptacle. The ſtyle is ſingle, and terminated by a hemiſpherical top. The ſeed-veſſel, in ſuch as have equal ſtamina, is a berry; in the reſt, it is generally a capſule. The ſeeds are numerous and frequently kidney-ſhaped.

(248.) 29. CAMPANACEÆ have bell-ſhaped flowers, and are herbaceous and perennial. The roots are either ſpindle-ſhaped, or branching. The ſtems are round; the branches are generally alternate and commonly attached to the branches by a ſemi-cylindric foot-ſtalk. The indentments are terminated by a ſmall white knob. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx is a perianthum, generally compoſed of one leaf, divided into 5 ſegments. The corolla is monopetalous, and of the bell, funnel, or wheel ſhape. The upper part of the corolla is deeply divided into 5 ſegments which are alternate with the diviſions of the calyx. The corolla is generally permanent. The ſtamina are 5, attached to the baſe of the tube of the corolla, alternate with its diviſions, and oppoſite to thoſe of the calyx. The filaments are diſtinct very large at their origin; and ſlender and awl-ſhaped above. The antheræ are very long; oval, marked with 4 longitudinal furrows. The germen is roundiſh, and ſituated under the flower. The ſtyle and ſtigma are commonly ſingle. The ſeed-veſſel is a roundiſh capſule, generally divided into 3 cells. The ſeeds are ſmall, numerous, rounded, and ſometimes cornered. The plants are medicinal, and abound with a white milky juice.

(249.) 30. CONTORTÆ, plants which have a ſingle petal twiſted towards one ſide. This order contains trees, ſhrubs, fat ſucculent plants and herbaceous vegetables, generally perennial. The roots are ſometimes branching but commonly fleſhy. The ſtems are round. The branches are ſometimes alternate, ſometimes oppoſite. The buds are of a conic form, and naked. The leaves are ſometimes alternate, ſometimes oppoſite, and ſometimes in whirls. The weapons are a downy ſort of pubeſcence, and ſimple, or forked prickles. The flowers are hermaprodite, either ſingle or in cluſters. The flower-cup is one leaf divided into five

five unequal segments, which are permanent. The corolla consists of one petal, which in the different genera is bell, salver, funnel, or wheel-shaped. The upper part of the petal is generally divided into five equal parts, slightly bent to the left. The tube is generally long and cylindric. In several flowers of this order, the petal is accompanied with a *nectarium*, which varies in the different genera. The stamina, are 5, short, and equal. The antheræ are generally erect. The seed-bud is either single or double. In some the style is wanting. The stigma is frequently double. The seed-vessel in some genera is a pulpy fruit, of the berry and cherry kind; but most frequently that species termed by Linnæus *conceptaculum* and *follicle*. Two of these dry fruits, with a single cell, compose the seed-vessel of most plants of this order. The seeds are generally numerous, and in several genera crowned with a long downy wing, by which they disperse and sow themselves. The plants being cut, emit a juice, either of a milky, or greenish white, which is deemed poisonous.

(250.) 31. Vepreculæ, (from *vepres*, a briar,) consist of plants resembling the daphne, &c. but which do not constitute a true natural class.

(251.) 32. Papilionaceæ, plants that have papilionaceous flowers, are of very different duration; some being herbaceous, either annual or perennial; others of the shrub and tree kind, a few of which rise to 70 feet and upwards. The herbaceous plants generally climb; for, being weak, they are provided with tendrils and sharp-pointed hooks, to fasten upon the neighbouring trees or rocks; and some twist themselves, for support, around bodies. The shrubs and trees are mostly armed with strong spines. The roots are very long, and furnished with fibres. The stems are cylindric. The bark of the large trees is extremely wrinkled; the wood is very hard and commonly veined. The buds are hemispherical, without scales; and the leaves are alternate, and either simple, finger-shaped, or winged. The pinnated leaves of this order have a daily motion, depending upon the sun in his diurnal course. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx is a perianthium of one leaf bell-shaped. The bottom of the calyx is moistened with a sweet liquor like honey. The petals are 4 or 5, very irregular, and resemble a butterfly. The stamina are generally ten. The antheræ are small, round, and slightly attached to the filaments. The seed-bud is single, placed upon the receptacle, oblong, cylindrical, slightly compressed and sometimes elevated by a slender footstalk which issues from the centre of the calyx. The style is single, slender, and generally bent. The stigma is commonly covered with a beautiful down, and placed immediately under the antheræ. The seed-vessel is a legumen, of an oblong figure, compressed, with two valves, and several cavities, often separated, when ripe, by a sort of joints. The seeds are generally few, round, smooth, and fleshy, and all fastened along one suture. These plants are emollient.

(252.) 33. Lomentaceæ, (from *lomentum*, a colour used by painters,) furnish beautiful tinctures, and some of them are much used in dyeing. They differ from the last order, only in the following particulars: In all plants of this order, except milk-wort, the stamina are distinct. The flower is not shaped like a butterfly, but is less irregular, and frequently consists of one petal. The leaves are sometimes simple, but most commonly winged. The seeds are marked with a furrow on both sides. These plants are mucilaginous.

(253.) 34. Cucurbitaceæ, (from *cucurbita*, a gourd) plants which resemble the gourd in external figure, habit, virtues, and sensible qualities. They generally climb, have long diffused branches, and are mostly herbaceous and perennial. The roots in the perennial are shaped like those of the turnip; in the annual they are branching and fibrous. The stems are cylindric and succulent. The leaves are alternate, angular, and sometimes hand-shaped. From the angle of each of the upper leaves proceeds a tendril, which twists itself spirally round the different bodies in its neighbourhood. The lower leaves have no tendril. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, or male and female, separated upon the same root. The flower-cup, in the female flowers, is placed upon the seed-bud; and generally consists of one bell-shaped leaf, deeply divided into five unequal segments, which falls off with the petals and the other parts of the flower. The corolla consists of one petal, with 5 equal divisions, which adhere to the tube of the calyx. The stamina are from 1 to 5, short, and generally inserted into the calyx. The filaments are distinct. The seed-bud is single, and placed below the receptacle. The style is generally single, cylindrical, and crowned with a triple stigma. The seed-vessel is generally pulpy, of the apple or berry kind, and consists of 2 or 3 cells. The seeds are numerous. These plants are purgative.

(254.) 35. Senticosæ, (from *sentis* a briar,) consist of the rose, bramble, and other plants which resemble them in external structure. These plants are so nearly allied in form, habit and structure, to the Pomaceæ, that they ought never to have been separated. The fruits are cooling.

(255.) 36. Pomaceæ, consist of plants which have a pulpy esculent fruit, of the apple, berry, or cherry kind. The plants of this order, which furnish many of our most esteemed fruits, are mostly of the shrub and tree kind. The roots are branched, fibrous, and very long. The stems and branches are cylindric. These last are placed alternate; and, when young, are, in some genera, angular. The bark is thick and wrinkled. The buds are of a conic form, placed in the angles of the leaves, and covered with scales which lie over each other like tiles. The leaves, which are either simple or winged, are generally placed alternate. The footstalk of the leaves is furrowed above, and frequently accompanied by knobs. The flowers are universally hermaphrodite, except in *spiræa aruncus*, in which male and female flowers are produced on distinct plants. In the greater number of genera they are produced in clusters. The calyx is of one piece, with 5 segments, which are permanent. The petals are 5, inserted into the tube of the calyx. The stamina are generally 20 and upwards. The antheræ are short, and slightly attached to the filaments. The seed-bud is single; and in those genera which have the calyx permanent, it is placed below the receptacle. Those of the apple kind are divided

internally into a number of cavities or cells. The ſeeds are numerous. The fruits are eſculent.

(256.) 37. Columniferæ, (from *columna* a pillar, and *fero* to bear,) plants whoſe ſtamina and piſtil have the appearance of a pillar in the centre of the flower. This order furniſhes a choice collection of herbs both annual and perennial, ſhrubs, and trees. Theſe vary greatly in ſize and height, from the creeping mallows, and low ſhrubby tea tree, to the fleſhy limes, and the lofty ſilk-cotton trees, which are ſaid to be ſo large as not to be fathomed by 16 men, and ſo tall that an arrow cannot reach their top. The ſhrubs and trees of this order are deciduous, pretty thick, of a beautiful appearance, with an erect ſtem, formed by its branches and foliage into a round head. The roots are extremely long, branch but little, and either run perpendicularly downwards, or extend horizontally below the ſurface. The ſtems are cylindric. The bark is thick and pliant. The wood, in general, very ſoft and light. The buds are conic, naked, and ſituated either at the extremity of the branches, or in the angle formed by the branch and leaf. The leaves are alternate, ſimple, divided into ſeveral lobes, and frequently hand or finger ſhaped. The nerves on the back of the leaf, in ſome genera, are provided near their origin, with a number of hollow furrows, which, being filled with a clammy honey-like liquor, have been conſidered as ſo many veſſels of ſecretion. The foot-ſtalk is cylindric, ſwelled at its origin, and appears jointed at its junction with the branch. The flowers are univerſally hermaphrodite, except in *biggeleria* and *napæa dioica*. In many plants of this order, the flowers generally open about nine in the morning, and remain expanded till 1 p. m. In ſome of them the calyx is ſingle, and compoſed of one leaf which is permanent. In thoſe plants that have a double calyx, both flower-cups are generally permanent. The petals are from 4 to 9; the ſtamina from 5 to 20 and upwards. The filaments are either diſtinct, or united in a cylinder, which ſurround the ſeed-bud. The antheræ are placed erect on the filaments, moſt commonly oblong, and ſlightly attached by the middle, to the filaments, on which they turn like a vane. The ſeed-bud is generally roundiſh or conic; and ſometimes angular. The ſeed-veſſel is generally a capſule; ſometimes a pulpy fruit of the berry or cherry kind. In ſome, it is a woody or membranous capſule, divided into as many cells internally as there were partitions in the ſeed-bud. The ſeeds are generally ſolitary, ſometimes angular, and ſometimes kidney-ſhaped. The plants are mucilaginous and lubricating.

(257.) 38. Tricocceæ (from τρεις, three, and κοκκος, a grain;) plants with a ſingle three-cornered capſule, having 3 cells, each containing a ſingle ſeed. The ſeed-veſſel is of a ſingular form, and reſembles 3 capſules, which adhere to one common footſtalk as a centre, but are divided externally into 3 pretty deep partitions. This order is not completely natural, but the character expreſſed in the title is a ſtriking one; and though plants which poſſeſs it are not connected by ſuch numerous relations as to form a true natural claſs, they are by that circumſtance diſtinguiſhed from other plants with as great, nay, greater facility, than by any artificial character yet known. But all the genera have not this ſtriking character.

(258.) 39. Siliquosæ, plants which have a pod for their ſeed-veſſel. They are chiefly biennial and perennial herbs of an irregular figure. The roots are long, branched, crooked, and fibrous. In ſome they are ſucculent and fleſhy, in others jointed. The ſtems and young branches are cylindric. The leaves are either ſimple or winged, and are generally placed alternate. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The flower-cup is compoſed of four leaves, which are oblong, hollow, blunt, bunched at the baſe, ſometimes erect, and ſometimes ſpread horizontally. The petals which are 4, ſpread at top, and are diſpoſed like a croſs; the claws are erect, flat, awl-ſhaped, and ſomewhat longer than the calyx. The ſtigma are ſix. The antheræ are of an oblong figure, pointed, thicker at the baſe, and erect. The ſeed-bud is ſingle, and ſtands upon the receptacle. The ſtyle is either cylindric or flat. The ſtamina is blunt, and ſometimes deeply divided into two parts. The ſeed-veſſel is either a long pod, or a ſhort and round one. The ſeeds are roundiſh, ſmall, and attached alternately by a ſlender thread to both ſutures. The plants are diuretic and antiſcorbutic.

(259.) 40. Personatæ, (from *perſona*, a maſque,) conſiſt of a number of plants whoſe flowers are furniſhed with an irregular, gaping, or grinning petal, in figure ſomewhat reſembling the ſnout of an animal. This order furniſhes both herbaceous and woody vegetables of the ſhrub and tree kind. The roots are generally fibrous and branched. The ſtems and branches are cylindric, when young, except in ſome ſpecies of figwort. The leaves are ſimple, generally placed oppoſite in pairs at the bottom of the branches, but in many genera ſtand alternate towards the top. The flowers are hermaphrodite; they proceed either ſingly or in cluſters from the wings of the leaves, or terminate the branches in a ſpike, panicle, or head. The calyx is of 1 leaf, which is cut into 2, 3, 4, or 5 ſegments that are permanent. The corolla is compoſed of one irregular petal. The ſtamina are 2 or 4. The ſeed-bud is ſingle, and placed above the receptacle. The ſtyle is ſingle; thread-ſhaped, bent in the direction of the ſtamina; and crowned with a ſtigma which is generally blunt, and ſometimes divided into two. The ſeed-veſſel is a capſule, generally divided into two cells. The ſeeds are numerous, and affixed to a receptacle. The internal uſe of many of them is extremely pernicious; applied externally, they are anodyne, and powerful reſolvents.

(260.) 41. Asperifoliæ, rough-leafed plants, are moſtly herbaceous and perennial. The roots are branching and fibrous; the ſtems and branches rounded; the buds of a conic form and naked. The leaves are ſimple, alternate, commonly rough to the touch, and in moſt of the herbaceous plants ſeſſile. In the trees, however, the leaves have a foot-ſtalk, the lower part of which, after the fall of the leaves, remain like a thorn. The hairs are ſimple, and generally very rough. The flowers are commonly collected into a ſpike; and proceed not from the angle formed by the branch with the leaf, but from the ſide of the leaf, a

the part of the ſtem oppoſite to it. They are almoſt all hermaphrodite; except in a few ſpecies of *cordia*, which are dicœcious. The calyx is compoſed of one leaf, which is divided into from 3 to 10 parts. The corolla is monopetalous, and variouſly ſhaped. The ſtamina are 5, alternate with the diviſions of the corolla. The antheræ are in ſome genera *connivent*. The piſtillum is generally a ſlender ſtyle, crowned with a ſimple ſtigma. The ſeeds are generally 4, and lodged in the bottom of the calyx. The are diuretic, and cordial.

(261.) 42. VERTICILLATÆ conſiſt of herbaceous vegetables, having 4 naked ſeeds, and the flowers placed in whorls round the ſtalk. The roots are branched and fibrous. The ſtems are round when old, but ſquare when young. The leaves are oppoſite, and generally ſupported upon a long cylindrical foot-ſtalk, furrowed above. The flowers are all hermaphrodite, except in one ſpecies of thyme. They are diſpoſed round the ſtem in whorls. The calyx is of one piece, generally cut into 5 unequal diviſions. The petal is of the gaping kind, and more or leſs irregular, either in its tube, or the diviſions of the lips which vary from 2 to 4. The ſtamina are moſtly 4, of unequal length. The ſeed-bud conſiſts of 4 diſtinct ovaries, is placed upon the ſeat of the flower, and elevates from their centre a common ſtyle, which is ſlender and bent. The ſeeds are 4 and lodged in the bottom of the calyx. Each ſeed has two covers; the one external and cartilaginous; the other internal, and membranaceous. The leaves are cordial and cephalic.

(262.) 43. DUMOSÆ, (from *dumus* a buſh,) are all of the ſhrub and tree kind, thick and buſhy, rising from 6 to 25, 30, and even 40 feet high. Many of them, too, are evergreens. The roots are branched and fibrous. The ſtems are cylindric. The buds are naked in the evergreen ſhrubs; but covered with ſcales in moſt of the others. The leaves, which in ſome genera are ſimple, in others compound, are placed alternate in ſome, and oppoſite in others. The flowers are moſtly hermaphrodite. The calyx is generally very ſmall, and conſiſts of one leaf, with 4, 5, or 6 diviſions, which are permanent. The petals are from 1 to 10. The ſtamina are either 4, 5, 6, or 10. The ſeed-bud is generally roundiſh, and within the flower. The ſtyle is commonly ſingle, and ſometimes wanting. The ſtigma is either ſingle or ſimple. The ſeed-veſſel is generally a berry, ſometimes a dry capſule; the ſeeds are generally ſingle and egg ſhaped. The berries are purgative.

(263.) 44. SEPIARIÆ, (from *ſepes* a hedge,) from their ſize, elegance, and other circumſtances, are very proper for hedges. This order contains both ſhrubs and trees, moſt of which do not drop their leaves till nearly the time when the new leaves begin to appear.

(264.) 45. UMBELLATÆ, plants whoſe flowers grow in umbels, with 5 petals that are often unequal, and two naked ſeeds joined at top and ſeparated below. They are herbaceous, and chiefly perennial. The roots are either tuberous or ſpindle-ſhaped; ſometimes forked. The ſtems are cylindric, full of pitch, and frequently hollow. The branches and leaves are alternate. The latter vary much in form; being ſimple and entire in ſome; target ſhaped, finger or hand-ſhaped, in others; and pinnated in the greater number. They are ſupported by a foot-ſtalk, which is very broad at its origin, and commonly embraces the whole contour of the ſtem and branches. The flowers are in general hermaphrodite: though ſome have male flowers in the ſame umbel, and others hermaphrodite and male flowers upon diſtinct plants. The common ſort is that termed by Linnæus *involucrum*. The petals are 5, diſpoſed upon the ſides of the flower-cup in form of a roſe. The ſtamina are 5, placed oppoſite to the diviſions of the flower-cup, and alternate with the petals. The ſeed-bud is placed under the ſeat of the flower, and ſupports two ſtyles. The ſeeds are two, which, when ripe, ſeparate below. The plants of this order, which grow in dry places, are ſudorific, ſtomachic, and warming.

(265.) 46. HEDERACEÆ, (from *hedera* ivy;) conſiſts of both herbaceous and ſhrubby plants; moſt of which, particularly ivy and vine, have creeping branches, which attach themſelves by roots or tendrils to other bodies. The roots are long, with few branches. The ſtems and young branches are cylindric. In ſome ſpecies of vine they are ſquare. The leaves are alternate; ſometimes ſimple, ſometimes winged. The foot-ſtalk of the leaves is cylindrical, and without any furrow. The buds are of a conic form, and without ſcales. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, male and female upon different roots, or hermaphrodite and male upon different roots. The calyx conſiſts of one leaf divided into 5 parts. The petals are generally 5. The ſtamina are alſo 5, awl-ſhaped, erect, and generally of the length of the petals. The antheræ are roundiſh, and ſometimes, as in ivy, attached to the filaments by the ſides. The ſeed-bud is ſometimes round, ſometimes pear-ſhaped, and ends in 1, 2, or 5 awl-ſhaped ſtyles, crowned with a ſimple ſtigma. The ſeed-veſſel is of the berry kind, with 1, 2, or 5 ſtiles. The ſeeds are from 1 to 5, placed either in diſtinct cells, or diſperſed through the pulp.

(266.) 47. STELLATÆ, (from *ſtella* a ſtar,) conſiſt of plants with two naked ſeeds, and leaves diſpoſed round the ſtem in form of a radiant ſtar. This order contains herbs, ſhrubs, and trees. The herbs are chiefly annual, and creep along the ground. The ſhrubs and trees are moſtly evergreens, which riſe erect, and are of an agreeable conic form. They are opening and cordial.

(267.) 48. AGGREGATÆ, plants which have aggregate flowers, conſiſt of a number of florets, each of which have a proper and common calyx.

(268.) 49. COMPOSITÆ, plants with compound flowers. In this order Linnæus has conſtructed his primary diviſions from the different ſexes of the florets, which he terms *polygamii*; the ſubaltern diviſions are conſtructed from the figure of the petals, the diſpoſition of the flowers, the pappus or crown of the ſeed, the common receptacle, and other circumſtances which characterize the ſubaltern diviſions in other authors.

(269.) 50. AMENTACEÆ, plants bearing catkins.

(270.) 51. CONIFERÆ, (from *conus* a cone, and *fero* to bear); plants, whoſe female flowers, placed at a diſtance from the male, either on the ſame or diſtinct roots, are formed into a cone. In

this character, the only one expreſſed in the title, the plants ſeem to be nearly allied to the moſſes: from which, however, they are eaſily diſtinguiſhed by their habit, as well as by the ſtructure of the ſmall flowers, in which the ſtamina are united below into a cylinder, and diſtinct at top. They are moſtly ſhrubs and trees, and retain their leaves all the year. The form of theſe plants is generally conic, and extremely beautiful, from the diſpoſition of the branches, which cover the ſtems to the roots, extending horizontally and circularly like rays. The height of ſome genera does not exceed half a foot; that of others approaches to 100. The roots are ſhort, branching, not very fibrous, and extend horizontally. The ſtems and branches are cylindric. The bark is thin, and ſplit into ſlender ſcales. The wood, except that of the yew, poſſeſſes little hardneſs. The buds are of a conic form, and naked. The leaves are entire, ſmall, and thick, frequently triangular, generally pointed; and are either alternate, oppoſite, placed in whorls, or collected into ſmall bundles, proceeding from a ſingle point. The flowers are all male and female. The calyx of the male flowers is a catkin; of the female, a cone. The petals are wanting; except in juniper. The ſtamina are from 3 to 20 and upwards; united into a cylinder, which riſes out of the centre of the calyx. The antheræ are erect, diſtinct, of a roundiſh form, and divided into internal cells. The ſeed-buds are generally numerous. From each ſeed-bud ariſes a very ſhort cylindrical ſtyle, crowned with a ſimple ſtigma, of a conic form. The ſeeds are naked. They are gummy and odorous.

(271.) 52. Coadunatæ, (from *coadunare*, to join,) are ſo termed from the general appearance of the ſeed-veſſels, which are numerous, and being ſlightly attached below, form all together a ſingle fruit in the ſhape of a ſphere or cone; the parts of which, however, are eaſily ſeparated. This order conſiſts of exotic ſhrubs and trees, both evergreen and deciduous. The trees are often 60 feet high, and garniſhed from the bottom to the top with ſpreading branches and leaves of a bright green colour, which aſſume a very agreeable conic form. The roots are branching and fibrous. The ſtems are cylindric, and the wood very hard. The buds are conic, flat, and generally without ſcales. The leaves are all ſimple and alternate. The footſtalk is cylindric, without furrows, and frequently ſwelled at its origin. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx conſiſts of 3 oblong plain leaves, like petals. The petals are from 6 to 18, oblong, concave, and diſpoſed in 2 or 3 rows. The ſtamina are numerous, ſhort, and inſerted into the common receptacle in ſome, and into the ſeed-bud in others. The filaments are very ſhort and ſlender. The antheræ are numerous, ſlender, and placed round the ſeed-bud. The piſtillum generally conſiſts of a number of ſeed-buds in the form of a cone, ſeated upon a receptacle, which riſes above that of the calyx. From each ſeed-bud generally riſes a ſhort cylindrical ſtyle. The ſtigma is commonly blunt. The ſeed-veſſels are of the berry, capſule, or cherry kind, and are equal in number to the ſeed-buds, generally ſlightly attached below. The ſeeds numerous, hard, roundiſh, and ſometimes cornered. The plants have a ſtrong, agreeable, and aromatic ſmell. The bark and wood are bitter.

(272.) 53. Scabridæ, (from *ſcaber* rough,) conſiſt of plants with rough leaves; which ſeem to be akin to the *Aſperifoliæ*; only their degree of roughneſs is much greater. They are aſtringent. Their taſte is bitter and ſtyptic.

(273.) 54. Miscellaneæ, miſcellaneous plants. This order conſiſts of ſuch genera as are not connected together by very numerous relations. See § 333.

(274.) 55. Filices, ferns, bear their flower and fruit on the back of the leaf or ſtalk. Theſe plants, in figure, approach the more perfect vegetables; being furniſhed, like them, with roots and leaves. The roots creep, and extend horizontally under the earth, throwing out a number of very ſlender fibres on all ſides. The ſtem is not be diſtinguiſhed from the common footſtalk, or rather middle rib of the leaves: ſo that in ſtrict propriety the greater number of ferns may be ſaid to be *acaules*. In ſome, however, the middle rib overtops the leaves, and forms a flower ſtalk. The leaves proceed ſingly, or in numbers, from the extremities of the branches of the main root. They are winged or hand-ſhaped in all the genera, except in adders-tongue, pepper-graſs, and ſome ſpecies of ſpleen-wort. The flowers are, in the greater number of genera, faſtened, and as it were glued, to the back of the leaves; in others, they are ſupported upon a ſtem which riſes above the leaves; but in ſome, on a flower-ſtalk. The ſtamina are placed apart from the ſeed-bud in a genus termed by Mr Adanſon *palma filix*; in the other ferns, where the ſtamina have been diſcovered, they are found within the ſame covers with the ſeed-bud. Moſt of the ferns have a diſagreeable ſmell. They are opening and attenuating.

(275.) 56. Musci, moſſes, reſemble the pines, firs, and other evergreens of that claſs, in the form and diſpoſition of their leaves, and manner of growth of the female flowers, which are generally formed into a cone. They frequently creep, and extend like a carpet upon the ground, trees, and ſtones; being generally collected into bunches and tufts: the ſmalleſt are only one third of an inch in height, and the largeſt do not exceed 5 or 6. Few of them are annual: ſmall as they are, the greater number are perennial and evergreens. Their growth is remarkably ſlow, as may be judged by the time that the antheræ take to ripen. This, reckoning from the firſt appearance of the antheræ to the diſperſion of its powder or male duſt, is generally 5 or 6 months. Although preſerved dry for ſeveral years, they have the ſingular property of reſuming their original verdure upon being moiſtened. It is uncertain, whether they do not alſo reſume their vegetative quality. Their roots are fibrous, ſlender, branched, and ſhort. The ſtems and branches are cylindric and weak; they creep upon the ground, and ſtrike root on every ſide. The leaves are very ſmall and undivided. They are either alternate, oppoſite, or placed by fours round the ſtalk. They have no perceptible footſtalk, but are ſeated immediately upon the ſtem. The flowers are univerſally male and female: in ſome, the male flowers are produced

produced upon the ſame plants with the female, and ſtand before them; in others, they are produced ſometimes on the ſame, and ſometimes on diſtinct plants. The male flowers conſiſt entirely of antheræ, and their coverings proceed either ſingly, or in cluſters, from the extremity of the branches, or angles of the leaves; and are either ſeated immediately upon the branches, or ſupported by a long footſtalk. The female flowers, which generally reſemble capſules or cones, are all placed immediately upon the ſtem or branches, without any footſtalk; and proceed ſingly either from the wings of the leaves, or ſummit of the branches; when produced upon the ſame plant with the male they are always placed under them. The female cones of the maſſes greatly reſemble thoſe of the pines and evergreen trees of that claſs; the ſcales which form them are true leaves, each containing in its wing or angle a ſingle ſeed. When the ſeeds are ripe, the cones probably open for their diſperſion. When ſhut, they reſemble buds, and have ſometimes been ignorantly miſtaken for ſuch. The calyx, in this order, reſembles a monk's cowl, which, in the male flowers, covers or is ſuſpended over the tops of the ſtamina like an extinguiſher. The petals are univerſally wanting. The maſſes in general are almoſt taſteleſs, have few ſcents, and being once dried do not readily imbibe moiſture from the air. Thoſe which grow in water, being thrown into the fire, grow red, and are reduced to aſhes without flame; on which account ſome ſuperſtitious people, the Siberians in particular, place water moſs in their chimnies, as a preſervative againſt fire. They all have a ſurpriſing property of preſerving dry ſuch bodies as are ſuſceptible of moiſture; and in retaining, for a long time, the humidity of young plants without expoſing them to putrefaction. For this reaſon, ſuch plants, as are to be ſent to any conſiderable diſtance, are generally wrapped up in them.

(257.) 57. ALGÆ, flags, conſiſt of marine plants, &c. whoſe root, leaf, and ſtem, are all one.

(258.) 58. FUNGI, muſhrooms, are rarely branched, ſometimes creeping, but moſt commonly erect. Such as are furniſhed with branches have them of a light ſpongy ſubſtance like cork. Muſhrooms differ from the fuci, in that thoſe which, like the fuci, have their ſeeds contained in capſules, are not branched, as that numerous claſs of ſea-weeds are. The greateſt part of muſhrooms have no root: ſome, inſtead of roots, have fibres, which, by their inoſculations, frequently form a net with unequal meſhes, ſome of which produce plants ſimilar to their parent vegetable. The ſtamina in theſe plants are ſtill undetermined. The ſeeds are ſpread over the ſurface of the plant, or placed in open holes or cavities, reſembling the open capſules of ſome of the fuci. In muſhrooms which are branched, the ſeeds are frequently viſible by the naked eye, and always to be diſtinctly obſerved by the aſſiſtance of a good microſcope. Theſe plants are very aſtringent. As food, they are at beſt ſuſpicious; ſome of them are rank poiſon.

(278.) PLANTÆ DUBII ORDINIS, plants of uncertain order. Under this name Linnæus claſſes all the other genera which cannot be reduced to any of the above-mentioned orders, and which are near 120 in number.

SECT. II. *The* GENERA *arranged according to the* NATURAL METHOD.

(279.) In the natural method of claſſification there is no ſubdiviſion ſimilar to that of ORDERS, in the Sexual ſyſtem; and therefore the terms CLASSES and ORDERS are uſed ſynonimouſly for the *higher* diſtinction, and the GENERA of conſequence rank as the *ſecond* diviſion. The following, though not complete, is the beſt arrangement we can make out from botanical authors, of the genera under the natural orders.

(280.) 1. PALMÆ contains 14 genera; viz. Areca, Boraſſus, Caryota, Chamærops, Cocos, Corypha, Cycas, Elais, Elate, Hydrocharis, Phœnix, Stratiotes, Vallisneria, and Zamia.

(281.) 2. PIPERITÆ contains 10 genera; viz. Acorus, Ambroſinia, Arum, Calla, Dracontium, Orontium, Piper, Pothos, Saururus, and Zoſtera.

(282.) 3. CALAMARIÆ, 7 genera; viz. Carex, Cyperus, Eriophorum, Schænus, Scirpus, Sparganium, and Typha.

(283.) 4. GRAMINA, 45 genera; viz. Ægilops, Agroſtis, Aira, Alopecurus, Andropogon, Anthoxanthum, Apluda, Ariſtida, Arundo, Avena, Bobartia, Briza, Bromus, Cenchrus, Cinna, Coix, Cornucopiæ, Cynoſurus, Dactylis, Elymus, Feſtuca, Holcus, Hordeum, Iſchæmum, Lagurus, Lolium, Lygæum, Melica, Milium, Nardus, Olyra, Oryza, Panicum, Paſpalum, Phalaris, Pharus, Phleum, Poa, Saccharum, Secale, Stipa, Tripſacum, Triticum, Uniola, and Zea.

(284.) 5. TRIPETALOIDEÆ, 9 genera; viz. Aliſma, Aphyllanthes, Butomus, Calamus, Flagellaria, Juncus, Sagittaria, Scheuchzeria, and Triglochin.

(285.) 6. ENSATÆ, 15 genera; viz. Antholyza, Callisia, Commelina, Crocus, Eriocaulon, Ferraria, Gladiolus, Iris, Ixia, Moræa, Pontederia, Syſyrinchium, Tradeſcantia, Wachendorfia, and Xyris.

(286.) 7. ORCHIDEÆ, 8 genera; viz. Arethuſa, Cypripedium, Epidendrum, Limodorum, Ophrys, Orchis, Satyrium, and Serapias.

(287.) 8. SCITAMINEÆ, 9 genera; viz. Alpinia, Amomum, Cana, Coſtus, Curcuma, Kæmpferia, Maranta, Muſa, and Thalia.

(288.) 9. SPATHACEÆ, 11 genera; viz. Allium, Amaryllis, Bulbocodium, Colchicum, Crinum, Galanthus, Gethyllis, Hæmanthus, Leucoium, Narciſſus, and Pancratium.

(289.) 10. CORONARIÆ, 23 genera; viz. Agave, Albuca, Aletris, Aloe, Anthericum, Aſphodelus, Bromelia, Burmannia, Cyanella, Fritillaria, Helonias, Hemerocallis, Hyacinthus, Hypoxis, Lilium, Melanthium, Ornithogalum, Polianthes, Scilla, Tillandſia, Tulipa, Veratrum, and Yucca.

(290.) 11. SARMENTOSÆ, 20 genera; viz. Alſtroemeria, Ariſtolochia, Aſarum, Aſparagus, Centella, Ciſſampelos, Convallaria, Cytinus, Dioſcorea, Erythronium, Glorioſa, Medeola, Meniſpermum, Paris, Rajania, Ruſcus, Smilax, Tamus, Trillium, and Uvularia.

(291.) 12. HOLERACEÆ, 35 genera; viz. Anabaſis, Anacardium, Atraphaxis, Atriplex, Axyris, Baſella, Begonia,

Begonia, Beta, Blitum, Bucida, Calligonum, Callitriche, Camphoroſma, Ceratocarpus, Chenopodium, Coccoloba, Coriſpermum, Heiſteria, Herniaria, Illecebrum, Laurus, Mimuſops, Nyſſa, Petiveria, Polycnemum, Polygonum, Rheum, Rhizophora, Rivina, Rumex, Salicornia, Salſola, Spinacia, Tinus, and Winterania.

(292.) 13. SUCCULENTÆ, 28 genera; viz. Adoxa, Aizoon, Cactus, Chryſoſplenium, Claytonia, Cotyledon, Craſſula, Galenia, Hydrangea, Meſembryenthamum, Mitella, Nama, Neurada, Penthorum, Portulaca, Reaumuria, Rhodiola, Saxifraga, Sedum, Sempervivum, Septas, Seſuvium, Suriana, Tamarix, Tetragonia, Tiarella, Tillea and Trianthema.

(293.) 14. GRUINALES, 11 genera; viz. Aldrovanda, Averrhoa, Droſera, Fagonia, Germanium, Guaiacum, Linum, Oxalis, Quaſſia, Tribulus, and Zygophyllum.

(294.) 15. INUNDATÆ, 8 genera; viz. Ceratophyllum, Elatine, Hippuris, Myriophyllum, Potamogeton, Proſerpinacea, Ruppia, and Zanichellia.

(295.) 16. CALYCIFLORÆ, 4 genera; viz. Elæagnus, Hippophae, Oſyris, and Trophis.

(296.) 17. CALYCANTHEMÆ, 16 genera; viz. Ammiana, Epilobium, Frankenia, Gaura, Glaux, Griſlæa, Iſnardia, Juſſiæa, Ludvigia, Lythrum, Melaſtoma, Mentzelia, Oenothera, Oſbeckia, Peplis, and Rhexia.

(297.) 18. BICORNES, 21 genera; viz. Andromeda, Arbutus, Azalea, Blæria, Citrus, Clethra, Dioſpyros, Epigea, Erica, Garcinia, Gaultheria, Haleſia, Kalmia, Ledum, Myrſine, Pyrola, Rhododendrum, Rhodora, Royena, Styrax, and Vaccinium.

(298.) 19. Heſperideæ, 5 genera; viz. Caryophyllus, Eugenia, Myrtus, Philadelphus, and Piſidium.

(299.) 20. ROTACEÆ, 13 genera; viz. Anagallis, Aſcyrum, Centunculus, Chironia, Ciſtus, Exacum, Gentiana, Hypericum, Lyſimachia, Phlox, Sarothra, Swertia, and Trientalis.

(300.) 11. PRECIÆ, 12 genera; Androſace, Arctia, Cortuſa, Cyclamen, Diapenſia, Dodecatheon, Hortonia, Limoſella, Menyanthes, Primula, Samolus, and Soldanella.

(301.) 22. CARYOPHYLLEÆ, 29 genera; viz. Agroſtemma, Alſine, Arenaria, Bufonia, Ceraſtium, Cherleria, Cucubalus, Dianthus, Drypis, Glinus, Gypſophila, Holoſteum, Lœflingia, Lychnis, Minuartia, Mœhringia, Mollugo, Ortegia, Pharnaceum, Polycarpon, Polypremum, Queria, Sagina, Saponaria, Scleranthus, Silene, Spergula, Stellaria, and Valezia.

(302.) 23. TRIHILATÆ, 12 genera; viz. Acer, Æſculus, Baniſteria, Cardioſpermum, Malpighia, Melia, Paulinia, Sapindus, Staphylæa, Trichilia, Triopteris, and Tropæolum.

(303.) 24. CORYDALES, 9 genera; viz. Epimedium, Fumaria, Hypecoum, Impatiens, Leontice, Melianthus, Monnieria, Pinguicula, and Utricularia.

(304.) 25. PUTAMINEÆ, 6 genera; viz. Capparis, Cleome, Cratæva, Creſcentia, Marcgravia, and Moriſonia.

(305.) 26. MULTISILIQUÆ, 21 genera; viz. Aconitum, Actæa, Adonis, Anemone, Aquilegia, Atragene, Caltha, Clematis, Delphinus, Garidella, Helleborus, Iſopyrum, Nigella, Pæonia, Peganum, Ranunculus, Thalictrum, and Trollius.

(306.) 27. RHÆADEÆ, 6 genera; viz. Argemone, Bocconia, Chelidonium, Glaucium, Sanguinaria, Sifymbrium, and Vella.

(307.) 28. LURIDÆ, 18 genera; viz. Acanthus, Brownallia, Capſicum, Cateſbæa, Bartſia, Datura, Digitalis, Elliſia, Hyoſcyamus, Capraria, Nicotiana, Pedalium, Phyſalis, Scrophularia, Collinſonia, Strychnus, and Verbaſcum. Cymbaria,

(308.) 29. CAMPANACEÆ, 11 genera; Euphraſia, panula, Convolvulus, Evolvulus, Jacquinia, Halleria, Lobelia, Phyteuma, Polemonium, Ipomœa, Martynia, lium, and Viola. Orobanche,

(309.) 30. CONTORTÆ, 17 genera; Rhinanthus, num, Aſclepias, Cameraria, Cerbera, Apocynum, Cynanchum, Echites, Gardenia, Gentiana, Verbena, nemum, Nerium, Periploca, Plumeria, Stapelia, Tabernæmontana, and Vinca; viz.

(310.) 31. VEPRECULÆ, 9 genera; Cordia, Daphne, Dirca, Gnidia, Lachnæa, Passerina, qualis, Stellera, and Theſium. Nolana,

(311.) 32. PAPILIONACEÆ, 50 genera; Abrus, Æſchynomene, Amorpha, Anthyllis, Arachis, Aſpalathus, Aſtragalus, Borbonia, Cicer, Clitoria, Colutea, Crotalaria, Cytiſus, Dolichos, Ebenus, Ononis, thrina, Galega, Geniſta, Geoffroea, Glycyrrhiza, Hedyſarum, Hippocrepis, Lathyrus, Lotus, Lupinus, Medicago, Ononis, Ornithopus, Orobus, Phaca, Piſcidia, Piſum, Pſoralea, Pterocarpus, Scorpiurus, Sophora, Spartium, Trigonella, Vicia, and Ulex.

(312.) 33. LOMENTACEÆ, 14 genera; nanthera, Bauhinia, Cæſalpinia, Caſſia, Cercis, Gleditſia, Guilandina, Hæmatoxylon, menæa, Mimoſa, Parkinſonia, Poinciana, lygala.

(313.) 34. CUCURBITACEÆ, 12 genera; Anguria, Bryonia, Cucumis, Cucurbita, Fevillea, Gronovia, Melotheria, Momordica, flora, Sicyos, and Trichoſanthes.

(314.) 35. SENTICOSÆ, 12 genera; monia, Alchemilla, Aphanes, Comarum, Fragaria, Geum, Potentilla, Roſa, Rubus, dia, and Tormentilla.

(315.) 36. POMACEÆ, 10 genera; viz. dalus, Chryſobalanus, Cratægus, Meſpilus, nus, Punica, Pyrus, Ribes, Sorbus, and

(316.) 37. COLUMNIFERÆ, 33 genera; fonia, Alcea, Althæa, Ayenia, Bixa, Bombax, mellia, Corchorus, Grevia, Goſſypium, Hel Heliocarpus, Hermannia, Hibiſcus, Kigl Kleinhovia, Lavatera, Malope, Malva, Me Micropus, Muntingia, Napæa, Pentapetes, Stewartia, Thea, Theobroma, Tilia, Triun Turnera, Urena, and Waltheria.

(317.) 38. TRICOCCÆ, 27 genera; viz. A pha, Adelia, Andrachne, Buxus, Camb Carica, Cliffortia, Clutia, Cneorum, Cr Cupania, Dalechampia, Euphorbia, Excœ Guettarda, Hernandria, Hippomane, Hura tropha, Mercurialis, Phyllanthus, Pluke Ricinus, Solandra, Sterculia, Tragia, and allis.

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…genera; viz. Alyſſum, …, Braſſica, Bunias, …, Cypcola, Cochlearia, …, Eryſimum, Heliophila, …, Lepidium, Lunaria, Mya…, Ricotia, Sinapis, Siſym…, Turritis, and Vella.

…, 54 genera; viz. Acan… Arenaria, Barleria, Bartſia, …, Buchnera, Capraria, …, Clerodendrum, Collinſo…, Craniolaria, Cymbaria, …, Duranta, Erinus, Euphraſia, …, Gmelina, Gratiola, Halleria, …, Lathræa, Manulea, Martynia, …, Obolaria, Orobanche, …, Petrea, Phryma, Rhinanthus, …, Scoparia, Scrophularia, Ste…, Torrenia, Vandellia, Verbena, Ve… Volkameria.

…IFOLIÆ, 19 genera; viz. An…, Borago, Cerinthe, Cordia, Cyno…, Ehretia, Heliotropium, Lithoſ…, Myoſotis, Nolana, Onoſma, …naria, Symphytum, Tourne…

…TICILLATÆ, 40 genera; viz. A…, Ballota, Betonica, Cleonia, Cli…, Dracocephalum, Galeopſis, …num, Hyſſopus, Lamium, La…, Lycopus, Marrubium, Meliſſa, …, Moluccella, Monarda, Nepeta, …um, Orvala, Phlomis, Praſium, …rus, Salvia, Satureia, Scutellaria, …, Teucrium, Thymbra, Thymus, … Ziziphora.

…NOSÆ, 18 genera; viz. Achras, …e, Ceanothus, Celaſtrus, Chryſo…ymus, Fagara, Ilex, Phylica, Pri…, Rhus, Sambucus, Schinus, Side…ce, and Viburnum.

…SIPIARIÆ, 8 genera; viz. Chionan…, Jaſminum, Liguſtrum, Nyctan… Phillyrea, and Syringa.

UMBELLATÆ, 46 genera; viz. Ægo…thaſi, Ammi, Anethum, Angelica, …opus, Artedia, Aſtrantia, Athamanta, …um, Bupleurum, Cachrys, Carum, …rophyllum, Cicuta, Conium, Cori…ſmum, Cuminum, Daucus, Echino…ium, Ferula, Haſſelquiſtia, Heracle…yle, Imperatoria, Laſſerpitium, Li…manthe, Paſtinaca, Peucedanum, Pimpinella, Sanicula, Scandix, Se…Siſon, Sium, Smyrnium, Thapſia, …n.

…EDERACEÆ, 6 genera; viz. Aralia, …, Panax, Vitis, and Zanthoxylum.

…TELLATÆ, 23 genera; viz. Anthoſ…rula, Coffea, Cornus, Crucianella, …um, Hedyotis, Houſtonia, Ixora, …a, Oldenlandia, Ophiorrhiza, Pa…Pſychotria, Richardia, Rubia, She…acoce, Spigelia, and Valantia.

…GGREGATÆ, 26 genera; viz. Al…avia, Brunia, Cephalanthus, Chio… Conocarpus, Dipſacus, Globularia, Hartogia, Hebenſtretia, Knautia, Leucadendron, Linnæa, Lonicera, Loranthus, Mitchella, Morina, Morinda, Protea, Scabioſa, Selago, Statica, Trioſteum, Valeriana, and Viſcum.

(328.) 49. COMPOSITÆ, 105 genera; viz. Achillea, Ageratum, Ambroſia, Amellus, Anacyclus, Andryala, Anthemis, Arctium, Arctotis, Arnica, Artemiſia, Aſter, Athanaſia, Atractylis, Baccharis, Bellis, Bidens, Bupthalmum, Cacalia, Calea, Calendula, Carduus, Carlina, Carpeſium, Carthamus, Catananche, Centaurea, Chondrilla, Chryſanthemum, Chryſocoma, Chryſogonum, Cichorium, Cineraria, Conyza, Coreopſis, Corymbium, Cotula, Crepis, Cynara, Doronicum, Echinops, Elephantopus, Erigeron, Eriocephalus, Ethulia, Eupatorium, Filago, Geropogon, Gnaphalium, Gorteria, Gundelia, Helenium, Helianthus, Hieracium, Hyoſeris, Hypocherris, Inula, Iva, Kuhnia, Lactuca, Lapſana, Leontodon, Leyſera, Matricaria, Melampodium, Micropus, Milleria, Onopordum, Oſmites, Oſteoſpermum, Othonna, Parthenium, Pectis, Perdicium, Picris, Polymnia, Prenanthes, Pteronia, Rudbeckia, Santolina, Scolymus, Scorzonera, Senecio, Seriola, Seriphium, Serratula, Sigeſbeckia, Silphium, Solidago, Sonchus, Sphæranthus, Stæhelina, Stoebe, Strumpfia, Tagetes, Tanacetum, Tarchonanthus, Tetragonotheca, Tragopogon, Tridax, Tuſſilago, Verbeſina, Xanthium, Xeranthemum, and Zinnia.

(329.) 50. AMENTACEÆ, 13 genera; viz. Betula, Carpinus, Corylus, Cynomorium, Fagus, Juglans, Myrica, Piſtacia, Platanus, Populus, Quercus, Salix, and Sloanea.

(330.) 51. CONIFERÆ, 7 genera; viz. Cupreſſus, Ephedra, Equiſetus, Juniperus, Pinus, Taxus, and Thuja.

(331.) 52. COADUNATÆ, 6 genera; viz. Annona, Liriodendron, Magnolia, Michelia, Uvaria, and Xylopia.

(332.) 53. SCABRIDÆ, 13 genera; viz. Acnida, Boſea, Cannabis, Cecropia, Celtis, Dorſtenia, Ficus, Humulus, Morus, Parietaria, Theligonum, Ulmus, and Urtica.

(333.) 54. MISCELLANEÆ, 21 genera; viz. Achyranthes, Amaranthus, Cedrela, Celoſia, Coriaria, Corrigiola, Datiſca, Empetrum, Gomphrena, Ireſine, Lemna, Limeum, Nymphæa, Phytolacca, Piſtia, Poterium, Reſeda, Sanguiſorba, Sarracena, Swietenia, and Telephium.

(334.) 55. FILICES, 15 genera; viz. Acroſtichum, Adianthum, Aſplenium, Blechnum, Hemionitis, Iſoetes, Lonchitis, Marſilea, Onoclea, Ophioglosſum, Oſmunda, Pilularia, Polypodium, Pteris, and Trichomanes.

(335.) 56. MUSCI, 11 genera; viz. Bryum, Buxbaumia, Fontinalis, Hypnum, Lycopodium, Mnium, Phaſcum, Polytrichum, Porella, Sphagnum, and Splachnum.

(336.) 57. ALGÆ. This order comprehends the whole claſs of ſea weeds, and ſome other aquatic plants, but the genera have not yet been accurately enumerated.

(337.) 58. FUNGI, 11 genera; viz. Agaricus, Boletus, Byſſus, Clathrus, Clavaria, Elvela, Hydnum, Lycoperdon, Mucor, Peziza, and Phallus.

(338.) DUBII ORDINIS genera are about 120. See *Linnæi Frag. Method. Nat.*

(339.) We

Begonia, Beta, Blitum, Bucida, Calligonum, Callitriche, Camphoroſma, Ceratocarpus, Chenopodium, Coccoloba, Coriſpermum, Heiſteria, Herniaria, Illecebrum, Laurus, Mimuſops, Nyſſa, Petiveria, Polycnemum, Polygonum, Rheum, Rhizophora, Rivina, Rumex, Salicornia, Salſola, Spinacia, Tinus, and Winterania.

(292.) 13. SUCCULENTÆ, 28 genera; viz. Aloxa, Aizoon, Cactus, Chryſoſplenium, Claytonia, Cotyledon, Craſſula, Galenia, Hydrangea, Meſembryenthamum, Mitella, Nama, Neurada, Penthorum, Portulaca, Reaumuria, Rhodiola, Saxifraga, Sedum, Sempervivum, Septas, Seſuvium, Suriana, Tamarix, Tetragonia, Tiarella, Tillea and Trianthema.

(293.) 14. GRUINALES, 11 genera; viz. Aldrovanda, Averrhoa, Droſera, Fagonia, Germanium, Guaiacum, Linum, Oxalis, Quaſſia, Tribulus, and Zygophyllum.

(294.) 15. INUNDATÆ, 8 genera; viz. Ceratophyllum, Elatine, Hippuris, Myriophyllum, Potamogeton, Proſerpinacea, Ruppia, and Zanichellia.

(295.) 16. CALYCIFLORÆ, 4 genera; viz. Elæagnus, Hippophae, Oſyris, and Trophis.

(296.) 17. CALYCANTHEMÆ, 16 genera; viz. Ammiana, Epilobium, Frankenia, Gaura, Glaux, Griſlæa, Iſnardia, Juſſiæa, Ludvigia, Lythrum, Melaſtoma, Mentzelia, Oenothera, Oſbeckia, Peplis, and Rhexia.

(297.) 18. BICORNES, 21 genera; viz. Andromeda, Arbutus, Azalea, Blæria, Citrus, Clethra, Dioſpyros, Epigea, Erica, Garcinia, Gaultheria, Haleſia, Kalmia, Ledum, Myrſine, Pyrola, Rhododendrum, Rhodora, Royena, Styrax, and Vaccinium.

(298.) 19. Heſperideæ, 5 genera; viz. Caryophyllus, Eugenia, Myrtus, Philadelphus, and Piſidium.

(299.) 20. ROTACEÆ, 13 genera; viz. Anagallis, Aſcyrum, Centunculus, Chironia, Ciſtus, Exacum, Gentiana, Hypericum, Lyſimachia, Phlox, Sarothra, Swertia, and Trientalis.

(300.) 11. PRECIÆ, 12 genera; Androſace, Arctia, Cortuſa, Cyclamen, Diapenſia, Dodecatheon, Hortonia, Limoſella, Menyanthes, Primula, Samolus, and Soldanella.

(301.) 22. CARYOPHYLLEÆ, 29 genera; viz. Agroſtemma, Alſine, Arenaria, Bufonia, Ceraſtium, Cherleria, Cucubalus, Dianthus, Drypis, Glinus, Gypſophila, Holoſteum, Lœflingia, Lychnis, Minuartia, Mœhringia, Mollugo, Ortegia, Pharnaceum, Polycarpon, Polypremum, Queria, Sagina, Saponaria, Scleranthus, Silene, Spergula, Stellaria, and Valezia.

(302.) 23. TRIHILATÆ, 12 genera; viz. Acer, Æſculus, Baniſteria, Cardioſpermum, Malpighia, Melia, Paulinia, Sapindus, Staphylæa, Trichilia, Triopteris, and Tropæolum.

(303.) 24. CORYDALES, 9 genera; viz. Epimedium, Fumaria, Hypecoum, Impatiens, Leontice, Melianthus, Monnieria, Pinguicula, and Utricularia.

(304.) 25. PUTAMINEÆ, 6 genera; viz. Capparis, Cleome, Cratæva, Creſcentia, Maregravia, and Moriſonia.

(305.) 26. MULTISILIQUÆ, 21 genera; viz. Aconitum, Actæa, Adonis, Anemone, Aquilegia, Atragene, Caltha, Clematis, Delphinium, Dictamnus, Garidella, Helleborus, Iſopyrum, Myoſurus, Nigella, Pæonia, Peganum, Ranunculus, Ruta, Thalictrum, and Trollius.

(306.) 27. RHŒADEÆ, 6 genera; viz. Argemone, Bocconia, Chelidonium, Papaver, Podophyllum, and Sanguinaria.

(307.) 28. LURIDÆ, 18 genera; viz. Atropa, Browallia, Capſicum, Cateſbæa, Celſia, Ceſtrum, Datura, Digitalis, Ellisia, Hyoſcymus, Lycium, Nicotiana, Pedalium, Phyſalis, Seſamum, Solanum, Strychnus, and Verbaſcum.

(308.) 29. CAMPANACEÆ, 11 genera; viz. Campanula, Convolvulus, Evolvulus, Jaſione, Ipomœa, Lobelia, Phyteuma, Polemonium, Roella, Trachelium, and Viola.

(309.) 30. CONTORTÆ, 17 genera; viz. Apocynum, Aſclepias, Cameraria, Cerbera, Ceropegia, Cynanchum, Echites, Gardenia, Genipa, Microcnemum, Nerium, Periploca, Plumeria, Rauvolfia, Stapelia, Tabernæmontana, and Vinca.

(310.) 31. VEPRECULÆ, 9 genera; viz. Daia, Daphne, Dirca, Gnidia, Lachnæa, Paſſerina, Quiſqualis, Stellera, and Theſium.

(311.) 32. PAPILIONACEÆ, 50 genera; viz. Abrus, Æſchynomene, Amorpha, Anagyris, Anthyllis, Arachis, Aſpalathus, Aſtragalus, Biſerrula, Borbonia, Cicer, Clitoria, Colutea, Coronilla, Crotalaria, Cytiſus, Dolichos, Ebenus, Ervum, Erythrina, Galega, Geniſta, Geoffroea, Glycine, Glycyrrhiza, Hedyſarum, Hippocrepis, Indigoſera, Lathyrus, Lotus, Lupinus, Medicago, Niſſolia, Ononis, Ornithopus, Orobus, Phaca, Phaſeolus, Piſcidia, Piſum, Pſoralea, Pterocarpus, Robinia, Scorpiurus, Sophora, Spartium, Trifolium, Trigonella, Vicia, and Ulex.

(312.) 33. LOMENTACEÆ, 14 genera; viz. Adenanthera, Bauhinia, Cæſalpinia, Caſſia, Ceratonia, Cercis, Gleditſia, Guilandina, Hæmatoxylon, Hymenæa, Mimoſa, Parkinſonia, Poinciana, and Polygala.

(313.) 34. CUCURBITACEÆ, 12 genera; viz. Anguria, Bryonia, Cucumis, Cucurbita, Elaterium, Fevillea, Gronovia, Melotheria, Momordica, Paſſiflora, Sicyos, and Trichoſanthes.

(314.) 35. SENTICOSÆ, 12 genera; viz. Agrimonia, Alchemilla, Aphanes, Comarum, Dryas, Fragaria, Geum, Potentilla, Roſa, Rubus, Sibbaldia, and Tormentilla.

(315.) 36. POMACEÆ, 10 genera; viz. Amygdalus, Chryſobalanus, Cratægus, Meſpilus, Prunus, Punica, Pyrus, Ribes, Sorbus, and Spiræa.

(316.) 37. COLUMNIFERÆ, 33 genera; Adanſonia, Alcea, Althæa, Ayenia, Bixa, Bombax, Camellia, Corchorus, Grevia, Goſſypium, Helicteres, Heliocarpus, Hermannia, Hibiſcus, Kiggelaria, Kleinhovia, Lavatera, Malope, Malva, Melochia, Micropus, Muntingia, Napæa, Pentapetes, Sida, Stewartia, Thea, Theobroma, Tilia, Triumfetta, Turnera, Urena, and Waltheria.

(317.) 38. TRICOCCÆ, 27 genera; viz. Acalypha, Adelia, Andrachne, Buxus, Cambogia, Carica, Cliffortia, Clutia, Cneorum, Crotona, Cupania, Dalechampia, Euphorbia, Excœcaria, Guettarda, Hernandria, Hippomane, Hura, Jatropha, Mercurialis, Phyllanthus, Plukenetia, Ricinus, Solandra, Sterculia, Tragia, and Tragallis.

(318.)

(318.) 39. SILIQUOSÆ, 30 genera; viz. Alyſſum, Anaſtatica, Arabis, Biſcutella, Braſſica, Bunias, Cardamine, Cheiranthus, Clypeola, Cochlearia, Crambe, Dentaria, Draba, Eryſimum, Heliophila, Heſperis, Iberis, Iſatis, Lepidium, Lunaria, Myagrum, Peltaria, Raphanus, Ricotia, Sinapis, Siſymbrium, Subularia, Thlaſpi, Turritis, and Vella.

(319.) 40. PERSONATÆ, 54 genera; viz. Acanthus, Antirrhinum, Avicennia, Barleria, Bartſia, Beſleria, Bignonia, Bontia, Buchnera, Capraria, Ciclone, Citharexylon, Clerodendrum, Collinſonia, Columnea, Cornutia, Craniolaria, Cymbaria, Dunthera, Dodartia, Duranta, Erinus, Euphraſia, Gerardia, Geſneria, Gmelina, Gratiola, Halleria, Juſticia, Lantana, Lathræa, Manulea, Martynia, Melampyrum, Mimulus, Obolaria, Orobanche, Ovieda, Pedicularis, Petrea, Phryma, Rhinanthus, Ruellia, Schwalbea, Scoparia, Scrophularia, Stemodia, Torenia, Tozzia, Vandellia, Verbena, Veronica, Vitex, and Volkameria.

(320.) 41. ASPERIFOLIÆ, 19 genera; viz. Anchuſa, Aſperugo, Borago, Cerinthe, Cordia, Cynogloſſum, Echium, Ehretia, Heliotropium, Lithoſpermum, Lycopſis, Myoſotis, Nolana, Onoſma, Patagonula, Pulmonaria, Symphytum, Tournefortia, and Varronia.

(321.) 42. VERTICILLATÆ, 40 genera; viz. Ajuga, Amethyſtea, Ballota, Betonica, Cleonia, Clinopodium, Cunila, Dracocephalum, Galeopſis, Glechoma, Horminum, Hyſſopus, Lamium, Lavandula, Leonurus, Lycopus, Marrubium, Meliſſa, Mentha, Moluccella, Monarda, Nepeta, Ocymum, Origanum, Orvala, Phlomis, Praſium, Prunella, Roſmarinus, Salvia, Satureia, Scutellaria, Sideritis, Stachys, Teucrium, Thymbra, Thymus, Trichoſtema, and Ziziphora.

(322.) 43. DUMOSÆ, 18 genera; viz. Achras, Calicarpa, Caſſine, Ceanothus, Celaſtrus, Chryſophyllum, Euonymus, Fagara, Ilex, Phylica, Prinos, Rhamnus, Rhus, Sambucus, Schinus, Sideroxylon, Tomex, and Viburnum.

(323.) 44. SEPIARIÆ, 8 genera; viz. Chionanthus, Fraxinus, Jaſminum, Liguſtrum, Nyctanthes, Olea, Phillyrea, and Syringa.

(324.) 45. UMBELLATÆ, 46 genera; viz. Ægopodium, Æthuſa, Ammi, Anethum, Angelica, Apium, Arctopus, Artedia, Aſtrantia, Athamanta, Bubon, Bunium, Bupleurum, Cachrys, Carum, Caucalis, Chærophyllum, Cicuta, Conium, Coriandrum, Crithmum, Cuminum, Daucus, Echinophora, Eryngium, Ferula, Haſſelquiſtia, Heracleum, Hydrocotyle, Imperatoria, Laſerpitium, Ligusticum, Oenanthe, Paſtinaca, Peucedanum, Physolandrium, Pimpinella, Sanicula, Scandix, Seseli, Seſeli, Siſon, Sium, Smyrnium, Thapſia, and Tordylium.

(325.) 46. HEDERACEÆ, 6 genera; viz. Aralia, Ciſſus, Hedera, Panax, Vitis, and Zanthoxylum.

(326.) 47. STELLATÆ, 23 genera; viz. Anthoſpermum, Aſperula, Coffea, Cornus, Crucianella, Diodia, Galium, Hedyotis, Houſtonia, Ixora, Knoxia, Lippia, Oldenlandia, Ophiorrhiza, Paretta, Phyllis, Pſychotria, Richardia, Rubia, Sherardia, Spermacoce, Spigelia, and Valantia.

(327.) 48. AGGREGATÆ, 26 genera; viz. Alchimilla, Boerhaavia, Brunia, Cephalanthus, Chiococca, Circæa, Conocarpus, Dipſacus, Globularia, Hartogia, Hebenſtretia, Knautia, Leucodendron, Linnæa, Lonicera, Loranthus, Mitchella, Morina, Morinda, Protea, Scabioſa, Selago, Statica, Trioſteum, Valeriana, and Viſcum.

(328.) 49. COMPOSITÆ, 105 genera; viz. Achillea, Ageratum, Ambroſia, Amellus, Anacyclus, Andryala, Anthemis, Arctium, Arctotis, Arnica, Artemiſia, Aſter, Athanaſia, Atractylis, Baccharis, Bellis, Bidens, Bupthalmum, Cacalia, Calea, Calendula, Carduus, Carlina, Carpeſium, Carthamus, Catananche, Centaurea, Chondrilla, Chryſanthemum, Chryſocoma, Chryſogonum, Cichorium, Cineraria, Conyza, Coreopſis, Corymbium, Cotula, Crepis, Cynara, Doronicum, Echinops, Elephantopus, Erigeron, Eriocephalus, Ethulia, Eupatorium, Filago, Geropogon, Gnaphalium, Gorteria, Gundelia, Helenium, Helianthus, Hieracium, Hyoſeris, Hypocherris, Inula, Iva, Kuhnia, Lactuca, Lapſana, Leontodon, Leyſera, Matricaria, Melampodium, Micropus, Milleria, Onopordum, Oſmites, Oſteoſpermum, Othonna, Parthenium, Pectis, Perdicium, Picris, Polymnia, Prenanthes, Pteronia, Rudbeckia, Santolina, Scolymus, Scorzonera, Senecio, Seriola, Seriphium, Serratula, Sigeſbeckia, Silphium, Solidago, Sonchus, Sphæranthus, Stæhelina, Stoebe, Strumpfia, Tagetes, Tanacetum, Tarchonanthus, Tetragonotheca, Tragopogon, Tridax, Tuſſilago, Verbeſina, Xanthium, Xeranthemum, and Zinnia.

(329.) 50. AMENTACEÆ, 13 genera; viz. Betula, Carpinus, Corylus, Cynomorium, Fagus, Juglans, Myrica, Piſtacia, Platanus, Populus, Quercus, Salix, and Sloanea.

(330.) 51. CONIFERÆ, 7 genera; viz. Cupreſſus, Ephedra, Equiſetus, Juniperus, Pinus, Taxus, and Thuja.

(331.) 52. COADUNATÆ, 6 genera; viz. Annona, Liriodendron, Magnolia, Michelia, Uvaria, and Xylopia.

(332.) 53. SCABRIDÆ, 13 genera; viz. Acnida, Boſcea, Cannabis, Cecropia, Celtis, Dorſtenia, Ficus, Humulus, Morus, Parietaria, Theligonum, Ulmus, and Urtica.

(333.) 54. MISCELLANEÆ, 21 genera; viz. Achyranthes, Amaranthus, Cedrela, Celoſia, Coriaria, Corrigiola, Datiſca, Empetrum, Gomphrena, Ireſine, Lemna, Limeum, Nymphæa, Phytolacca, Piſtia, Poterium, Reſeda, Sanguiſorba, Sarracena, Swietenia, and Telephium.

(334.) 55. FILICES, 15 genera; viz. Acroſtichum, Adianthum, Aſplenium, Blechnum, Hemionitis, Iſoetes, Lonchitis, Marſilea, Onoclea, Ophioglosſum, Oſmunda, Pilularia, Polypodium, Pteris, and Trichomanes.

(335.) 56. MUSCI, 11 genera; viz. Bryum, Buxbaumia, Fontinalis, Hypnum, Lycopodium, Mnium, Phaſcum, Polytrichum, Porella, Sphagnum, and Splachnum.

(336.) 57. ALGÆ. This order comprehends the whole claſs of ſea weeds, and ſome other aquatic plants, but the genera have not yet been accurately enumerated.

(337.) 58. FUNGI, 11 genera; viz. Agaricus, Boletus, Byſſus, Clathrus, Clavaria, Elvela, Hydnum, Lycoperdon, Mucor, Peziza, and Phallus.

(338.) DUBII ORDINIS genera are about 120. See *Linnæi Frag. Method. Nat.*

(339.)

(339.) We ſhall conclude with two examples of the ſyſtematic methods of deſcribing plants: by giving, 1. a deſcription of a plant, according to the *natural* character, from the *Genera Plantarum*; and 2. according to the *eſſential* character, with the ſeveral ſpecies, from the *Syſtema Vegetabilium*, tranſlated by the Litchfield Society.

(340.) PAPAVER, Poppy.

Natural Character.

Calyx. A perianthium two-leaved, ovate, ende nick'd; *leaflets* ſubovate, concave, obtuſe, deciduous.

Corolla. Petals four, roundiſh, flat, expanding, large, narrower at the baſe, leſs alternately.

Stamina. Filaments numerous, capillary, much ſhorter than the corolla: *antheræ* oblong, compreſſed, erect, obtuſe.

Pistillum. Germ roundiſh, large; *ſtylus* none; *ſtigma* peltated, flat, radiated.

Pericarpium. A capſule crowned with the large flat ſtigma, unilocular, ſemi-multi-unilocular, gaping at the top under the crown with many apertures.

Semina. Seeds, numerous, very ſmall; *receptacles*, longitudinal folds, of equal number with the rays of the ſtigma adhering to the ſides of the pericarpium.

(341.) Essential Character.

PAPAVER. *Corolla* four-petal'd, *calyx* two-leav'd, *capſule* one-celled, gaping with pores under the permanent ſtigma. *Poppy.*

* *With hiſpid capſules.*

1 P. hybridum. Capſules ſubglobular, brawny, hiſpid; ſtem leafy, many-flower'd. *mule.*

2 P. argemone. Capſules club'd, hiſpid, ſtem leafy, many-flower'd.

3 P. alpinum. Capſules hiſpid, ſcape one-flower'd, naked, hiſpid, leaves twice feather'd. *alpine.*

4 P. nudicaule. Capſules hiſpid, ſcape one-flower'd, naked, hiſpid, leaves ſimple, feather-ſinuous. *naked ſtem.*

** *With ſmooth capſules.*

5 P. rhoeas. Capſules ſmooth, globular, ſtem hairy, many-flower'd, leaves feather-cleft, gaſh'd.

6 P. dubium. Capſules oblong, ſmooth, ſtem many-flower'd, with briſtles appreſs'd, leaves feather-cleft, gaſh'd. *dubious.*

7 P. somniferum. Calyx and capſules ſmooth, leaves ſtem-claſping, gaſh'd. *ſomniferous.*

8 P. cambricum. Capſules ſmooth, oblong, ſtem many-flower'd, poliſh'd, leaves feather'd, gaſh'd.

9 P. orientale. Capſules ſmooth, ſtem one-flower'd, rugged, leafy, leaves feather'd, ſaw'd. *oriental.*

(342.) To enable the young botaniſt to underſtand the various technical terms here uſed, as well as to conſult more extenſive works upon the Science, we ſubjoin the following Glossary.

N. B. *Words not inſerted in the* Glossary, *will be found fully explained in the preceding Treatiſe, upon conſulting the* Index.

(343.) GLOSSARY *of* BOTANICAL TERMS.

A

Abbreviatum perianthium, a ſhortened cup, when the cup is ſhorter than the tube of the flower.

Abortiens flos, a barren flower, ſuch as produces n fruit.

Abrupta folia pinnata, winged leaves, ending with out either foliole or cirrhus.

Acaulis, without ſtalk or ſtem.

Acerosa folia, chaffy leaves, when they are line and abiding.

Acicularis, needle-ſhaped.

Acinaciform, falchion or ſcimetar-ſhaped.

Acini, the ſmall berries of a mulberry or bramb

Acotyledones, plants whoſe ſeeds have no cotyl dons or ſeminal leaves.

Aculei, prickles, fixed in the ſurface of the bar

Aculeatus caulis, a ſtalk or ſtem furniſhed w prickles.

Acuminatum folium, a leaf ending in a point.

Acutum folium, a leaf terminating in an acu angle.

Adnatum folium, the diſk of the leaf preſſing clo to the ſtem of the plant.

Adpreſſum folium, the diſk of the leaf preſſed to t ſtem.

Adſcendens caulis, or *ramus*, a ſtalk or branc inclining upwards.

Adverſum folium, an oppoſite leaf.

Alæ, wings, the ſide petals of a papilionaceo bloſſom, or membranes added to a ſeed, ſtal &c.

Alated, winged.

Alatus petiolus, the footſtalk of a leaf winged wi membranes.

Alburnum, the white ſubſtance that lies betwe the inner bark and the wood of trees.

Alterni rami folia, leaves that come out ſingl and follow alternately in gradual order.

Alveolated, deeply pitted; reſembling a hone comb.

Amentum, a thong, or a catkin.

Amplexicaule folium, a leaf embracing the ſtal when the baſe of the leaf embraces the ſte ſideways.

Anceps caulis, a double edged ſtalk, *i. e.* compre ſed, and forming two oppoſite acute angles.

Ancipitous, two-edged.

Angulatus caules, an angulated ſtalk.

Anguſtifolious, narrow-leaved.

Angioſpermia, plants whoſe ſeeds are covered wi a capſule.

Annua radix, an annual root; that which liv but one year.

Anthera, the ſummit of the ſtamen.

Apertura, an opening in ſome ſpecies of anther

Apetalous, having no petals or corolla.

Apex, the top or ſummit.

Aphyllous, deſtitute of leaves.

Apophyſis, an excreſcence from the receptacle the muſci.

Appendiculatus petiolus, a little appendage han ing from the extremity of the foot-ſtalk.

Appreſſed, approaching to the ſtem.

Approximata folia, leaves growing near each othe

Arbor, a tree.

Arboreus, arboreſcent; of the nature of a tre producing buds.

Arbuſtiva, a copſe of ſhrubs or trees.

Arcuatum legumen, a curved or bent pod.

Ariſta, the beard of corn or graſſes.

Articulatus caulis, a ſtem with knots or joints.
Articulus culmi, the ſtraight part of the ſtalk between the two joints.
Aſſurgentia folia, leaves firſt bent down, but riſing erect towards the apex.
Attenuatus pedunculus, a foot-ſtalk that grows ſmaller towards the flower.
Auctus calyx, an augmented flower cup, having a ſeries of diſtinct leaves, ſhorter than its own, that ſurround its baſe.
Avenia folia, leaves which have no viſible veins.
Auriculatum folium, an ear-ſhaped leaf, when the leaf towards the baſe has a lobe on each ſide.
Axillaria folia, leaves growing out of the angles formed by the branches and the ſtem.

B

Barba, a beard, a ſpecies of pubeſcence, ſometimes on the leaves of plants.
Barbata folia, leaves terminated by a bunch of ſtrong hairs.
Bicapſular, having two capſules.
Biennis radix, a biennial root, which continues to vegetate two years.
Bifaria folia, leaves pointing two ways.
Bifera plantæ, leaves that flower twice a year.
Bifidum folium, a leaf divided into two parts.
Biflorus pedunculus, a foot-ſtalk bearing two flowers.
Bifurcum folium, a forked foot-ſtalk, with two little leaves on the apex of each diviſion.
Bigatum folium, a winged leaf bearing two pair of foliola.
Bilabiata corolla, a corolla with two lips.
Bilobatum folium, a leaf conſiſting of two lobes.
Binatum folium, a digitate leaf, conſiſting of two foliola.
Bipartitum folium, a leaf divided into two ſegments.
Bipinnatum folium, a double winged leaf, when the folioles of a pinnate leaf are alſo pinnate.
Biternatum folium, a leaf where there are 3 folioles on a petiole, and each foliole is ternate.
Bivalve, conſiſting of two valves.
Brachiatus caulis, a ſtem branching in pairs; each pair ſtanding at right angles with thoſe above and below.
Brachium, the arm, the 10th degree in the Linnæan ſcale for meaſuring plants, being 24 Pariſian inches.
Bracteatus, having a bractea growing out of it.
Bulbiferus caulis, a ſtalk bearing bulbs, as in lilium bulbiferum.
Bulboſa radix, a bulbous root.
Bullatum folium, a leaf whoſe ſurface riſes above the veins, ſo as to appear like bliſters.

C

Caducus calyx, a flower cup that falls off at the firſt opening of the flower.
Calcaratus, reſembling a ſpur.
Calyculatus calyx, a little calyx added to a larger one.
Calyptra, a veil or covering.
Campanulata corolla, a bell-ſhaped flower.
Canaliculata folia, leaves having a deep channel running from the baſe to the apex.
Capillaceum folium, a capillary leaf.
Capillaris pappus, hairy down.
Capillus, hair, the firſt degree of the Linnæan ſcale for meaſuring plants; the diameter of a hair, and the 12th part of a line.
Capitati flores, flowers collected into heads.
Capitulum, a little head, a ſpecies of inflorescence, in which the flowers are connected into cloſe heads on the tops of the peduncles, as in gomphrena.
Capreolus, a tendril.
Capſula, a little cheſt or capſule.
Carina, a keel, the lower petal of the papilionaceous corolla.
Carinatum folium, a leaf whoſe back reſembles the keel of a ſhip.
Carnoſum folium, a fleſhy leaf.
Cartilagineum folium, a leaf whoſe brim is furniſhed with a margin of different ſubſtance from the diſk.
Caryophyllæus flos, a flower growing like a carnation.
Catenulata ſcabrities, a ſpecies of glandular roughneſs, hardly viſible, reſembling little chains, on the ſurface of ſome plants.
Caudex, the ſtem of a tree.
Cauleſcens, having a ſtalk or ſtem.
Caulina folia, leaves growing immediately on the ſtem.
Caulis, a ſtem, a ſpecies of trunk.
Cernuus, nodding or hanging down the head.
Cæſpitoſæ, plants which produce many ſtems from one root, and form a ſurface of turf or ſod.
Ciliatum, ciliated, with the margin guarded by parallel briſtles, formed like the eye-laſh.
Circinalia folia, leaves within the bud, rolled ſpirally downward.
Circumſciſſa capſula, a capſule cut tranſverſely.
Cirrhiferus pedunculus, a peduncle bearing a tendril.
Cirrhoſum folium, a leaf that terminates in a tendril.
Cirrhus, a claſper, or tendril.
Claſſis, a claſs, defined by Linnæus to be an agreement of ſeveral genera in the parts of fructification, according to the principles of nature diſtinguiſhed by art.
Clavatus petiolus, or *pedunculus*, a foot-ſtalk with the leaf or flower club-ſhaped, tapering from the baſe to its apex.
Clavicula, a little key, or tendril.
Clauſa corolla, a corolla with its neck cloſe ſhut in with valves.
Coarctati rami, branches cloſe together.
Cochleatum legumen, a pod like the ſhell of a ſnail, as in medicago.
Coloratum folium, a leaf of any colour different from green.
Columnella, a little column, the ſubſtance that paſſes through the capſule, and connects the ſeveral partitions and ſeeds.
Columniferæ, pillar ſhaped.
Coma, a buſh, a ſpecies of fulcrum, compoſed of large bracteæ, which terminate the ſtalk.
Communis gemma, the common contents of the bud, both flower and fruit.
Communis calyx, a common flower cup containing both receptacle and flower.
Comoſa radix, a bulbous root with fibres reſembling hair.
Compactum folium, a leaf of a compact and ſolid ſubſtance.

Completus flos, a complete flower, having a perianthium and corolla.

Compositus caulis, a compound ſtem, diminiſhing as it aſcends.

Compoſitum folium, a compound leaf, when the petiole bears more than one leaf.

Compreſſum folium, a leaf reſembling a cylinder compreſſed on the oppoſite ſides.

Concavum folium, a hollowed leaf, the margin forming an arch with the diſk.

Conceptaculum, a receiver.

Conduplicatum folium, a leaf doubled together, when the ſides are parallel, and approach.

Conferti rami, branches crowded together.

Confertus verticillus, a ſpecies of inflorescence, wherein flowers and leaves are crowded, and formed into whorls round the ſtalk.

Confluentia folia, leaves flowing together, as in the pinnated leaf, when the pinnæ run into one another.

Conglobatus flos, a flower collected into a globular head.

Conglomerati flores, flowers irregularly crowded together.

Congeſta umbella, flowers collected into a ſpherical ſhape.

Conica ſcabrities, a ſpecies of cetaceous ſcabrities, formed like cones, ſcarce viſible, on the ſurface of plants.

Coniferæ, plants bearing cones.

Conjugatum folium, a pinnated leaf, where the folioles come by pairs.

Connata folia, two oppoſite leaves united at their baſe, ſo as to have the appearance of one leaf.

Conniuens corolla, a corolla wherein the apices of the petals converge ſo as to cloſe the flower.

Conniventes antheræ, antheræ approaching together.

Continuatum folium, a continued leaf, or one which appears to be a continuation of the ſubſtance of the ſtalk.

Contrariæ valvulæ, contrary valves, *i. e.* when the diſſepimentum is placed tranſverſely between them.

Convexum folium, a leaf riſing from the margin to the centre of the leaf.

Convolutus cirrhus, a tendril twining in the ſame direction with the ſun's motion.

Convolutum folium, a leaf rolled up like a ſcroll.

Cordatum folium, a heart-ſhaped leaf.

Cordiformis, ſhaped like a heart.

Corolla, a wreath or little crown.

Corollula, a little corolla.

Corona ſeminis, a crown adhering to many kinds of ſeeds ſerving them as wings, which enables them to diſperſe.

Cortex, the outer rind or bark.

Crenatum folium, a notched leaf.

Criſpum folium, a curled leaf, when the circumference becomes larger than the diſk admits of.

Criſtatus flos, a flower with a tufted creſt.

Cruciated flowers, } croſs ſhaped flowers, conſiſt-
Cruciformes flores, } ing of 4 petals diſpoſed in the form of a croſs.

Cubitus, a cubit, the 9th degree of the Linnæan ſcale for meaſuring plants, from the elbow to the extremity of the middle finger, or 17 Pariſian inches.

Cucullata folia, leaves rolled up lengthways in the form of a cone.

Culmen, the top or crown of any thing.

Culmus, a reed or ſtraw, the ſtem of a graſs.

Cuneiforme folium, a wedge-ſhaped leaf.

Cuſpidatum folium, a leaf whoſe apex reſembles the point of a ſpear.

Cyathiformis corolla, a flower of the form of a cup.

Cylindracea ſpica, a ſpike in the form of a cylinder.

Cymbiform, keel-ſhaped.

D

Dædaleum folium, a leaf whoſe texture is remarkably beautiful.

Debilis caulis, a weak, feeble ſtalk.

Decaphyllus calyx, a calyx conſiſting of ten leaves.

Deciduæ folia, leaves that fall off in winter.

Declinatus caulis, a ſtalk bending towards the earth.

Decompoſitum folium, when a petiole once divided connects many folioles.

Decumbens, lying down.

Decurrens folium, a leaf running down, is applied to the baſe of a ſeſſile leaf extending itſelf downwards along the ſtem, beyond the proper termination of the leaf.

Decurſive folium pinnatum, a pinnated leaf, wherein the baſes of the folioles are continued along the ſides of the petiolus.

Decuſſata folia, } leaves growing in pairs, and
Decuſſated leaves, } oppoſite to each other.

Deflexus ramus, a branch bent a little downwards.

Deflorata ſtamina, ſtamina that have ſhed their farina.

Defoliatio, the falling of the leaves.

Deltoides folium, a leaf like the Greek Δ.

Demerſa folia, leaves ſunk in the water.

Dentata folia, leaves having horizontal points of the ſame conſiſtence with the leaf, and ſtanding at a little diſtance from each other.

Dependens folium, a leaf pointing towards the ground.

Depreſſum folium, a leaf preſſed down, when the ſides riſe higher than the diſk.

Dichotomi caules, forked ſtalks, when the diviſions come by two and two.

Dicotyledones, plants whoſe ſeeds have two cotyledons, that are the placenta of the embryo plant, and afterwards the ſeed leaves.

Didymæ antheræ, twin antheræ, *i. e.* when they occur by two on each filament.

Didynamia, the ſuperiority of two.

Diformia folia, leaves on the ſame plant of different forms.

Diffuſi caules, the branches of a ſtalk ſpread different ways.

Digitatum folium, a fingered leaf, *i. e.* when the apex of a petiole connects many folioles.

Dimidiatum, halved.

Dipetalous, conſiſting of two petals.

Diphyllous, conſiſting of two leaves.

Diſcus, a diſk, the middle part of a radiate compound flower.

Diſpermous plants, plants producing their ſeeds by two.

Diſſecta folia, leaves cut into diviſions.

Diſſepimentum, a partition of the fruit, which divides the pericapium into cells.

Diſſiliens ſiliqua, a pod that burſts with elaſticity.

Distans verticillus, a ſpecies of inflorescence, wherein the whorls of verticillate flowers ſtand at a great diſtance from one another.
Dilicha folia, leaves in two rows, on two ſides of the branches only.
Divaricati rami, branches ſtanding wide from each other in different directions.
Divergentes rami, branches widening gradually.
Dodrans, the 7th degree in the Linnæan ſcale for meaſuring the parts of plants, or nine Pariſian inches.
Dodrantalis, 9 inches long.
Dolabriforme folium, a leaf reſembling an ax.
Dorſalis arista, an awn, fixed to the back of the gluma.
Drupa, a pulpy pericarpium.
Duplex radix, a double root, a ſpecies of bulbous root, conſiſting of two ſolid bulbs.
Duplicato ſerratum folium, a leaf ſawed double, with leſſer teeth within the greater.

E

Ebracteatus, without a bractea.
Ecaudata corolla, a corolla without a tail or ſpur.
Echinatum pericarpium, a pod beſet with prickles, like a hedge-hog.
Efloreſcentiæ tempus, the time of efflorescence, when a plant ſhews its firſt flowers.
Elliptical, reſembling an oval.
Emarginated, terminated by a notch.
Enervia folia, leaves having no apparent nerves.
Enneapetala corolla, a flower conſiſting of 9 petals.
Enodis, having no knots or joints.
Enſatæ, plants having ſword-ſhaped leaves.
Enſiformia folia, leaves ſhaped like a two-edged ſword, tapering towards the point.
Epiphylloſpermous, bearing the fruit on the back of the leaf.
Equitantia folia, leaves riding, *i. e.* when their ſides approach ſo, that the outer embrace the inner.
Erectus, upright, perpendicular.
Erſum folium, a gnawed leaf, *i. e.* when the margin appears as if it were gnawed or bitten.
Exerta ſtamina, ſtamina ſtanding forth, when they appear above the corolla.
Exſtipulatus, without ſtipulæ.
Exſuccum folium, a leaf whoſe ſubſtance is dry.
Extrafoliaceæ ſtipulæ, ſtipulæ growing on the outſide of the leaves.

F

Farctum folium, a ſtuffed leaf.
Faſciata planta, a plant with many ſtalks grown together, like a bundle.
Faſcicular, conſiſting of fleſhy parts connected to the baſe without the intervention of threads.
Faſcicularis radix, a bundled root, *i. e.* tuberous roots growing in bundles.
Faſciculata folia, bundled leaves; growing in bunches.
Faſtigiati pedunculi, peduncules pointed at the apex.
Fauces, } the jaws, or opening between the ſeg-
Faux, } ments of a corolla, where the tube terminates.
Fibroſa radix, a fibrous root.
Filamentum, from *filum*, a thread, the part that ſupports the antheræ.
Filiformis, thread-ſhaped.
Fimbricata petala, fringed petals.
Fiſſum folium, a leaf ſplit half way down.
Fiſtuloſus caulis, a hollow ſtem.
Flabellatum folium, a fan-ſhaped leaf.
Flaccidus pedunculus, the foot-ſtalk of a ſlender flower.
Flagellum, a twig, or ſhoot, like a whip.
Fleſhy, filled with a firm pulp.
Flexoſus caulis, a ſtalk having many turnings or bendings, taking a different direction at every joint.
Floralia folia, floral leaves, that immediately attend the flower.
Floralis gemma, a flower bud.
Flos, a flower.
Floſculus, a little flower.
Foliaceæ glandulæ, glands growing on the leaves.
Foliaris cirrhus, a tendril growing from a leaf.
Foliaris gemmatio, a leaf bud.
Foliatio plantæ, the complication of the leaves, whilſt folded within the bud.
Foliatus caulis, a leafy ſtalk.
Folifera gemma, a bud producing leaves.
Foliolum, a little leaf, one of the ſingle leaves, ſeveral of which united conſtitute a compound leaf.
Foliſum capitulum, a leafy head, *i. e.* covered with leaves amongſt the flowers or tops of the plant.
Folium, a leaf.
Folliculus, a little bag.
Fornicatum petalum, a vaulted or arched petal.
Frequens planta, a common plant, growing every where.
Frondeſcentiæ tempus, the ſeaſon when the leaves of plants are unfolded.
Frondoſus cordex, a ſpecies of trunk compoſed of a branch and a leaf blended together.
Fructeſcentiæ tempus, the time when a plant ſcatters its ripe ſeeds.
Fructificatio, the temporary part of a vegetable appropriated to generation, terminating the old plant and beginning the new.
Fruſtranea, to no purpoſe.
Frutex, a ſhrub.
Fruticoſus caulis, a ſhrubby ſtalk.
Fugaciſſima petala, petals of ſhort duration.
Fulcratus caulis, a branch having a prop.
Fulcrum, a prop or ſupport.
Furcata, forked.
Fuſiform, ſpindle-ſhaped.

G

Galea, a helmet, applied to the corolla of the claſs gynandria.
Galeatum labium, the lip of a flower, ſhaped like a helmet.
Geminæ ſtipulæ, ſtipulæ growing in pairs.
Geminatus pedunculus, a double foot-ſtalk growing from one point.
Gemmiparous, bearing buds.
Geniculatus, jointed.
Geniculæ, little joints.
Germen, a ſprout or bud.
Gibbum folium, a leaf bunching out.
Glaber, ſmooth, having an even ſurface.
Glabrous, of a ſlippery nature.
Gladiata ſiliqua, a ſword-ſhaped pod.
Glandulæ, glands, or ſecretory veſſels.

Glandulifera ſcabrities, a kind of briſtly roughneſs on the ſurface of ſome plants, on which there are minute glands at the extremity of each briſtle.

Glareoſi loci, gravelly places.

Glaucophyllus, an azure coloured leaf.

Globoſa radix, a round root.

Globularis ſcabrities, a ſpecies of glandular roughneſs, ſcarce viſible to the naked eye, the ſmall grains of which are exactly globular.

Glochoides, the ſmall points of the pubes of plants. Linnæus applies this term only to the hami triglochoides, with 3 hooked points.

Glomeratæ ſpicæ, flowers crowded together in a globular form.

Gluma, a huſk or chaff.

Glutinoſity, a ſlippery juice like glue or paſte.

Gramina, graſſes.

Granulatæ radices, } conſiſting of many little knobs,
Granulated roots, } like ſeeds or grain, attached to one another by ſmall ſtrings.

Gymnoſpermous, naked ſeeded.

Gynandria, male and female parts united.

H

Hamoſæ ſetæ, hooked briſtles.

Hamus, a hook; an acuminated crooked point.

Haſtata folia, leaves reſembling the head of a ſpear.

Hemiſphæricus calyx, a half round flower cup.

Herba, an herb; the part of the vegetable ariſing from the root, terminated by the fructification, and comprehending the ſtem, leaf, props, and hybernacula.

Herbaceæ plantæ, perennial plants, which annually periſh down to the root.

Herbacei caules, ſtalks that die annually.

Hexagonus caulis, a ſtalk with ſix angles.

Hexapetalæ corollæ, flowers conſiſting of ſix petals.

Hexaphyllus calyx, a flower cup conſiſting of ſix leaves.

Hians corolla, a gaping flower.

Hirſutus, rough, hairy.

Hiſpidus caulis, a ſtalk covered with ſtrong fragile briſtles.

Holeraceæ, pot herbs.

Horizontalis flos, a horizontal flower, growing with its diſk parallel to the horizon.

Hybridæ plantæ, mule plants.

Hypocrateriformis corolla, a monopetalous flower, ſhaped like a cup or ſalver.

I J

Imberbis corolla, a flower without a beard.

Imbricatus, tiled, *i. e.* when the ſcales of a ſtalk, or flower cup, lie over one another like tiles upon a houſe.

Immutatæ, unaltered.

Impar, odd, applied to a pinnated leaf terminating in an odd lobe.

Indus, filled with ſpongy matter.

Inanis caulis, a hollow or empty ſtalk.

Incana folia, leaves covered with whitiſh down.

Inciſa folia, leaves cut into irregular ſegments.

Incompletus flos, an imperfect flower without petals.

Increſſati pedunculi, foot ſtalks that increaſe in thickneſs as they approach the flowers.

Incumbens anthera, an anthera affixed to the filament ſideways.

Incurvatus caulis, a ſtalk bowed towards the earth.

Indiviſum folium, an undivided leaf.

Inerme folium, a leaf unarmed, *i. e.* without prickles.

Inferus flos, a flower whoſe receptacle is ſituated below the germen.

Inflated, puffed out like a bladder.

Inflexæ folia, bending inwards to the ſtem.

Infundibuliformi, ſhaped like a funnel.

Inſertus petiolus, a foot-ſtalk inſerted into the ſtem.

Integrum folium, an undivided leaf.

Integerrimum folium, an entire leaf, whoſe margin is deſtitute of inciſions.

Interfoliaceus pedunculus, a flower-ſtalk ariſing from between oppoſite leaves.

Interrupta ſpica, a ſpike of flowers, interrupted by ſmall cluſters of flowers between the larger ones.

Interruptum folium pinnatum, the large folioles of a winged leaf, interrupted alternately by pairs of ſmaller ones.

Intorſion, twiſting to one ſide.

Intrafoliaceæ ſtipulæ, ſtipulæ growing on the inſide of the leaves of a plant.

Inundata loca is applied by Linnæus to places that are overflowed only in winter.

Involucellum, a partial involucrum.

Involucrum, a cover.

Involuta folia, leaves rolled in, *i. e.* when their lateral margins are rolled ſpirally inwards on both ſides.

Irregularis flos, an irregular flower.

Juba, a creſt of feathers.

Julus, a catkin.

K

Kernel, a ſeed covered with a ſhell.

Kidney-ſhaped, having a notch cut out of the baſe without poſterior angles.

L

Labiatus flos, a lipped flower.

Lacera folia, leaves whoſe margin is cut into ſegments, as if rent or torn.

Laciniæ, ſegments or diviſions.

Laciniatum folium, a leaf cut into irregular ſegments.

Lacteſcentia, milkineſs.

Lacunoſa folia, leaves deeply furrowed, by the veins being ſunk below the ſurface.

Lacuſtres plantæ, plants which grow in lakes.

Lævis, ſmooth, having an even ſurface.

Lamina, a thin plate, the upper expanded part of a polypetalous flower.

Lana, wool, a ſpecies of pubeſcence, which covers the ſurface of plants.

Lanatum folium, a woolly or downy leaf.

Lanceolatum folium, a lance-ſhaped leaf.

Lappet, the ſuperior ſpreading part of a monopetalous corolla.

Laterales flores, flowers coming from the ſides.

Laxus caulis, a looſe or ſlender ſtalk.

Leguminous plants, plants whoſe ſeeds are incloſed in pods.

Lenticularis ſcabrities, a ſpecies of glandular ſcabrities, in the form of lentils.

Leproſus, ſpotted like a leopard.

Liber, the inner rind of a plant.

Lignoſus caulis, a woody ſtem.

Lignum, wood.
Ligulated, } a flower whose petals are tubula-
Ligulatus flos, } ted at the base, plain on the outside, linear towards the middle, and widest at the extremity, in form of a bandage.
Liliaceus, like a lily.
Limbus, a border, the upper expanded part of a monopetalous flower.
Lin. a line, the second degree in the Linnæan scale for measuring plants; the 12th part of an inch.
Linearis folium, a narrow leaf, whose opposite margins are almost parallel.
Linearia folia, leaves whose superficies are marked with parallel lines, running lengthways.
Linguiformis folium, a leaf shaped like a tongue.
Lobata folia, } leaves divided to the middle into
Lobed leaves, } parts that stand wide from each other, and have their margins convex.
Loculamentum, a cell, a division of a capsula.
Locus foliorum, the particular part of a plant to which the leaf is affixed.
Lomentaceous, like bean meal.
Longiusculus, somewhat long.
Longum perianthium, a long perianthium, *i. e.* when the tube of the calyx is equal in length to that of the corolla.
Lucidum folium, a clear shining leaf.
Lunata folia, moon-shaped leaves, round and hollowed at the base like a half moon.
Lunated, shaped like a crescent.
Lurida, pale, wan, or dismal.
Lyratum folium, a leaf shaped like a lyre.

M

Marcescens corolla, a flower withering on the plant.
Margo folii, the margin of the leaf.
Masculus flos, a male flower, containing antheræ, but no stigma.
Masked flower, a flower gaping, but shut close between the lips.
Mas planta, a male plant.
Matrix, a seed vessel.
Medulla, marrow, the pith of a plant.
Membranacea folia, leaves which have no distinguishable pulp between their surfaces.
Membranatus caulis, a stalk covered with thick membranes.
Milky plants, plants whose juices are white, red, or yellow.
Monocotyledones, plants whose seeds have a single cotyledon.
Monœcia, one house.
Monopetalous, having but one petal.
Monophyllous, consisting of one leaf.
Monospermous, having one seed.
Muricaria scabrities, a species of glandular roughness on some plants, like grains of millet.
Mucronatum folium, a leaf terminating in a sharp point.
Multifidum folium, a leaf divided into many linear segments.
Multiflorous, bearing many flowers.
Multipartitum folium, a leaf divided into many parts.
Multiliquæ, plants with many pods.
Muricatus caulis, a stalk, whose surface is covered with sharp points, like the murex.
Muticous, without a beard or prickle.

N

Naked, without bristles or hairs.
Natans folium, a leaf which swims on the surface of water.
Navicularis valvula, the valve of a seed vessel resembling a ship.
Nervosum folium, a leaf whose surface is full of nerves or strings.
Nervous, having unconnected small vessels, like nerves, running from the base to the top.
Nidulantia semina, seeds in the pulp of a berry.
Nitidum folium, a bright glossy leaf.
Nucleus, a kernel.
Nudus, naked.
Nutans caulis, a nodding stalk.

O

Obcordatum petalum, a heart-shaped petal, with its apex downwards.
Obliquum folium, a leaf whose apex points obliquely towards the horizon.
Oblongum folium, an oblong leaf.
Obsolete lobata folia, leaves having lobes scarce discernible.
Obtusa folia, leaves rounded at the apex.
Obvoluta folia, leaves rolled against each other, when their respective margins alternately embrace the straight margin of the opposite leaf.
Officinales, plants used in medicine, and kept in the apothecaries shops.
Operculum, a cover.
Oppositifolious, } branches and leaves that grow
Oppositi rami folia, } by pairs opposite each other.
Orbiculatum folium, a round leaf.
Orgya, a fathom, or six Parisian feet.
Ovale folium, an oval leaf.
Ovarium, the germen.
Ovatum folium, an egg-shaped leaf.

P

Pagina folii, the surface of a leaf.
Palea, chaff, a thin membrane rising from a common receptacle, which separates the flosculi.
Paleaceus pappus, chaffy down.
Palmata radix, a handed root.
Palmatum folium, a leaf shaped like an open hand.
Palustris, marshy or fenny.
Panduriform, shaped like a guitar.
Papilionaceous, butterfly-shaped.
Papillosum folium, a leaf covered with dots or points like nipples.
Pappus, down.
Papulosum folium, a leaf whose surface is covered with pimples.
Parabolical, in form of a parabola.
Parallelum dissepimentum, the dissepiment parallel to the sides of the pericarpium.
Parasitical plantæ, plants that grow only out of other plants.
Partialis umbella, a partial umbel.
Partiale involucrum, a cover at the base of the partial umbel.
Partitum folium, a divided leaf.
Parvum perianthium, a little flower cup.
Patens, spreading.
Patulus calyx, a spreading cup.
Pauciflorous, having few flowers.
Pedalis caulis, a stalk a foot in height.
Pedatum folium, a species of compound leaf, whose divisions resemble the to[illegible]

[illegible]*edicellus*,

Pedicellus, a little foot-ſtalk.
Pedunculatis cirrhus, a tendril proceeding from the foot-ſtalk of a flower.
Pedunculati flores, flowers growing on foot-ſtalks.
Pedunculus, the foot-ſtalk of a flower.
Peltatum folium, a leaf, in which the foot-ſtalk is inſerted into its diſk, inſtead of its baſe.
Penicilliforme ſtigma, a ſtigma in the form of a painter's pencil.
Pentagonus caulis, a five-angled ſtalk.
Pentapetalous, conſiſting of 5 petals.
Pentaphyllous, conſiſting of 5 leaves.
Perennial, continuing for many years.
Perfecti flores, flowers having petals; the perfect flowers of Ray, Tournefort, and other botaniſts.
Perfoliatum folium, a leaf whoſe baſe entirely ſurrounds the ſtem, or through whoſe centre the ſtalk grows.
Perforati cotyledones, perforated cotyledons.
Perianthium, i. e. ſurrounding the flower, a ſpecies of calyx.
Pericarpium, i. e. round the fruit, a pod.
Perichætium, a circular tuft of fine hair-like leaves, ſurrounding the baſes of the filaments in the muſci and algæ.
Petaliforme ſtigma, a ſtigma reſembling the ſhape of a petal.
Petaloides flos, a flower having petals.
Petiolaris cirrhus, a tendril proceeding from the foot-ſtalk of a leaf.
Petiolatum folium, a leaf growing on a foot-ſtalk.
Petiolus, a little foot-ſtalk.
Pileus, a hat or bonnet; the orbicular expanſion of a muſhroom, which covers the fructification.
Piloſum folium, a leaf whoſe ſurface is covered with long diſtinct hairs.
Pinnatifidum folium, a winged leaf; applied to ſimple leaves whoſe lacinæ are tranſverſe to the rachiæ.
Pinnatum folium, a winged leaf.
Pixidatum folium, a kind of foliage, where one leaf is let into another by a joint.
Planipetalous, with plain flat petals.
Planum folium, a plain flat leaf.
Plicatum folium, a plaited leaf.
Plumata ſeta, a feathered briſtle.
Plumoſus pappus, a kind of ſoft down.
Pollex, a thumb; the length of the firſt joint of the thumb, or a Pariſian inch.
Polycotyledones, many cotyledons.
Polygamia, many marriages.
Polygynia, many females.
Polypetalous, conſiſting of many petals.
Polyphyllous, conſiſting of many leaves.
Polyſpermous, containing many ſeeds.
Polyſtachius culmus, a ſtalk of graſs having many ſpikes.
Præmorſa radix, a bitten root, ending abruptly.
Priſmaticus calyx, a triangular flower-cup.
Procumbent, lying on the ground.
Prominulous, jetting out beyond the valves.
Pronum diſcum folii, a leaf with its face downwards.
Proprium involucrum, an involucrum at the baſe of an umbellated flower.
[illegible]um folium, a pulpy leaf.
[illegible]tum folium, a leaf powdered with a kind of like meal.
Punctatum folium, a leaf ſprinkled with hollow dots or points.
Putamineous, like a ſhell.

Q

Quadrangulare folium, a leaf with 4 prominent angles in the edge of its diſk.
Quadrifidum folium, a leaf divided into 4 parts.
Quadrijugum folium, a leaf having 4 pair of folioles.
Quadrilobum folium, a leaf conſiſting of 4 lobes.
Quadripartitum folium, a leaf conſiſting of 4 diviſions down to the baſe.
Quaterna folia, verticillate leaves, having 4 in each whorl.
Quina folia, verticillate leaves by fives.
Quinatum folium, a digitate leaf with 5 folioles.
Quinquangulare folium, a leaf with 5 prominent angles in the edge of its diſk.
Quinquefidum folium, a leaf conſiſting of 5 diviſions, with linear ſinuſes, and ſtraight margins.
Quinquejugum folium, a pinnated leaf with 5 pair of folioles.
Quinquelobum folium, a leaf with 5 lobes.
Quinquepartitum folium, a leaf conſiſting of 5 diviſions down to the baſe.

R

Rachis folii pinnati, the middle rib of a winged leaf, to which the folioles are affixed.
Radiatus flos, a ſpecies of compound flowers, in which the florets of the diſk are tubular, and thoſe of the radius ligulate.
Radicalia folia, leaves proceeding immediately from the root.
Radicans caulis, a ſtalk bending to the ground and taking root where it touches the earth.
Radicata folia, leaves ſhooting out roots.
Radius, a ray, the ligulate margin of the diſk of a compound flower.
Ramea folia, leaves that grow only on the branches, and not on the trunk.
Ramoſiſſimi caules, ſtalks abounding with branches irregularly diſpoſed.
Ramoſus caulis, a ſtalk having many branches.
Ramus, a branch of a tree.
Reclinatum folium, a leaf bending downward.
Recurvatum folium, a leaf bent backwards.
Reflexus ramus, a branch bent back towards the trunk.
Remotis verticillus, a ſpecies of inflorescence, wherein the whorls of flowers and leaves ſtand at a diſtance from one another.
Reniforme folium, a kidney-ſhaped leaf.
Repandum folium, a leaf having a bending or waved margin without any angles.
Repens caulis, a creeping ſtalk, either running along the ground, or on trees, or rocks, and ſtriking roots at certain diſtances.
Repens radix, a creeping root extending horizontally.
Reptans flagellum, a twig creeping along the ground.
Reſtantes pedunculi, foot ſtalks remaining, after the fructification has fallen off.
Reſupinatio florum, the upper lip of a flower facing the ground, and the lower lip turned upwards.
Reſupinatum folium, a leaf, the lower diſk of which looks upward.
Retroflexus ramus, a branch bent in different directions.

Retrofractus pedunculus, a foot-ſtalk bent back towards its inſertion, as if it were broken.
Retuſum folium, a leaf with its apex blunt.
Revolutum folium, a leaf rolled back.
Rhombeum folium, a leaf whoſe ſhape nearly reſembles a rhombus.
Rhomboideum folium, a leaf of a geometrical figure, whoſe ſides and angles are unequal.
Rigidus caulis, a ſtiff or rigid ſtem.
Rimoſus caulis, a ſtalk abounding with clefts and chinks.
Rictus, grinning or gaping.
Roſaceus flos, a flower whoſe petals are placed in a circle, like thoſe of a roſe.
Roſtellum, a little beak.
Rotaceus, like a wheel.
Rotatus limbus corollæ, a wheel-ſhaped flower, expanded horizontally, having a tubular baſis.
Rotundatum folium, a roundiſh leaf.
Rubra lactescentia, red milkineſs.
Rubrata loca, rubbiſhy places.
Rugoſum folium, a rough or wrinkled leaf.

S

Sagittatum, arrow-ſhaped.
Sarmentoſus caulis, the ſhoot of a vine, naked between each joint, and producing leaves at the joints.
Scaber caulis, a ſcabby and rough ſtalk, having tubercles.
Scabrities, a ſpecies of pubeſcence, compoſed of particles ſcarce viſible, on the ſurface of plants.
Scandens caulis, a climbing ſtalk.
Scariosa folia, leaves dry on the margin, that ſound when touched.
Scorpioides flos, a flower reſembling the tail of a ſcorpion.
Scutellum, a ſpecies of fructification which is orbicular, concave, and elevated in the margin.
Scyphifer, cup-bearing.
Secretoria scabrities, a ſpecies of glandular roughneſs on the ſurface of ſome plants.
Securiformis pubescentia, a ſpecies of pubeſcence on ſome plants, the briſtles reſembling an axe.
Seminalia folia, ſeed leaves.
Semiteres caulis, a half round ſtalk, flat on one ſide.
Sempervirens folium, an ever-green leaf.
Sena folia, leaves growing in ſixes.
Serpens folium, a leaf whoſe ſurface is of a ſoft ſilky texture.
Serratum folium, a ſawed leaf.
Sessile folium, a leaf growing immediately to the ſtem, without any foot-ſtalk.
Seta, briſtles.
Setacea folia, leaves ſhaped like briſtles.
Simplex caulis, a ſingle ſtem.
Sinuatum folium, a leaf whoſe ſides are ſcolloped.
Solidus caulis, a ſolid ſtalk.
Solitarius pedunculus, a ſolitary flower-ſtalk, *i. e.* when only one proceeds from the ſame part.
Solitæ stipulæ, looſe ſtraw.
Sparſus, ſcattered without order.
Spathaceous, like a ſheath.
Spatulatum folium, a leaf in the form of a ſpatula.
Spica, a ſpike, a ſpecies of inflorescence in graſſes, reſembling an ear of corn.
Spicula, a little ſpike.
Spinæ, thorns or rigid prickles.
Spinescent, hard and pricking.
Spinoſus caulis, a ſtalk with ſtrong prickles, whoſe roots proceed from the wood of the ſtem, and from the ſurface of the bark.
Spirales cotyledones, ſeminal leaves twiſted ſpirally.
Spithama, a ſpan, or 7 Pariſian inches.
Splendentia folia, ſhining leaves.
Squamoſa radix, a ſcaly root.
Squarroſum, rough, ſcaly, or ſcurfy.
Staminеus flos, flowers having ſtamina, but no corolla.
Staturninatæ, an order of plants in the former Fragmenta methodi naturalis of Linnæus.
Stellata folia, leaves ſurrounding a ſtem like the rays of a ſtar.
Stellatæ setæ, briſtles ariſing from a centre in form of a ſtar.
Sterilis flos, a barren flower; maſculus of Linnæus.
Stigma, a mark, the apex of the piſtillum.
Stimuli, ſtings.
Stipitatus pappus, a kind of trunk that elevates the down and connects it with the ſeed.
Stipulares glandulæ, glands produced from ſtipulæ.
Stolo, a ſhoot, which, running on the ſurface of the ground, ſtrikes root at every joint.
Striati caules, culmi, &c. channeled ſtreaks running lengthways in parallel lines.
Strictus caulis, a ſtraight ſtiff ſhoot.
Strigæ, ridges, or rows.
Stylus, the ſtyle, from *ſtylus*, a pillar.
Submerſum folium, the leaf of an aquatic plant, ſunk under the ſurface of the water.
Subramoſus caulis, a ſtalk having few branches.
Subrotundum folium, a leaf almoſt round.
Subulatum folium, an awl-ſhaped leaf.
Suffrutex, an under ſhrub.
Sulcatus caulis, or *culmus*, a ſtalk deeply furrowed lengthways.
Superus flos, a flower whoſe receptacle ſtands above the germen.
Supra-axillaris pedunculus, the foot-ſtalk of a flower, whoſe inſertion is above the angle formed by the branch.
Supra-decompoſita folia, compoſite leaves which have little leaves growing on a ſubdivided foot-ſtalk.
Supra-foliaceus pedunculus, the foot-ſtalk of a flower inſerted into the ſtem immediately above the leaf.
Surculus, a twig, the ſtalk of a moſs.
Swob, a legumen, or pod.
Syngenesia, generating together.

T

Tegumentum, a cover.
Teres caulis, a cylindrical ſtalk.
Tergeminum folium, a leaf 3 times double, when a dichotomus petiolus is ſubdivided, having two foliola on the extremity of each diviſion.
Ternata folia, leaves in whorls by threes.
Teſſellatum folium, a chequered leaf, whoſe ſquares are of different colours.
Tetradynamia, the ſuperiority of 4.
Tetragonus caulis, a ſquare ſtalk.
Tetrapetaloides, conſiſting of 4 petals.
Tetraphyllous, conſiſting of 4 leaves.
Tetraſpermous, producing 4 ſeeds.
Thalamus, a bed, the receptacle.
Theca, a ſheath.
Tomentoſus, covered with a whitiſh down like wool.

Tomentum,

Tomentum, a ſpecies of woolly or downy pubeſcence, covering the ſurface of ſome plants.
Toroſum pericarpium, a brawny protuberance, like the ſwelling of the veins, when a pericarpium is bunched out by the incloſed ſeeds.
Torta corolla, a flower with the petals twiſted.
Tortilis ariſta, a twiſted awn.
Tranſverſum diſſepimentum, the diſſepiment at right angles with the ſides of the pericarpium.
Trapeziforme folium, a leaf having 4 prominent angles, whoſe ſides are neither equal nor oppoſite.
Triangulare folium, a triangular leaf.
Tricocca capſula, a capſule with 3 cells, and a ſingle ſeed in each.
Tricuſpidated, three-pointed.
Trifidum folium, a leaf divided into 3 linear ſegments, having ſtraight margins.
Triflorous, bearing 3 flowers.
Trigonus caulis, a three-ſided ſtalk.
Tribilatum ſemen, a ſeed having three eyes.
Trijugum folium, a winged leaf, with three pairs of foliola.
Trilobum folium, a leaf having three lobes.
Trilocular, having the pericarpium divided into three loculaments.
Trinervum folium, a leaf having 3 ſtrong nerves running from the baſe to the apex.
Triæcia, three houſes.
Tripartitum folium, a leaf divided into three parts down to the baſe.
Tripetalous, conſiſting of three petals.
Tripetaloideæ, three-petalled.
Triphyllous, conſiſting of three leaves.
Tripinnatum folium compoſitum, a leaf having a triple ſeries of pinnæ, or wings.
Triplinerve folium, a leaf having 3 nerves running from the baſe to the apex.
Triquetrum folium, or *triquetra caulis*, a leaf, or ſtalk, having 3 plain ſides.
Triſpermous, three ſeeded.
Triternatum folium compoſitum, a compound leaf when the diviſions of a triple petiolus are ſubdivided into threes.
Trivalve pericarpium, a pod conſiſting of 3 valves.
Truncatum folium, a leaf having its apex as it were cut off.
Truncus, the body or ſtem of a tree.
Tuberculatus, having pimples or tubercles.
Tuberculum, a little pimple.
Tuberoſa radix, a knobbed root.
Tubulatum perianthium, a tubular flower.
Tubuloſi floſculi, tubular florets nearly equal.
Tubus, a tube.
Tunicatæ radix, a ſpecies of bulbous root, having coats lying one over another from the centre to the ſurface, as in the onion, &c.
Turbinatum pericarpium, a kind of pod ſhaped like a top, narrow at the baſe, and broad at the apex.
Turgidum legumen, a ſwollen pod.
Turiones, the young buds of pines.

U V

Vaginalis, ſheathed.
Vaginans folium, a leaf like a ſheath.
Valvula, a valve.
Venoſum folium, a leaf whoſe whole ſurface is run over by veins.
Ventricoſa ſpica, a ſpike narrowing at each extremity, and bellying out in the middle.
Ventriculoſus calyx, a flower cup bellying out in the middle, but not in ſo great a degree as ventricoſus.
Verrucoſa capſula, a capſule having little knobs or warts on its ſurface.
Verſatilis anthera, an anthera fixed by the middle on the point of the filament, and ſo poiſed as to turn like the needle of a compaſs.
Verticalia folia, leaves ſo ſituated that their baſe is perpendicular above the apex.
Verticillated branches, flowers, or leaves; ſuch as ſurround the ſtem, like the rays of a wheel.
Veſicula, a little bladder.
Veſicularis ſcabrities, a kind of glandular roughneſs, reſembling veſicules.
Vexillum, a ſtandard, the upright petal of a papilionaceous flower.
Villoſus, covered with ſoft hairs.
Virgatus caulis, a ſtalk ſhooting out.
Viſcidum folium, a clammy leaf.
Viſcoſitas, clammyneſs.
Uliginoſa loca, boggy places.
Umbella, an umbel or umbrella.
Umbellatus flos, an umbellated flower.
Umbellula, a little umbel.
Umbilicatum folium, a leaf ſhaped like a navel.
Uncinatum ſtigma, a hooked ſtigma.
Undatum folium, a waved leaf, whoſe ſurface riſes and falls in waves towards the margin.
Undulata corolla, a flower whoſe petals are waved.
Unguis, a nail, or claw; that part of a petal that is joined to the receptacle.
Unicus flos, a ſingle flower.
Unicus radix, a ſingle root.
Uniflorus pedunculus, a foot-ſtalk with 1 flower.
Unilateralis, growing on one ſide.
Univerſalis umbella, an univerſal umbel.
Volubilis caulis, a twining ſtalk.
Urceolata corolla, a pitcher-ſhaped flower.
Urens caulis, or *folium*, a ſtalk or leaf, burning or ſtinging, as nettles.
Utricula, a ſpecies of glandular, ſecretory veſſels on the ſurface of various plants.

W

Waved, having the diſk alternately bending up and down in obtuſe plaits.
Wedge-ſhaped, growing narrower towards the baſe.
Whirl, or *Whorl*, } leaves, flowers, &c. ſurrounding a ſtalk or trunk at the joints in great numbers

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[N. B.—*The* Botanical terms, *not inſerted here, are explained in the* Glossary.]

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BOT

BOTANY BAY, a bay of New South Wales, situated on the E. coast of New Holland, so named by Capt. Cook, from the great variety of plants he found on the shore. It was originally fixed on for a colony of convicts from Britain; but afterwards Port Jackson, 15 m. farther N. was preferred. See HOLLAND, NEW.

(1.) * BOTARGO. *n. s.* [*botarga*, Span.] A relishing sort of food, made of the roes of the mullet fish; much used on the coasts of the Mediterranean, as an incentive to drink. *Chambers.*

(2.) BOTARGO is a kind of sausage. The best kind comes from Tunis in Barbary: It must be chosen dry and reddish. The inhabitants of the ci-devant province of Provence use a great deal of it. The common way of eating it is with olive oil and lemon juice. There is also a great consumption of it throughout the Levant.

BOTARY, an ancient parish of Aberdeenshire, now constituting a part of CAIRNY.

BOTATRISSA, in ichthyology, a name given by Bellonius, Gesner, and other authors, to that species of the GADUS called by authors the *lota*, and *mustela fluviatilis*; by us, the eel-pout. It is distinguished from the other *gadi*, by having two fins on the back, and the two jaws of equal length, with beards at the mouth.

BOTAURUS, in ornithology, a name by which several authors have called the bittern.

* BOTCH. *n. s.* [*bozza*, pronounced *botza*, Ital.] 1. A swelling or eruptive discoloration of the skin.—

Time, which rots all, and makes *botches* pox,
And, plodding on, must make a calf an ox,
Hath made a lawyer. *Donne.*

Botches and blains must all his flesh imboss,
And all his people. *Milton.*

It proves far more incommodious, which, if it be propelled in boils, *botches*, or ulcers, as in scurvy, would rather conduce to health. *Harvey.* 2. A part in any work ill finished, so as to appear worse than the rest.—

With him,
To leave no rubs or *botches* in the work,
Fleance, his son, must embrace the fate. *Shake.*

3. An adscitious, adventitious part clumsily added.—If both those words are not notorious *botches*, I am deceived, though the French translator thinks otherwise. *Dryden.*—

A comma ne'er could claim
A place in any British name;
Yet, making here a perfect *botch*,
Thrusts your poor vowel from his notch. *Swift.*

* *To* BOTCH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To mend or patch clothes clumsily.—Their coats, from *botching* newly brought are torn. *Dryden.* 2. To mend any thing awkwardly.—

To *botch* up what th' had torn and rent,
Religion and the government. *Hudibras.*

3. To put together unsuitably, or unskilfully; to make up of unsuitable pieces.—

Go with me to my house,
And hear thou there, how many fruitless pranks
This ruffian hath *botch'd* up, that thou thereby
May smile at this. *Shakes.*

Her speech is nothing,
Yet the unshaped use of it doth move
The hearers to collection; they aim at it,
And *botch* the words up fit to their own thoughts.
Shake.

For treason *botch'd* in rhime will be thy bane;
Rhime is the rock on which thou art to wreck.
Dryden.

4. To mark with botches.—

Young Hylas, *botch'd* with stains too foul to name,
In cradle here renews his youthful frame. *Garth.*

* BOTCHER. *n. s.* [from *botch.*] A mender of old clothes; the same to a taylor as a cobler to a shoemaker.—He was a *botcher's* prentice in Paris, from

from whence he was whipt for getting the ſheriff's ſon with child. *Shakeſ.*—

Butchers left old cloaths in the lurch,
And fell to turn and patch the church. *Hudibras.*

BOTCHESTON, a village in Leiceſterſhire.

* BOTCHY. *adj.* [from *botch.*] Marked with botches.—

And thoſe boils did run—ſay ſo—Did not the general run?
Were not that a *botchy* core? *Shakeſ.*

(1) * BOTE. *n. ſ.* [*bote*, Sax. a word now out of uſe.] 1. A compenſation or amends for a man ſlain, which is bound to another. *Cowel.* 2. It was uſed for any payment.

(2.) BOTE. See MAN-BOTE.

BOTELESS, *adj. obſ.* bootleſs; without remedy. In the charter of Hen. I. to Thomas, Abp. of York, it is ſaid, "that no judgment, or ſum of money, ſhall acquit him that commits ſacrilege; but he is in Engliſh called *botleſs*, viz. without emendation."

BOTELLUS, or BUTELLUS, in writers of the middle age, a ſmall veſſel for wine. Hence our word BOTTLE.

BOTENALKAITOS, a ſtar in the conſtellation CETUS, called alſo BATENKETOS.

BOTEREIUS, Rodolphus, advocate in the Grand Council of Paris, was author of the Hiſtory of Henry IV, in Latin, from 1594 to 1610; in 3 volumes. Mr Bayle is at a loſs to determine whether his French name was *Boterays*, *Boterey*, or *Bouteroue*, &c.

BOTERO, or BOTERUS, John, a native of Bene in Piedmont, and tutor to the princes of Savoy, the ſons of D. Charles Emanuel, was author of ſeveral works in Italian, on Politics, Hiſtory and the Government and Forces of ſeveral ſtates of Europe. He died in 1608.

BOTERON. See BOTRYS.

BOTESCARL, *n. ſ. obſ.* a boatſwain.

BOTESDALE, a village in Suffolk, near Redgrave, 13 m. from Bury.

BOTESTOCK. See BOSTOCK.

BOTETOURT, a large mountainous county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by the Fluvanna, which ſeparates it from Rock and Bath counties; on the N. W. by Green-brier; on the E. by Bedford; S. by Franklin, and S. W. by Montgomery. Fincaſtle is the chief town. It abounds with chalk. It is 44 m. long and 40 broad; and contains 9,267 free inhabitants, and 1,259 ſlaves.

(1.) * BOTH. *adj.* [*batu*, *batua*, Sax.] The two; as well the one as the other. *Et l' un & l' autre*, Fr. It is uſed only of two.—And the next day, *both* morning and afternoon, he was kept by our party. *Sidney.*—Moſes and the prophets, Chriſt and his apoſtles, were in theſe times all preachers of God's truth; ſome by word, ſome by writing; ſome by *both*. *Hooker.*—

Which of them ſhall I take?
Both? one? or neither? neither can be enjoy'd,
If *both* remain alive. *Shakeſ.*

Two lovers cannot ſhare a ſingle bed;
As therefore *both* are equal in degree,
The lot of *both* he left to deſtiny. *Dryden.*

A Venus and a Helen have been ſeen,
Both perjur'd wives, the goddeſs and the queen. *Granville.*

(2.) * BOTH. *conj.* [from the adjective.] As well: it has the conjunction *and* to correſpond with it.—A great multitude *both* of the Jews *and* alſo of the Greeks believed. *Acts.*—

Pow'r to judge *both* quick *and* dead. *Milton.*

Both the boy was worthy to be prais'd,
And Stimichon has often made me long,
To hear, like him, ſo ſweet a ſong. *Dryden.*

(3.) BOTH, Andrew, and } Flemiſh painters,
(4.) BOTH, John, } and both pupils of Bloemart. The union of theſe brothers was very ſingular: they were inſeparable in their ſtudies, travels and paintings. John painted landſcapes in the manner of Lorrain, and Andrew figures and animals in the ſtyle of Bamboche. They both died in 1650. John's taſte is elegant; his compoſition beautiful; and his execution rich and maſterly, though his light is not always well diſtributed. His landſcapes are reckoned among the beſt extant.

BOTHA, in old records, a booth or tent.

BOTHAGIUM, boothage, cuſtomary dues to the lord of the market, for the liberty of pitching booths or tents.

BOTHALL, two villages, viz. 1. in Northumberland, near Morpeth: 2. in Staffordſhire, N. of Pagets Bromley.

BOTHEL, a village in Cumberland, between Cockermouth and Wigton.

BOTHEMSHALL, in the High Peak of Derby.

BOTHENA, BOTHNA, or BUTHNA, in the Scots law, a park or field wherein cattle are incloſed, and fed. It is alſo uſed for a lordſhip, or ſheriffdom.

BOTHENDEN, the ancient name of BOWDEN.

BOTHENWOOD, a village in Dorſetſhire, near Winborne Minſter.

(1.) BOTHER, *adj. obſ.* belonging to both. *Ch.*

(2.) BOTHER, *n. ſ.* an eruption; a puſtule.

BOTHERTON, a village in Cheſhire.

BOTHKENNAR, a pariſh of Scotland, in Stirlingſhire, a mile and a half long and equally broad, containing about 1248 acres, all cultivated. It is interſected by the Carron, and waſhed on the E. by the Forth. The ſoil is fertile, and produces large crops of oats, wheat, graſs, &c. The population, in 1793, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Dickſon, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was about 600, and had on the whole increaſed 71 within the laſt 40 years, though it had ſuſtained a decreaſe of 130 within 10 years preceding. There are 12 orchards in the pariſh, which produce much fruit.

BOTHNA. See BOTHENA.

BOTHNIA, a province of Sweden, at the end of the gulph of Bothnia. It is divided into two parts, viz.

1. BOTHNIA, EAST, belonging to Finland: and

2. BOTHNIA, WEST, a mountainous country. It is ſandy, and yet a ſcarcity of proviſions is ſeldom known. Cattle and game are common; ſalmon and herrings plentiful, and the trade of ſkins gainful; ſo that the inhabitants can command what they want from their neighbours. The principal towns are Tornea and Uma. The inhabitants of this province are Proteſtants; and are civil and well behaved.

BOTHRIAS, or } [βοθρίον,] 1. the ALVEOLUS
BOTHRION, } or ſocket of a tooth. 2. A ſmall

ſmall, narrow, but deepiſh ulcer of the cornea of the eye, reſembling a round puncture.

BOTHUMSAL, a village in Nottinghamſhire, N. W. of Tuxford.

(1.) BOTHWELL, an ancient barony and pariſh of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire, extending from the Clyde to Weſt Lothian, about 8½ m. in length, and 4 in breadth. It is of an oval form, lies at a medium about 300 feet above the level of the ſea, and is all arable, there being neither moſs, moor, nor moraſs in its whole extent. The ſoil in general is good, though clayey, and the climate healthy. It is watered by the Clyde and the S. and N. Calders. Wheat, oats, barley, graſs, and potatoes are the chief produce. Coals and free-ſtone are the only minerals. The population, in 1794, as ſtated by the rev. Mr M'Culloch to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2707; and had increaſed 1146, within the laſt 40 years. There are 4 villages, 5 bridges, 6 corn and 2 lint mills, and a bleachfield in the pariſh. The church is a very ancient ſtructure, and before the reformation was a provoſtry, with very great endowments. A particular account of its provoſts and clergy, is given in the *Stat. Acc. Vol.* XVI. *p.* 322. The pariſh is ornamented with much wood.

(2.) BOTHWELL, a village in the above pariſh, (N. 1.) containing with its out farms, &c. 425 inhabitants, in 1794. It is ſeated on a hill, which commands one of the moſt beautiful inland proſpects in Scotland.

(3.) BOTHWELL BRIDGE, an ancient bridge of 4 arches over the Clyde, in the above pariſh, (N. 1.) memorable for an engagement fought on the S. ſide of it, in 1679, between the royaliſts under Monmouth, and the Whigs; wherein the latter, being deceived by the hopes of pacific meaſures, were defeated, with the loſs of 400 ſlain, and 1200 taken priſoners.

(4.) BOTHWELL CASTLE, a very ancient and magnificent ſtructure now in ruins, adjacent to the village, (N. 2.) originally built of poliſhed ſtones of a red colour. The ruins ſtill occupy a ſpace of 234 feet by 99; but much of it was taken down by the E. of Forfar to build a modern houſe. The ſtair of one of its higheſt towers is ſtill almoſt entire. This tower is an immenſe height above the Clyde. Bothwell caſtle once made a figure in Scottiſh hiſtory.

(5.) BOTHWELL HAUGH, a diſtrict in the above pariſh, (N. 1.) about a mile above the bridge, (N. 3.) memorable for having been the property of James Hamilton, who ſhot the E. of Murray, then regent, at Linlithgow, in 1570.

(1.) BOTIA, or BOTU'S, among chemiſts, a glaſs veſſel with a round belly and long narrow neck, otherwiſe called CUCURBITA, and URINALE.

(2.) BOTIA, in medicine, the ſame with STRUMÆ, and SCROPHULÆ.

BOTIN, or BUTINE, among alchemiſts, turpentine gathered under the proper influence.

BOTLEY, the name of 4 Engliſh villages: viz. 1. in Berkſhire, W. of Oxfordſhire: 2. in Cheſham, Bucks: 3. in Hampſhire, 4 m. S. of Buſh-Waltham; and 4. in Surry, near Fangrove.

BOTOLPH, ST, in Lincolnſhire, N. of Boſton.

BOTOLPH'S BRIDGE in Huntingdonſhire.

BOTONES, BOTONTINI, or BOTONTONE, in middle age writers mounts or hillocks, raiſed to ſerve as land marks boundaries of grounds.

BOTOTOE, in natural hiſtory, a name giv by the people of the Philippine iſlands to a ve beautiful bird of the parrot kind. It is ſomewh ſmaller than the common parrot, and all over a fine deep blue colour.

BOTRIPHNIE, a pariſh of Scotland, in Ban ſhire, 24 m. from Banff, extending about 4½ from N. to S. and 3 from E. to W. It is a le country ſituated between 2 hills, and watered the river Iſla. The ſoil is chiefly a black loa Barley, oats and flax are the principal produ Black cattle and oat meal are exported to the Fr of Forth. The population in 1793, as ſtated the rev. Mr Angus, in his report to Sir J. Sincl was 620; and had decreaſed 333, ſince 17 owing to the enlargement of farms. Servitu are not yet aboliſhed, which, with ſhort lea greatly retard improvements.

BOTRITES. See BOTRYITES, N. 2.

BOTRUS. See BOTRYS.

(1.) BOTRYITES, in natural hiſtory, GRAPE-STONE, [from *βοτρυς*, a grape,] a ſtone the gem kind, reſembling a branch of you grapes.

(2.) BOTRYITES, or BOTRITES, a ſort of bu CADMIA, found ſomewhat in the form of a bun of grapes adhering to the upper parts of furna where the mineral is calcined. It differs from PLACITES, which is gathered on the lower p of the furnace; though Schroeder gives a differ diſtinction, viz. into *botrites*, found in the mid of the furnace, *placites* in the upper, and OST CITES in the loweſt part.

* BOTRYOID. *adj.* [*βοτρυωδης*.] Having form of a bunch of grapes.—The outſide is th ſet with *botryoid* efflorescencies, or ſmall kno yellow, bluiſh, and purple; all of a ſhining m tallick hue. *Woodward.*

BOTRYS, BOTRUS, or *Boſtra*, a town Phœnicia, on the Mediterranean, built by Satu 12 miles N. of Byblus, and 20 S. of Tripolis. is now almoſt in ruins, and called BOTERON, BOTURN. Lon. 37. 30. E. Lat. 34. 6. N.

BOTRYTIS, in botany. See BYSSUS.

(1.) * BOTS. *n. ſ.* [*without a ſingular.*] A ſ cies of ſmall worms in the entrails of horſes; ſwering, perhaps, to the *aſcarides* in human dies.—Peaſe and beans are as dank here as a d and that is the next way to give poor jades *bots. Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) BOTS. See BOTTS.

BOTSBOROUGH, a town in Cornwall.

BOTSEY, a village in Huntingdonſhire.

BOTSFIELD, in Salop, 5 m. from Shrewſbu

BOTSFORD, two villages in Leiceſterſhi viz. 1. in Belvoir vale: 2. near Normanton.

BOTSHAM HALL, 7. m. from Cambridge.

(1.) BOTT, among bone-lace weavers, a rou cuſhion of light matter placed on the knee, whe on they weave their lace with bobbins, &c.

(2.) BOTT, Thomas, a learned divine, born Derby, in 1688. His grandfather was a ma during the republic, and Thomas was educat

and

n or ing n- n- rd t f e 1 1 1557. Walther repreſents him as an able mathematician, and a collector of rarities; and ſays that he was poſſeſſed of a cabinet, which the emperor Ferdinand II. had a great deſire to purchaſe. He died in 1609.

BOTTRYS, a ſpecies of CHENOPODIUM.

BOTTS, or BOTS, in zoology, a ſpecies of ſhort worms, produced and nouriſhed only in the inteſtines of a horſe; where alone they can enjoy the proper temperature of heat, and receive the nouriſhment neceſſary for them. See OESTRUS.

All authors, ancient and modern, who have treated of the diſeaſes of horſes, have taken notice of theſe worms; but M. Valliſnieri is the firſt who has traced them to the laſt ſtage of their transformation, and has ſeen them change into a hairy kind of fly like the drone. The flies from which theſe botts are produced inhabit the country, and do not come near houſes, at leaſt not near thoſe of great towns; and therefore horſes are never liable to have them in their bottles, if they have been kept in the houſe, eſpecially in a town, during the ſummer and autumn. It is in ſummer chiefly that the females of theſe flies apply themſelves to the anus of horſes, and endeavour to gain admittance, in order there to depoſite their eggs, or perhaps their worms. The preciſe inſtant of their entrance will ſcarce admit of an eye-witneſs, but by the mereſt chance; yet M. Valliſnieri ſays, that Dr Gaſpari had attained this very uncommon ſight. The Doctor, he ſays, was one day looking at his mares in the field; and from being very quiet, he obſerved, that on a ſudden they became very reſtleſs, and ran about in great agitation, prancing, plunging, and kicking, with violent motions of their tails. He concluded, that theſe extraordinary effects were produced by ſome fly buzzing about them, and endeavouring to ſettle upon the anus of one of them; but the fly not being able to ſucceed, he obſerved it to go off with leſs noiſe than before, towards a mare that was feeding at a diſtance from the reſt; and now the fly taking a more effectual method to obtain its deſign, paſſed under the tail of the mare, and ſo made its way to the anus. Here at firſt it occaſioned only an itching, by which the inteſtine was protruded with an increaſing aperture of the anus; the fly taking the advantage of this, penetrated further, and ſecured itſelf in the fold of the inteſtine;—this effected, it was in a ſituation proper for laying its eggs. Soon after this, the mare became very violent, running about, prancing, and raging, and throwing herſelf on the ground; in which, was not quiet, nor returned to feeding, but after a quarter of an hour. Thus the fly depoſits its eggs, or perhaps its botts, in the funda- ment of the horſe; which once effected, it has all that is neceſſary for them. If theſe botts are not hatched when firſt depoſited in the but are then only eggs, it will not be long it happens, from the nutritive heat they receive. Theſe botts ſoon make their way the inteſtines of the horſe; they occupy ſuch are to them moſt convenient; and ſome- penetrate even to the ſtomach. All the ha- y appear to be expoſed to, is that of be- ed away from the places they have fixed by the excrement, which may ſeem likely to

thoroughly fine before it be bottled. For want of this, ſome leave the bottles open a while, or open them after two or three days bottling to give them vent. If one bottle break, through fermentation, it is beſt to give them all vent, and cork them up again. Mean cyder is apter to break the bottles than rich. Some ſoak the corks in ſcalding water, to render them more pliant and ſerviceable. Another particular to be obſerved is, to lay the bottles ſo as that liquor may always keep the cork wet and ſwelled. Something alſo depends on the place where the bottles are ſet, which ought to be ſuch as expoſes them as little as poſſible to the alterations and impreſſions of the air: the ground is better for this purpoſe than a frame; ſand better than the bare ground, and a running water, or a ſpring often changed, beſt of all. To haſten the ripening of bottled liquors, they are ſometimes ſet in a warm place, or even expoſed to the ſun, when a few days will bring them to maturity.

* BOTTOM. *n. ſ.* [*botm*, Sax. *bodem*, Germ.] 1. The loweſt part of any thing. 2. The ground under the water.—

Shallow brooks that flow'd ſo clear,
The *bottom* did the top appear. *Dryden.*

3. The foundation; the ground-work.—On this ſuppoſition my reaſonings proceed, and cannot be affected by objections which are far from being built on the ſame *bottom*. *Atterbury.* 4. A dale; a valley; a low ground.—

In the purlieus ſtands a ſheep-cote,
Weſt of this place; down in the neighbour *bottom*. *Shakeſpeare.*

—On both the ſhores of that fruitful *bottom*, are ſtill to be ſeen the marks of ancient edifices. *Addiſon on Italy.*—Equal convexity could never be ſeen: the inhabitants of ſuch an earth could have only the proſpect of a little circular plain, which would appear to have an acclivity on all ſides; ſo that every man would fancy himſelf the loweſt, and that he always dwelt and moved in a *bottom*. *Bentley.* 5. The part moſt remote from the view; the deepeſt part.—His propoſals and arguments ſhould with freedom be examined to the *bottom*, that, if there be any miſtake in them, no body may be miſled by his reputation. *Locke.* 6. Bound; limit.—

But there's no *bottom*, none,
In my voluptuouſneſs. *Shakeſpeare.*

7. The utmoſt extent or profundity of any man's capacity, whether deep or ſhallow.—I will fetch off theſe juſtices: I do ſee the *bottom* of Juſtice Shallow: how ſubject we old men are to lying! *Shakeſpeare.* 8. The laſt reſort; the remoteſt cauſe; firſt motion.—He wrote many things which are not publiſhed in his name; and was at the *bottom* of many excellent counſels, in which he did not appear. *Addiſon.* 9. A ſhip; a veſſel for navigation.—

A bawbling veſſel was he captain of,
With which, ſuch ſcathful grapple did he make
With the moſt noble *bottom* of our fleet. *Shak.*

My ventures are not in one *bottom* truſted;
Nor to one place. *Shakeſpeare.*

—We have memory, not of one ſhip that ever returned, and but of thirteen perſons only, at ſeveral times, that choſe to return in our *bottoms*. *Bacon.*—

He's a fooliſh ſeaman,
That, when his ſhip is ſinking, will not
Unlade his hopes into another *bottom*. *Denh.*

—He puts to ſea upon his own *bottom*; holds the ſtern himſelf; and now, if ever, we may expect new diſcoveries. *Norris.*—

He ſpreads his canvas, with his pole he ſteers,
The freights of flitting ghoſts in his thin *bottom* bears. *Dryden.*

10. A chance; an adventure; ſtate of hazard.—He began to ſay, that himſelf and the prince were too much to venture in one *bottom*. *Clarendon.*—We are embarked with them on the ſame *bottom*, and muſt be partakers of their happineſs or miſery. *Spectator.* 11. A ball of thread wound up together.—This whole argument will be like *bottoms* of thread cloſe wound up. *Bacon.*—Silkworms finiſh their *bottoms* in about fifteen days. *Mort.*—

Each Chriſtmas they accounts did clear,
And wound their *bottom* round the year. *Prior.*

12. BOTTOM *of a lane*. The loweſt end.
13. BOTTOM *of beer*. The grounds, or dregs.

(1.) * *To* BOTTOM. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To build upon; to fix upon as a ſupport: with *on*.—They may have ſomething of obſcurity, as being *bottom'd upon*, and fetch'd from the true nature of the things. *Hale.*—Pride has a very ſtrong foundation in the mind; it is *bottomed upon* ſelf-love. *Collier.*—The grounds *upon* which we *bottom* our reaſoning, are but a part; ſomething is left out, which ſhould go into the reckoning. *Locke.*—Action is ſuppoſed to be *bottomed upon* principle. *Atterbury.* 2. To wind upon ſomething; to twiſt thread round ſomething.—

Therefore, as you unwind your love for him,
Leſt it ſhould ravel, and be good to none,
You muſt provide to *bottom* it on me. *Shakeſp.*

(2.) * *To* BOTTOM. *v. n.* To reſt upon as a ſupport.—Find out upon what foundation any propoſition advanced, *bottoms*; and obſerve the intermediate ideas, by which it is joined to that foundation upon which it is erected. *Locke.*

*BOTTOMED. *adj.* [from *bottom*.] Having a bottom; it is uſually compounded.—There being prepared a number of *flat-bottomed* boats, to tranſport the land-forces, under the wing and protection of the great navy. *Bacon.*

* BOTTOMLESS. *adj.* [from *bottom*.] Without a bottom; fathomleſs.—Wickedneſs may well be compared to a *bottomleſs* pit, into which it is eaſier to keep one's ſelf from falling, than being fallen, to give one's ſelf any ſtay from falling infinitely. *Sidney.*—

Is not my ſorrow deep, having no bottom?
Then be my paſſions *bottomleſs* with them.
Shakeſpeare.

Him the Almighty pow'r
Hurl'd headlong, flaming from th' etherial ſky,
To *bottomleſs* perdition. *Milton.*

(1.) * BOTTOMRY. *n. ſ.* [in navigation and commerce.] The act of borrowing money on a ſhip's bottom; that is, by engaging the veſſel for the repayment of it, ſo as that, if the ſhip miſcarry, the lender loſes the money advanced; but if it arrives ſafe at the end of the voyage, he is to repay

repay the money lent, with a certain premium or interest agreed on; and this on pain of forfeiting treble. *Harris.*

BOTTOMRY is allowed to be a valid contract in all trading nations, for the benefit of commerce, and by reason of the extraordinary hazard run by the lender. The ship and tackle, if brought home, are answerable, as well as the person of the borrower, for the money lent. But if the loan is not upon the vessel, but upon the goods or merchandize, which must necessarily be sold or exchanged in the course of the voyage, then only the borrower, personally, is bound to answer the contract; who, therefore, in this case, is said to take up the money at *respondentia*. These words are also applied to contracts for the repayment of money borrowed, not on the ship and goods only, but on the mere hazard of the voyage itself: when a man lends a merchant 1000*l.* to be employed in a beneficial trade, with condition to be repaid with extraordinary interest, in case such a voyage be safely performed; which kind of agreement, is sometimes called *fœnus nauticum*, and sometimes *usuria maritima*. But as this gave an opening for usurious and gaming contracts, especially upon long voyages, it was enacted by the statute 19 Geo. II. c. 37. that all monies lent on bottomry, or at *respondentia*, on vessels bound to or from the East Indies, shall be expressly lent only upon the ship; or upon the merchandize; that the lender shall have the benefit of salvage; and that if the borrower has not on board effects to the value of the sum borrowed, he shall be responsible to the lender for so much of the principal as hath not been laid out, with legal interest and all other charges, though the ship and merchandize be totally lost.

BOTTONY. A cross bottony, in heraldry, terminates at each end in 3 buds, knots, or buttons, resembling, in some measure, the three-leaved grass; on which account Segoin, in his *Traité Heraldique*, terms it *croix trefflé*. It is the badge of the order of St Maurice. See HERALDRY, *Plates*.

BOTTRIGARO, Hercules, a person eminently skilled in music, though not a musician, was a man of rank in Bologna, and had the title of *Count*. He published several controversial pieces on music. He entertained strong prejudices in favour of the ancient music; and attempted to introduce the enharmonic genus into practice, but with no better success than Vincentius and others had done. He emended Gogavino's Latin version of Ptolemy in numberless instances, to so good purpose, that Dr Wallis has in general conformed to him, in his translation of it. He also translated into Italian Bacchius *de Musica*, with as much of Psellus and Macrobius as relates to music: and made annotations upon Aristoxenus, Francinus, Spataro, Vicentino, Zarlino, Galilei, and almost every musical treatise he could lay his hands on, as appears by the copies which were once his, and are now reposited in many libraries in Italy. His works contain greater proofs of his learning and skill in music, than of his abilities as a writer, the style being remarkably inelegant: nevertheless he asserted the character of a poet; and there remains a collection of poems by him, in 8vo, printed in 1557. Walther represents him as an able mathematician, and a collector of rarities; and says that he was possessed of a cabinet, which the emperor Ferdinand II. had a great desire to purchase. He died in 1609.

BOTTRYS, a species of CHENOPODIUM.

BOTTS, or BOTS, in zoology, a species of short worms, produced and nourished only in the intestines of a horse; where alone they can enjoy the proper temperature of heat, and receive the nourishment necessary for them. See OESTRUS. All authors, ancient and modern, who have treated of the diseases of horses, have taken notice of these worms; but M. Vallisnieri is the first who has traced them to the last stage of their transformation, and has seen them change into a hairy kind of fly like the drone. The flies from which these botts are produced inhabit the country, and do not come near houses, at least not near those of great towns; and therefore horses are never liable to have them in their bodies, if they have been kept in the house, especially in a town, during the summer and autumn. It is in summer chiefly that the females of these flies apply themselves to the anus of horses, and endeavour to gain admittance, in order there to deposite their eggs, or perhaps their worms. The precise instant of their entrance will scarce admit of an eye witness, but by the merest chance; yet M. Vallisnieri says, that Dr Gaspari had attained this very uncommon sight. The Doctor, he says, was one day looking at his mares in the field; and from being very quiet, he observed, that on a sudden they became very restless, and ran about in great agitation, prancing, plunging, and kicking, with violent motions of their tails. He concluded, that these extraordinary effects were produced by some fly buzzing about them, and endeavouring to settle upon the anus of one of them; but the fly not being able to succeed, he observed it to go off with less noise than before, towards a mare that was feeding at a distance from the rest; and now the fly taking a more effectual method to obtain its design, passed under the tail of the mare, and so made its way to the anus. Here at first it occasioned only an itching, by which the intestine was protruded with an increasing aperture of the anus; the fly taking the advantage of this, pressed further, and lodged itself in the fold or turn of the intestine—this effected, it was in a proper place for laying its eggs. Soon after the mare became very violent, running, [illegible] and kicking, and throwing [illegible] out, was not quiet [illegible] till after a quarter of an hour [illegible] deposites its eggs or worms [illegible] damage of the [illegible] done all that [illegible] worms are now [illegible] horse, by [illegible] before it [illegible] these worms [illegible] parts are [illegible] the [illegible] part [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

drive all before it. But they are able to maintain their ſituation, and to remain in the body of the horſe, as long as they pleaſe. For according to M. de Reaumur's obſervations, they have two unequal claws, by which they are enabled to remain in the inteſtines of the horſe in oppoſition to all his efforts by the excrement to force them out.—Theſe claws are a ſort of anchor, differently diſpoſed from thoſe of common anchors, but contrived to produce the ſame effect. The botts have alſo a great number of triangular ſpines or briſtles, to arm them againſt the coats of the inteſtines, and to reſiſt the force employed to drive them towards the anus, provided the head be directed towards the ſtomach of the horſe. The mares which afforded M. de Reaumur, for ſeveral years, thoſe botts on which he made his obſervations, did not appear to be leſs in health than thoſe which had none; but it may ſometimes happen, that they are in ſo great a quantity in the body of the horſe as to prove fatal to him. M. Valliſnieri ſuppoſes theſe botts to have been the cauſe of an epidemical diſeaſe that deſtroyed a great many horſes about Verona and Mantua in 1713. The obſervations communicated to him by Dr Gaſpari ſufficiently confirm his ſuppoſition. This gentleman, upon diſſecting ſome horſes that died of this diſtemper, found in their ſtomachs a ſurpriſing quantity of ſhort worms; of which to give us ſome idea, he compares them to the kernels of a pomegranate opened: each of theſe, by gnawing on the coat of the ſtomach, had made to itſelf a kind of a cell therein, each of which would contain a grain of Indian wheat. It is eaſy to imagine by this means the ſtomach muſt be reduced to a wretched condition; the outer membranes were inflamed, and the inner ones ulcerated and corrupted; a very ſmall quantity of theſe worms were found in the ſmall inteſtines, and only a few in the larger, to which laſt they were found affixed, but had not corroded them. It is only perhaps when theſe botts are in great numbers, and thereby incommode each other in the inteſtines of the horſe, that they make their way towards the ſtomach; and indeed a very few flies muſt be ſufficient to overſtock the inſide of a horſe, provided they ſhould depoſite all their eggs, and ſuch ſhould all be animated. M. Valliſnieri having counted above 700 in the body of one ſingle fly. When one of theſe botts has left the anus of the horſe, it falls on the ground; and immediately ſeeks for ſome place of ſafety, where it may retire, to prepare for the laſt ſtage of its tranſformation, by which it becomes a fly. And now by degrees the ſkin hardens and thickens; and at length forms a ſolid ſhell, the form of which ſcarce differs from that of the worm. It is firſt of a pale red colour, which changes into cheſnut; and at length, by the addition of gradual and ſucceſſive ſhades of brown, the ſhell is rendered black. The worm or bott, before it paſſes into a nymph, is of the form of an oblong ball; it remains in this form much longer than worms of the fleſh-fly kind. M. de Reaumur met with worms that retained this figure five or ſix days; as yet, one can diſcover no traces of the legs, wings, and head of a nymph. Hence he firſt learned, that thoſe worms do not become nymphs immediately upon their firſt change; but that, in order to become flies, they muſt undergo one change more than caterpillars ordinarily do to become butterflies.—For the cure of horſes troubled with botts, ſee FARRIERY.

BOTULPH, ST. a village in Rutlandſhire.

BOTURN. See BOTRYS.

BOTWAR, a town of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, ſubject to the duke of Wirtemberg; 15 m. S. of Hailbron. Lon. 9. 15. E. Lat. 49. 2. N.

BOTZEN, a town of Auſtria in Tirol, which was taken by the French under Gen. Buonaparte in March 1797, and retaken in April, by the Auſtrians under Gen. Laudon.

BOTZENBURG, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Mecklenburg. It had a caſtle, which was deſtroyed by the Danes in 1202. It is ſeated on the Elbe, and the veſſels that paſs by are obliged to pay a conſiderable toll. Lon. 10. 48. E. Lat. 53. 34. N.

BOVA, an epiſcopal town of Naples, ſeated near the Apennine mountains; 20 m. S. E. of Reggio. Lon. 16. 15. E. Lat. 38. 20. N.

BOVATA TERRÆ, in ancient law writers, ſignifies an oxgate of land, or ſo much as may be ploughed in a year with one ox; by ſome reckoned at 15 acres, by others at 18 or 20; and valued at 13s to 20s yearly rent.

BOVAUGH BRIDGE, a village of Ireland, in the county of Tyrone, Ulſter.

BOUCHAIN, a fortified town of France in the department of the North, and ci-devant province of Hainault. It is divided into two parts by the river Scheld. It was taken by the French in 1676; and by the allies under the duke of Marlborough in 1711, which was the laſt military atchievement of that great general; but the following year it was retaken by the French. It has had its ſhare of ſuffering in the preſent war, being only 9 miles W. of Valenciennes. Lon. 3. 21. E. Lat. 50. 18. N.

BOUCHART, a town of France, in the department of Indre and Loire, ſituated in a ſmall iſland of the river Vienne, 15 m. from Tours.

(1.) BOUCHE, *n. ſ.* [from *bouche*, a mouth, Fr.] an allowance of proviſions.

(2.) BOUCHE OF COURT, the privilege of having meat and drink at court ſcot-free. The word is alſo written *bouge*, *bouge*, and *budge*. The French long uſed the phraſe, *Avoir bouche à la cour*; that is, *to have table or diet at court*. This privilege was ſometimes only extended to bread, beer, and wine: it was anciently uſed in the houſes of noblemen, as well as in the king's court. Thomas E. of Lancaſter retained Sir John de Ewre, to ſerve him with 20 men at arms in time of war, allowing them *bouge of court*, with livery of hay and oats, horſe ſhoes and nails.

BOUCHEFF, *n. ſ. obſ.* goodneſs. *Chauc.*

(1.) BOUCHET, John, a French poet and hiſtorian who flouriſhed in the 16th century. The beſt of his writings are his Annals of Aquitaine, and his *Chapelet des Princes*.

(2.) * BOUCHET. *n. ſ.* [French] A ſort of pear.

BOUCOTT, a down near Burton, N. tinghaw.

* BOUD. *n. ſ.* An inſect which breeds in malt; called alſo a *weevil*.

(3.) BOUDRY, a chatellany of Switzerland in the province of Neufchatel.

(2.) BOUDRY,

(2.) BOUDRY the capital of the above chatellany, (N. 1.) Lon. 6. 40. E. Lat. 47. 1. N.

BOVERIA, or BOVERIUM, } *n. f.* in old records, an ox ſtall; a cow-houſe.

BOVERTON, a town of S. Wales in Glamorganſhire.

BOVETHUS, *n. f.* [old law Lat.] a young ox.

BOVEY COAL, an inflammable foſſile found in England, France, Italy, Switzerland, Germany, Ireland, &c. Its colour is brown or browniſh black, and of a laminar ſtructure. It is compoſed of wood, penetrated by bitumen; and frequently contains pyrites, alum, and vitriol.

BOUFFE, *n. f. obſ.* a belch. *Ghaucer.*

(1.) BOUFLERS, a town of France, in the department of Oiſe.

(2.) BOUFLERS, Lewis Francis, duke of Boufflers, a peer and marſhal of France, was born in 1644. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his valour and conduct in ſeveral ſieges and battles, and had the command of the right wing when the French were defeated at the bloody battle of Malplaquet. He died at Fountainbleau in 1711.

(3.) BOUFLERS, marſhal, the ſon of the Duke, (N. 2.) is famous for having been the deliverer of Genoa, where he died.

BOUGE. See BOUCHE, No. 2.

* *To* BOUGE. *v. n.* [from *bouge*, Fr.] To ſwell out.

BOUGEANT, William Hyacinth, a famous jeſuit, who firſt taught humanity at Caen and Nevers, and afterwards ſettled at the college of Paris, where he employed himſelf in writing ſeveral works, particularly, 1. A collection of phyſical obſervations, extracted from the beſt authors. 2. An hiſtory of the wars and negociations which preceded the treaty of Weſtphalia. 3. The female doctor, a philoſophical amuſement on the language of beaſts, &c. He died in 1743.

BOUGE-RAVEL, in ichthyology, a ſpecies of *Sparus* caught in the Mediterranean, and brought to ſome of the Italian markets. Its noſe is long and pointed; its back is of a reddiſh blue, its tail red, and its belly of a fine ſilvery white. Its whole body is ſhorter and broader than the common *Sparus*. *Willughby.*

(1.) * BOUGH. *n. f.* [*bog*, Sax. the *gh* is mute.] An arm or large ſhoot of a tree, bigger than a branch, yet not always diſtinguiſhed from it.—A vine-labourer, finding a *baugh* broken, took a branch of the ſame *bough*, and tied it about the place broken. *Sidney.*—

Their lord and patron loud did him proclaim,
And at his feet their laurel *boughs* did throw.
Fairy Queen.

From the *bough*
She gave him that fair enticing fruit. *Milton.*

As the dove's flight did guide Æneas, now
May thine conduct me to the golden *bough*.
Denham.

Under ſome fav'rite myrtle's ſhady *boughs*,
They ſpeak their paſſions in repeated vows.
Roſcommon.

See how, on every *bough*, the birds expreſs,
In their ſweet notes, their happineſs. *Dryden.*

'Twas all her joy the ripening fruits to tend,
And ſee the *boughs* with happy burdens bend.
Pope.

(2.) BOUGHS, GREEN, anciently made a part of the decoration of altars and temples, eſpecially on feſtival occaſions. Oaken boughs were offered to Jupiter; thoſe of laurel, to Apollo; of olive, to Minerva; myrtle, to Venus; ivy, to Bacchus; pine, to Pan; and cypreſs, to Pluto.

(1.) * BOUGHT. *n. f.* [from *To bow.*] 1. A twiſt; a link; a knot.—

His huge long tail wound up in hundred folds,
Whoſe wreathed *boughts* whenever he unfolds,
And thick entangled knots adown does ſlack.
Fairy Queen.

Immortal verſe,
Such as the meeting ſoul may pierce,
In notes, with many a winding *bought*
Of linked ſweetneſs, long drawn out. *Milton.*

2. A flexure.—The flexure of the joints is not the ſame in elephants as in other quadrupeds, but nearer unto thoſe of a man; the *bought* of the forelegs not directly backward, but laterally, and ſomewhat inward. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

(2.) * BOUGHT. *preter.* and *participle* of *To buy*; which ſee.—

The chief were theſe who not for empire fought,
But with their blood their country's ſafety *bought*. *Pope.*

BOUGHTON, 3 Engliſh villages, viz. 1. near Cheſter: 2. in Northamptonſhire, 2 m. from Kettering: and, 3. in Nottinghamſhire, 3 m. S. W. of Tuxfield.

BOUGHTON-MUNCHELSEY, a town in Kent.

BOUGIE, [Fr. a wax candle,] a machine, which (as the wax candle formerly was) is introduced into the urethra for removing obſtructions. In 1551, Andreas Lacuna, of Caſtile, publiſhed at Rome in 12 pages, the method of knowing and extirpating caruncles in the neck of the bladder; which he owns he learned from one Philippus, a Portugueſe quack, whom he believed to be the inventor of the bougie ſo employed, and ſays, he had cured ſome people at Rome, by them. Sculletus, about the middle of the 17th century, uſed bougies in diſeaſes of the urethra, and M. Daran probably took the hint from him. Different compoſitions have been uſed, and generally mercury was a part of them. Riverius made a plaſter as follows; R. ol. oliv. *lb.* iv. ceræ citrin. *lb.* ii. minii & ceruſſ. ää *lb.* iſs tereb. venet. & rez. alb. ää *oz.* iii. m. The following is recommended by Mr Hunter:—R. olei olivæ lib. iij. Ceræ flavæ lib. j. Minii lib. iſs. Theſe are to be boiled together over a ſlow fire for ſix hours. Bougies made with this compoſition will be found much too ſoft for immediate uſe, but after keeping ſome months, will acquire ſufficient firmneſs. The plaſter may be made of a ſtiffer conſiſtence, by adding 2 or 3 ounces more wax, and the like quantity of minium, and continuing the boiling till the latter is diſſolved. A tolerable good compoſition for bougies may alſo be formed with litharge plaſter and yellow wax, to which may be added, a ſmall quantity of red ſulphurated quickſilver. The following formula is from Swediaur:—R. Ceræ flavæ lib. j. Spermatis ceti drach. iii. Ceruſſæ acetatæ drach. ij. ad. viij. Theſe are boile[d] as in the former inſtance, and the p[ow]der acetated ceruſe regulated according [to]

are designed to be of a firm or a weaker consistence. When of a large size, they should always be of the latter description, that they may the more readily conform to the shape of the passage when introduced. Whether the bougies are made up of this or any other composition, they must be of different sizes, from the bigness of a knitting needle to that of a goose quill. They are made of linen rags, spread with a proper matter, and then rolled up as follows:—Having spread any quantity of the linen rag with the composition that is chosen for the purpose, cut it into slips from six to ten inches long, and from half an inch to an inch broad; then roll them on a glazed tile or marble into the form of a wax candle; and as the end of the bougie that is to be entered first into the urethra should be somewhat smaller than the rest, cut the slips a little tapering. When the bougies are rolled up, that side must be outward on which the plaster is spread. Bougies are likewise formed of catgut, a substance well calculated to penetrate a strictured part in the first instance, as it admits of being made smaller than the plaster bougie, and yet possesses a sufficient degree of elasticity and strength to allow of being pushed forward with some force. Catgut bougies are also well calculated to pass through an aperture which takes a winding sort of direction, a case in which the common bougie very frequently fails. They do less however towards dilating the stricture than is generally supposed, as they soon become soft and flabby, and in that state, rather yield to the pressure of the stricture, than produce the effect of dilating it. Monf. Daran, and others, attributed the action of the bougies to the composition they made use of in forming them. Mr Sharp apprehended, that as much of their efficacy was owing to the compression they made on the affected part, as to any other principle; and Dr Aitken very justly says, "As it is evident, that bougies of very different compositions succeed equally well, in curing the same disorders in the urethra, it is plain that they do not act by means of any peculiar qualities in their composition, but by means of some property common to them all. This must be their mechanical form and texture, therefore their mode of action must be simple compression. The efficacy of mere compression in many cases of constriction is well known, from the use of sponge tents for widening parts that are straitened by cicatrices; and admitting obstructions in the urethra to be from a constriction formed by cicatrized ulcers, or a projection of the spongy substance of the urethra into the canal, we may easily conceive, that a gentle continued elastic compression will in time overcome the disease. We may also readily account for the inferior efficacy of metallic and whalebone bougies, from their not having the property of swelling with moisture, and therefore not making so equal a compression." A late invention, in which catgut is involved in elastic gum, is perhaps one of the greatest improvements ever made in the composition of simple bougies. The gum defends the catgut from the moisture of the urethra, and renders the bougie pliant in all its parts, whilst a very suitable degree of firmness results from the intermixture of the catgut. Some injury however is done by the coat of varnish with which those bougies are sometimes covered, the urethra being very considerably irritated from this cause when the bougie is retained for any length of time. The practice of keeping the bougie in, as formerly directed by Mr Sharp and others, for several hours together has been relinquished of late years on account of the injury supposed to be done by it to the functions of the musculi accelerators. It is now the practice to wear a bougie only for a few minutes at a time; but there certainly are cases where this treatment cannot but prove inefficacious.

(1.) BOUGUER, John, a good French mathematician and professor royal of hydrography, was author of A complete treatise on Navigation. He died in 1713.

(2.) BOUGUER, Peter, a celebrated French mathematician, born at Croisic, in 1698, was the son of the professor, (No. 1.) He learned mathematics from his father, from the time he was able to speak, and thus became a proficient in the science, while he was yet a child. Being sent early to the Jesuits college at Vannes, he instructed the regent in mathematics, at 11 years of age. At 13, he had a public contest with a professor of mathematics, upon an erroneous proposition he had advanced; and gained so complete a victory over him, that he left the country. At 15, upon his father's death, he was, after a public examination, appointed to succeed him in his professorship. In 1727, he obtained the prize given by the academy of sciences, for the best way of masting ships: in 1729, another for the best manner in observing at sea the height of the stars; and, in 1731, a 3d prize for the most advantageous way of observing the declination of the magnetic needle. In 1730, he was removed to Havre. In 1731, he was appointed geometrician to the academy, and in 1735, pensioner astronomer: when he was also sent along with MM. Godin, Condamine, and Jeussieu, on the commission to S. America, to determine the measure of the degrees of the meridian and the figure of the earth. In this laborious business of 10 years duration, chiefly among the lofty Cordelier mountains, he determined several other new points, besides the main object particularly respecting, 1. the expansion and contraction of metals, &c. by heat and cold; 2. the refraction of the atmosphere by the tops of the mountains; 3. the density of the air at different heights; 4. the effect of the mountains upon the plummet; 5. a method of rectifying the errors committed by navigators in determining the rout; and, 6. a new construction of the log for measuring a ship's way, &c. He died, 15th August 1758, aged 60. His chief works are, 1. The Figure of the Earth, determined by the observations made in S. America: 1749, 4to.: 2. Treatise on Navigation and Pilotage; 1752, 4to. abridged by La Caille, in 1 vol. 8vo.; 1768: 3. Treatise on ships, 4to. 1756: and, 4. On the Gradation of Light; 1729 and 1760, 4to. He wrote also a vast number of important papers, inserted in the Memoirs of the Academy; of which Dr Hutton gives a complete list in his *Mathem. & Philos. Dict.* p. 219, 220.

BOUHOURS, Dominic, a celebrated French

critic, born at Paris 1628. He was entered into the Society of Jeſuits at the age of 16; and was appointed to read lectures upon polite literature in the college of Clermont at Paris, where he had ſtudied: but he was ſo inceſſantly attacked with the headach, that he could not purſue the deſtined taſk. He afterwards undertook the education of two ſons of the Duke of Longueville, which he diſcharged with great applauſe. The duke had ſuch a regard for Bouhours, that he wiſhed to die in his arms; and the *Account of the Pious Chriſtian Death* of this great perſonage, was the firſt work which Bouhours gave to the public. He was ſent to Dunkirk to the Popiſh refugees from England; and in the midſt of his miſſionary occupations, found means to compoſe and publiſh books. Among theſe were, *Entretiens d'Ariſte & d'Eugene*, Dialogues between Ariſtus and Eugenius; a critical work, concerning the French language. It was printed 5 times at Paris, twice at Grenoble, at Lyons, Bruſſels, Amſterdam, Leyden, &c. and embroiled him in quarrels with a great many cenſors; with Menage in particular, who, however, lived in friendſhip with him, before and after. This piece recommended Bouhours ſo effectually to the celebrated miniſter Colbert, that he truſted him with the education of his ſon the Marquis of Segnelai. He wrote afterwards ſeveral other works; the chief of which are, 1. Remarks and doubts upon the French language. 2. Dialogues upon the art of thinking well in works of genius. 3. The life of St Ignatius. 4. The art of pleaſing in converſation. 5. The life of St Francis Xavier, apoſtle of the Indies and of Japan. This laſt work was tranſlated from the French into Engliſh by Mr Dryden, and publiſhed at London in 1668, with a dedication prefixed to James II.'s queen.

(1.) BOUILLON, a town of France, in the ci-devant county of Luxemburgh; now included in one of the new departments lately annexed to the republic. The French took it ſo long ago as 1676. The caſtle is ſeated on a rock that is almoſt inacceſſible, on the river Semois, 12 m. N. E. of Sedan. Lon. 5. 20, E. Lat. 49. 45. N.

(2.)* BOUILLON. *n. ſ.* [French.] Broth; ſoup; any thing made to be ſupped: a term uſed in cookery.

(3.) BOUILLON, in the mancge, a lump or excreſcence of fleſh that grows either upon or juſt by the frush, inſomuch that the frush ſhoots out like a lump of fleſh, and makes the horſe halt; and this is called the *fleſh blowing upon the* FRUSH.

BOVIL's HALL, in Eſſex, near Clackton.

BOUIN, an iſle of France in the bay of Biſcay, on the coaſt of the department of Vendee.

BOVINA AFFECTIO. See AFFECTIO.

BOVINES, a ſmall town of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, ſeated on the Meuſe, 10 m. S. of Namur; now included in one of the new French departments. Lon. 4. 50. E. Lat. 50. 19. N.

BOVINGTON, 2 villages, viz. 1. in Dorſetſh. near Affpiddle: 2. in Hertfordſhire, near Hempſtead.

BOVINO, an epiſcopal town of Naples, in the Capitanata, ſeated at the foot of the Apennine mountains. Lon. 16. 15. E. Lat. 41. 17. N.

BOVISTA, a name uſed by ancient botaniſts for the LYCOPERDON, or puff-ball.

BOVIUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Silures, in Britain, 15 m. S. of Iſca Silurum, or Caer-leon, in Monmouthſhire: Now called COWBRIDGE; or, according to Baudrand, BANGOR in Caernarvonſhire.

BOULAINVILLIERS, Henry DE, Lord of St Saiſe, and an eminent French writer, was deſcended from a very ancient and noble family, and born at St Saiſe, in 1658. His education was among the fathers of the oratory; where he diſcovered, from his infancy, thoſe uncommon abilities for which he was afterwards diſtinguiſhed. He applied himſelf principally to hiſtory; in which his performances are numerous, and conſiderable. He was author of a hiſtory of the Arabians; Fourteen letters upon the ancient parliament of France; a Hiſtory of France to the reign of Charles VIII.; the State of France, with hiſtorical memoirs concerning the ancient government of that monarchy to the time of Hugh Capet; "written (ſays M. Monteſquieu) with a ſimplicity and honeſt freedom, worthy of that ancient family from which their author was deſcended." He died at Paris in 1722; and after his death, was publiſhed, his Life of Mahomet.

(1.) BOULANGER, John, a French engraver who flouriſhed towards the end of the 17th century. He adopted a manner, which, though not original, he greatly improved: He finiſhed the faces, hands, and all the naked parts of his figures, very neatly with dots inſtead of ſtrokes, or ſtrokes and dots. The effect is by no means unpleaſing; only, in ſome few inſtances, he has oppoſed the coarſe graving of his draperies, and back ground, ſo violently to the neater work of the fleſh, that the outline of the latter is rendered hard, and the general appearance flat. This ſtyle of engraving has been ſince carried to its greateſt perfection in England. His draperies are heavy, and the folds not well marked. However, his beſt prints poſſeſs much merit, and are deſervedly held in eſteem.

(2.) BOULANGER, Nicholas-Anthony, a very ſingular Frenchman, was born at Paris, in 1723, and died there, in 1759, aged only 37. He is ſaid to have come out of the college of Beauvais, almoſt as ignorant as he had entered into it; but ſtruggling hard againſt his unaptneſs to learn, he at length overcame it. At 17, he began to ſtudy mathematics and architecture; and, in 3 or 4 years made ſuch progreſs, as to be uſeful to the baron of Thiers, whom he accompanied to the army in quality of engineer. Afterwards he had the ſuperviſion of the highways and bridges; and he executed ſeveral public works in Champagne, Burgandy, and Lorrain. The author of his life, in the *Dictionnaire des Hommes celebres*, writes, that in this province a terrible ſpirit diſcovered itſelf in him, which he himſelf did not ſuſpect before, viz. the ſpirit of "thinking philoſophically." In cutting through mountains, directing and changing the courſe of rivers, and in the breaking up and turning over the ſtrata of the earth, he ſaw a multitude of different ſubſtances, which (he thought) evinced the great antiquity of it, and a long ſeries of revolutions which it muſt have undergone. From the revolutions in the globe, he paſſed to

the changes that muſt have happened in the manners of men in ſocieties, in government, in religion; and he formed many conjectures upon all theſe. To be farther ſatisfied, he wanted to know what, in the hiſtory of ages, had been ſaid upon theſe particulars; and, that he might be informed from the fountain head, he learned firſt Latin and then Greek. Not yet content, he plunged into Hebrew, Syriac, Chaldaic, and Arabic; and acquired ſuch erudition, that, if he had lived, he would have been one of the moſt learned men in Europe. His works are, 1. *Traite du Deſpotiſme Oriental*, 2 vols 12mo; a very bold work; but not ſo bold and licentious as, 2. *L'Antiquite devoilee*, 3 vols 12mo. This was poſthumous. 3. He furniſhed to the *Encyclopedie* the articles *Deluge*, *Corvée*, and *Societé*. 4. He left behind him in MS. a Dictionary which may be regarded as a concordance in ancient and modern language. He is ſaid to have been of a ſweet, calm, and engaging temper; which, however, it is very difficult to reconcile with the dark, impetuous, ardent ſpirit, that appears to have actuated him as a writer.

(1.) BOULAY, a town of France, in the department of the Moſelle. Lon. 6. 33. E. Lat. 49. 10. N.

(2.) BOULAY, or BULÆUS, Cæſar Egaſſe DU, was born at St Ellier, in France; and became profeſſor of humanity at the college of Navarre, regiſter, rector, and hiſtoriographer of the univerſity of Paris. He died in 1678, after having publiſhed ſeveral works. The principal of them are, *A Hiſtory of the Univerſity of Paris*, in Latin, 6 vols folio; and the *Treaſure of Roman Antiquities*, in 3 vol. folio.

BOULCOLACA, or BOURKOLAKOS, [from βουνος, mud, and λακκος, a ditch,] among the modern Greeks, denotes the ſpectre of ſome wicked perſon, who died excommunicated by the patriarch, was reanimated by the devil, and cauſed great diſturbance among the people; of which many ſtrange ſtories are told.

BOULD, a hamlet of Oxfordſhire, in Idbury.

* BOULDER WALLS. [In architecture.] Walls built of round flints or peebles, laid in a ſtrong mortar; uſed where the ſea has a beach caſt up, or where there are plenty of flints. *Build. Dict.*

BOULETTE, in the manege, an epithet of a horſe, when the fetlock bends foreward out of its natural ſituation, through violent riding, or by being too ſhort jointed.

BOULGE, a village in Suffolk, 5 m. N. W. of Woodbridge.

BOULIMY. See BULIMY.

BOULINIS, or BOULIGNIS, a copper coin, current at Bologna, equal to the BAIOCCO.

(1.) BOULLOGNE, Bon DE, a painter of eminence, born at Paris, in 1649. From his father Lewis, (No. 3.) he learned the firſt principles of the art; but went to Rome to perfect himſelf from the works of the beſt maſters. He abode in Italy 5 years. He excelled in hiſtory and portrait. His talents for copying the pictures of the great Italian painters were ſo very extraordinary, that he frequently deceived the greateſt judges. He died at Paris, in 1717, aged 68.

(2.) BOULLOGNE, Lewis DE, was born at Paris, in 1654, was the younger brother of Bon, (No. 1 and like him, learned from his father, the firſt principles of painting, and afterwards went to Rome to complete his ſtudies. His works, on his return, were ſo much eſteemed, that Louis XIV made him knight of St Michael, appointed him his principal painter, allowed him ſeveral penſions, and raiſed him to the rank of nobility. He embelliſhed the church of the Invalids, the chapel of Verſailles, &c. He chiefly excelled in hiſtory and allegory. He died at Paris, 1734, aged 80.

(3.) BOULLOGNE, or BOULLONNE, } Lewis DE, painter to the French king, and profeſſor of the academy of painting, diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his art; and died at Paris, in 167; aged 65. There are three of his pictures in the church of Notre Dame. He left two ſons. See No. 1. and 2.

BOULNEHERST, a village in Bedfordſhire near Thurley.

BOULNESS, a village in Cumberland, on the Solway Frith, where, by croſſing the ſands, between Scotland and England, at low water, paſſengers ſave a circuit of many miles. At this place was the ancient termination of the Picts Wall.

BOULOGNE. See BOLOGNE.

BOULOGNOIS. See BOLOGNOIS.

BOULSTON, a village in Herefordſhire, E. of Aconbury.

* *To* BOULT. *v. a.* See *To* BOLT.

BOULTER, Hugh, D. D. was born in or near London, of reputable and wealthy parents. Before the Revolution, he was admitted a commoner of Chriſt church in Oxford. Some time after, he was choſen a demy of Magdalen college, at the ſame election with Mr Addiſon and Dr Wilcox. From the merit and learning of the perſons elected, this was commonly called by Dr Hough, preſident of the college, the *golden election*. He was invited to London by Sir Charles Hodges, principal ſecretary of ſtate, in 1700, who made him his chaplain, and recommended him to Dr Teniſon, archbiſhop of Canterbury. By the influence of the E. of Sunderland, he was promoted to the parſonage of St Olave in Southwark, and the archdeaconry of Surry; where he continued diſcharging faithfully his paſtoral office, till he was recommended to attend K. George I. as his chaplain, when he went to Hanover in 1719. He taught prince Frederic the Engliſh language; and by his conduct ſo won the king's favour, that he promoted him to be dean of Chriſt-church, and biſhop of Briſtol. Five years afterwards, he received a letter from the ſecretary of ſtate, acquainting him that the king had nominated him archbiſhop of Armagh and primate of Ireland. This honour he would gladly have declined; and deſired the ſecretary to uſe his good offices with his majeſty to excuſe him from accepting it. Ireland happened to be at this juncture in a great flame, occaſioned by Wood's ruinous project; and the miniſtry thought that the biſhop would greatly contribute to quench it by his judgment, moderation, and addreſs. The king therefore laid his abſolute commands upon him; to which he at laſt ſubmitted. When he had taken poſſeſſion of the primacy, he began to conſider that country, in which his lot was caſt for life, as his own; and to promote

mote his true intereſt with the greateſt zeal and aſſiduity. Accordingly, in innumerable inſtances, he exerted himſelf in the nobleſt acts of beneficence and public ſpirit. In ſeaſons of the greateſt ſcarcity, he was more than once inſtrumental in preventing a famine. On one of theſe occaſions he diſtributed vaſt quantities of corn throughout the kingdom, for which the Houſe of Commons paſſed a vote of public thanks; and at another time 1500 perſons were fed at the poor houſe in Dublin, every morning, and as many every evening, for a conſiderable time together, moſtly at the primate's expence. When ſchemes were propoſed for the advantage of the country, he encouraged and promoted them not only with his counſel but his purſe. He had great compaſſion for the poor clergy of his dioceſe, who were diſabled from giving their children a proper education; and he maintained ſeveral of the children of ſuch in the univerſity. He erected 4 houſes at Drogheda for the reception of clergymen's widows, and purchaſed an eſtate for the endowment of them. His charities for augmenting ſmall livings and buying glebes amounted to upwards of 30,000 l. beſides what he deviſed by will for the like purpoſes in England. In ſhort, the inſtances he gave of his generoſity, benevolence, virtue, piety, and wiſdom, are almoſt innumerable; and the hiſtory of his life is his nobleſt panegyric. This excellent prelate died at London, on the 2d of June, 1742, and was interred in Weſtminſter-abbey, where a beautiful monument of finely poliſhed marble is erected to his memory.

BOULTERS. See BOLTERS, N° 2.

BOULTHAM, a village S. W. of Lincoln.

BOULTINE, in architecture, a convex moulding, of one fourth of a circle; placed below the plinth in the Tuſcan and Doric capital.

BOULTING. See BOLTING, § 2 & 3.

BOULTON, Edmund. See BOLTON, N° 17.

BOULUKE, in the military orders of the Turks, a body of the janizaries, with an officer in the place of a colonel at their head, ſent upon ſome particular enterprize. They are ſelected out of the body, and as ſoon as the buſineſs is over, are received again into their former companies.

(1.) BOUM, in ancient geography, a town in Ethiopia beyond Egypt, on the W. ſide of the Nile.

(2.) BOUM SOLIS STABULA, in ancient geography, the territory of Mylæ, a peninſula on the E. coaſt of Sicily, N. of Syracuſe; remarkable for its fertility and rich paſtures: whence aroſe the fable of the oxen of the ſun feeding there. Pliny and Seneca ſay, that ſomething like dung is thrown out on the coaſt of Mylæ and Meſſana, which gave riſe to the fable of the oxen of the ſun being ſtalled there; and the inhabitants ſtill affirm the ſame thing.

(1.) BOUNCE, in ichthyology, the Engliſh name of a ſpecies of ſqualus. See SQUALUS.

(2.) * BOUNCE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A ſtrong ſudden blow.—

The *bounce* burſt ope the door; the ſcornful fair
Relentleſs look'd. *Dryden.*

2. A ſudden crack or noiſe.—

What cannoneer begot this luſty blood?
He ſpeaks plain cannon fire, and ſmoke, and *bounce!*
He gives the baſtinado with his tongue. *Shakeſ.*

Two hazel-nuts I threw into the flame,
And to each nut I gave a ſweetheart's name;
This with the loudeſt *bounce* me ſore amaz'd,
That in a flame of brighteſt colour blaz'd. *Gay.*

3. A boaſt; a threat: in low language.

* *To* BOUNCE. *v. n.* [a word formed, ſays *Skinner*, from the ſound.] 1. To fall or fly againſt any thing with great force, ſo as to rebound.—

The fright awaken'd Arcite with a ſtart,
Againſt his boſom *bounc'd* his heaving heart.
Dryden.

2. To ſpring; to make a ſudden leap; a ſudden exploſion.—High nonſenſe is like beer in a bottle, which has, in reality, no ſtrength and ſpirit, but frets, and flies, and *bounces*, and imitates the paſſions of a much nobler liquour. *Addiſon.*—

They *bounce* from their neſt,
No longer will tarry. *Swift.*

Out *bounc'd* the maſtiff of the triple head;
Away the hare with double ſwiftneſs fled. *Swift.*

3. To make a ſudden noiſe.—Juſt as I was putting out my light, another *bounces* as hard as he can knock. *Swift.* 4. To boaſt; to bully: a ſenſe only uſed in familiar ſpeech. 5. To be bold, or ſtrong.—

Forſooth the *bouncing* Amazon,
Your buſkin'd miſtreſs, and your warriour love,
To Theſeus muſt be wedded. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BOUNCER. *n. ſ.* [from *bounce.*] A boaſter; a bully; an empty threatener: in colloquial ſpeech.

(1.) * BOUND. *adj.* [a word of doubtful etymology.] Deſtined; intending to come to any place.

His be that care, whom moſt it doth concern,
Said he; but whither with ſuch haſty flight
Art thou now *bound?* for well might I diſcern
Great cauſe, that carries thee ſo ſwift and light.
Fairy Queen.

—To be *bound* for a port one defires extremely, and ſail to it, with a fair gale, is very pleaſant. *Temple.*—

Willing we ſought your ſhores, and hither *bound*,
The port ſo long deſir'd, at length we found.
Dryden.

(2.) * BOUND. *n. ſ.* [from *bind.*] 1. A limit; a boundary; that by which any thing is terminated.

Illimitable ocean! without *bound;*
Without dimenſion; where length, breadth, and height,
And time, and place, are loſt. *Milton.*

—Thoſe vaſt Scythian regions were ſeparated by the natural *bounds*, of rivers, lakes, mountains, woods, or marſhes. *Temple.*—

Indus and Ganges, our wide empire's *bounds*,
Swell their dy'd currents with their natives wounds. *Dryden.*

Through all th' infernal *bounds*,
Which flaming Phlegethon ſurrounds,
Sad Orpheus ſought his conſort loſt. *Pope.*

2. A limit by which any excurſion is reſtrained.—

Hath he ſet *bounds* between their love and me?
I am their mother, who ſhall bar me from them?
Shakeſpeare.

Stronger and fiercer by reſtraint he roars,
And knows no *bound*, but makes his pow'r his ſhores. *Denham.*

—Any

—Any *bounds* made with body, even adamantine walls, are far from putting a ſtop to the mind, in its progreſs in ſpace. *Locke.* 3. [from *To bound*, *v. n.*] A leap; a jump; a ſpring.—

Do but note a wild and wanton herd,
Or race of youthful and unhandled colts,
Fetching mad *bounds*, bellowing, and neighing loud. *Shakeſpeare.*

The horſes ſtarted with a ſudden *bound*,
And flung the reins and chariot to the ground. *Addiſon.*

Dext'rous he 'ſcapes the coach with nimble *bounds*,
Whilſt ev'ry honeſt tongue Stop thief reſounds. *Gay.*

4. A rebound; the leap of ſomething flying back by the force of the blow.—Theſe inward diſguſts are but the firſt *bound* of this ball of contention. *Decay of Piety.*

(3.) BOUND, in dancing, a ſpring from one foot to the other; by which it differs from a hop, where the ſpring is from one foot to the ſame. It alſo differs from a half coupee, as in the latter the body always bears on the floor, either on one foot or the other; whereas, in the bound, it is thrown quite from the floor.

(4.) * BOUND. *preterite* and *part. paſſive* of *bind*.—Nay, ſaid Pamela, none ſhall take that office from myſelf, being ſo much *bound* as I am for my education. *Sidney.*—

This is Antonio,
To whom I am ſo infinitely *bound*.—
—You ſhould in all ſenſe be much *bound* to him;
For, as I hear, he was much *bound* for you. *Shakeſpeare.*

The gentleman is learn'd, a moſt rare ſpeaker,
To nature none more *bound*. *Shakeſpeare.*

—The biſhops of Hungary, being wonderfully rich, were *bound* to keep great numbers of horſemen, which they uſed to bring into the field. *Knolles.*—They ſummoned the governor to deliver it to them, or elſe they would not leave one ſtone upon another. To which the governor made no other reply, than that he was not *bound* to repair it; but, however, he would, by God's help, keep the ground afterwards. *Clarendon.*

(5.) BOUND BAILIFFS. See BAILIFFS, § 3.

(6.) BOUNDS OF LANDS. See ABUTALS, and ABUTTAL.

(1.) * *To* BOUND. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To limit; to terminate.—

A lofty tow'r, and ſtrong on every ſide,
With treble walls, which Phlegethon ſurrounds,
Whoſe fiery flood the burning empire *bounds*. *Dryden.*

2. To reſtrain; to confine.—

Take but degree away,
The *bounded* waters
Would lift their boſoms higher than the ſhores,
And make a ſop of all this ſolid globe. *Shakeſp.*

3. Sometimes with *in*.—

My mother's blood
Runs on the dexter cheek, and this ſiniſter
Bounds in my ſire's. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) * *To* BOUND. *v. a.* To make to bound.—If I might buffet for my love, or *bound* my horſe for her favours, I would lay on like a butcher, and ſit like a jackanapes, never off. *Shakeſp.*—

If love, ambitious, ſought a match of birth
Whoſe veins *bound* richer blood than lady Blanch *Shakeſpeare*

(3.) * *To* BOUND. *v. n.* [*bondir*, Fr.] 1. To jump; to ſpring; to move forward by leaps.—

Torriſmond appear'd,
Gave me his hand, and led me lightly o'er,
Leaping and *bounding* on the billows heads. *Dryd*

Before his lord the ready ſpaniel *bounds*,
Panting with hope, he tries the furrow'd grounds *Pope*

When ſudden thro' the woods a *bounding* ſtag
Ruſh'd headlong down, and plung'd amidſt the river. *Rowe*

Warbling to the vary'd ſtrain, advance
Two ſprightly youths, to form the *bounding* dance. *Pope*

2. To rebound; to fly back by repercuſſion.—

Mark then a *bounding* valour in our Engliſh,
That being dead, like to the bullets grazing,
Breaks out into a ſecond courſe of miſchief. *Shakeſpeare*

* BOUNDARY. *n. ſ.* [from *bound*.] Limit; bound.—He ſuffers the confluence and clamours of the people to paſs all *boundaries* of laws, and reverence to his authority. *K. Charles.*—Senſation and reflection are the *boundaries* of our thoughts; beyond which the mind, whatever efforts it would make, is not able to advance. *Locke.*—Great part of our ſins conſiſt in the irregularities attending the ordinary purſuits of life; ſo that our reformation muſt appear, by purſuing them within the *boundaries* of duty. *Rogers.*

* BOUNDEN. *part. paſſive* of *bind*. Not now much in uſe.—

Hereafter, in a better world than this,
I ſhall deſire more love and knowledge of you.—
—I reſt muſt *bounden* to you: fare you well. *Shakeſpeare.*

—We alſo moſt humbly beſought him to accept of us as his true ſervants, by as juſt a right as ever men on earth were *bounden*. *Bacon.*—To be careful for a proviſion of all neceſſaries for ourſelves, and thoſe who depend on us, is a *bounden* duty. *Rogers.*

* BOUNDING-STONE. BOUND-STONE. *n. ſ.* A ſtone to play with.—

I am paſt a boy;
A ſceptre's but a play-thing, and a globe
A bigger *bounding-ſtone*. *Dryden*

* BOUNDLESS. *adj.* [from *bound*.] Unlimited; unconfined; immeaſurable; illimitable.—

Beyond the infinite and *boundleſs* reach
Of mercy, if thou didſt this deed of death,
Art thou damn'd, Hubert. *Shakeſpeare*

Heav'n has of right all victory deſign'd;
Whence *boundleſs* power dwells in a will confin'd. *Dryden*

—Man ſeems as *boundleſs* in his deſires, as God in his being; and therefore nothing but God himſelf can ſatisfy him. *South.*—Though we muſt duration *boundleſs* as it is, we cannot extend beyond all being. God fills eternity, and it is hard to find a reaſon, why one ſhould doubt that he fills immenſity. *Locke.*—

Some guide the courſe of wand'ring orbs on high,
Or roll the planets thro' the *boundleſs* ſky. *Pope*

* BOUNDLESSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *boundleſs.*] Exemption from limits.—God has corrected the *boundleſſneſs* of his voluptuous deſires, by ſtinting his capacities. *South.*

* BOUND-STONE. See BOUNDING-STONE.

* BOUNTEOUS. *adj.* [from *bounty.*] Liberal; kind; generous; munificent; beneficent: a word now chiefly in poetry for *bountiful.*—

Every one,
According to the gift, which *bounteous* nature
Hath in him clos'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

Her ſoul abhorring avarice,
Bounteous; but almoſt *bounteous* to a vice. *Dryd.*

* BOUNTEOUSLY. *adv.* [from *bounteous.*] Liberally; generouſly; largely.—

He *bounteouſly* beſtow'd unenvy'd good
On me. *Dryden.*

* BOUNTEOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bounteous.*] Munificence; liberality; kindneſs.—He filleth all things living with *bounteouſneſs. Pſalms.*

* BOUNTIFUL. *adj.* [from *bounty* and *full.*] 1. Liberal; generous; munificent.—

As *bountiful* as mines of India. *Shakeſp.*

—If you will be rich, you muſt live frugal; if you will be popular, you muſt be *bountiful. Taylor.*—I am obliged to return my thanks to many, who, without conſidering the man, have been *bountiful* to the poet. *Dryden.*—God, the *bountiful* author of our being. *Locke.* 2. It has *of* before the thing given, and *to* before the perſon receiving.—Our king ſpares nothing, to give them the ſhare of that felicity, *of* which he is ſo *bountiful to* his kingdom. *Dryden.*

* BOUNTIFULLY. *adv.* [from *bountiful.*] Liberally; in a bountiful manner; largely.—

And now thy alms is given,
And thy poor ſtarv'ling *bountifully* fed. *Donne.*

—It is affirm'd, that it never raineth in Egypt; the river *bountifully* requiting it in its inundation. *Vulgar Errours.*

* BOUNTIFULNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bountiful.*] The quality of being bountiful; generoſity.—Enriched to all *bountifulneſs. 2 Corinthians.*

* BOUNTIHEAD. } *n. ſ.* [from *bounty* and
* BOUNTIHEDE. } *head*, or *hood.* See HOOD.]
* BOUNTIHOOD. } Goodneſs; virtue. It is now wholly out of uſe.—

This goodly frame of temperance,
Formerly grounded, and faſt ſettled
On firm foundation of true *bountihead.*
Fairy Queen.

How ſhall frail pen, with fear diſparaged,
Conceive ſuch ſovereign glory, and great *bountihood. Fairy Queen.*

(1.) * BOUNTY. *n. ſ.* [*bonté*, Fr.] 1. Generoſity; liberality; munificence.—We do not ſo far magnify her exceeding *bounty*, as to affirm, that ſhe bringeth into the world the ſons of men, adorned with gorgeous attire. *Hooker.*—

If you knew to whom you ſhew this honour,
I know you would be prouder of the work,
Than cuſtomary *bounty* can enforce you. *Shak.*

Such moderation with thy *bounty* join,
That thou may'ſt nothing give, that is not thine.
Denham.

Thoſe godlike men, to wanting virtue kind,
Bounty well plac'd preferr'd, and well deſign'd,
To all their titles. *Dryden.*

griculture; and the conſequence hath been, that 2. It ſeems diſtinguiſhed from charity, as a *preſent* from an *alms;* being uſed, when perſons, not abſolutely neceſſitous, receive gifts; or when gifts are given by great perſons.—Tell a miſer of *bounty* to a friend, or mercy to the poor, and he will not underſtand it. *South.*—Her majeſty did not ſee this aſſembly ſo proper to excite charity and compaſſion; though I queſtion not but her royal *bounty* will extend itſelf to them. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BOUNTY, in commerce, a premium paid by government to the exporters of certain Britiſh commodities, as ſail cloth, gold and ſilver lace, ſilk-ſtockings, fiſh, corn, &c. The happy influence which bounties have on trade and manufactures is well known; nor can there be a more convincing proof of the good intentions of the Britiſh government, than the great care that is taken to give all poſſible encouragement to thoſe who ſhall eſtabliſh or improve any hazardous branch of manufacture or commerce. All undertakings, in reſpect either to mercantile enterpriſes, or in the eſtabliſhment of manufactures, are weak and feeble in their beginnings; and if unſucceſsful, either ſink entirely, or at leaſt are ſeldom revived in the ſame age. Accidents of this nature are not only deſtructive to private perſons, but exceedingly detrimental to the public intereſt. On this principle, more eſpecially ſince trade has been cultivated, ſuch attempts have been thought deſerving, and have been favoured with public ſupport. This in former times uſually flowed from the crown, in the form of letters patent, charters, or other grants of privileges, which, however requiſite they might be, were notwithſtanding very frequently objects of cenſure. If ſuch as obtained them failed in their endeavours, they were reputed *projectors;* if, on the other hand, they ſucceeded, they were conſidered as *monopolizers.* Corporations, which imply the uniting certain individuals into a body, that they may thereby become more uſeful to the *community*, were alſo created by the crown with this view. Many of theſe were formed for promoting trade; and, according to the old ſyſtem of our government, were thought neceſſary and uſeful. But they are now degenerated into ſo many ſyſtems of monopoly, and tend only to be of ſervice to the individuals that compoſe theſe ſmall bodies. On the ſame principle, privileges were granted to private perſons, thinking, that what was immediately of uſe to them would terminate in public utility. Theſe alſo did good in bringing in many arts and manufactures; though, in ſome caſes, tending to private intereſt more than public emolument, they were liable to legal correction. In later times, and in concerns of moment, a much better method has been adopted, as often as it hath been found practicable, by rejecting private or particular intereſt, and propoſing the deſigned advantages, to ſuch as ſhould perform the ſtipulations on which they are granted. Theſe bounties, as they are paid by the public, ſo they are ſolely calculated for the benefit of the public. They are ſometimes given to encourage induſtry and application in raiſing a neceſſary commodity; which was intended by the bounty on exporting corn. The intention of this bounty was to encourage a-

we now grow more than twice as much as we did at the eſtabliſhment of the bounty; we even conſume twice as much bread as we then grew: yet in A. D. 1697, we exported a 15th part of what we grew, of late years a 29th part only. The bounty on this 29th part amounted to ſomewhat more than 50,000 l. and the produce to more than 400,000 l. It is evident that all this is ſo much clear gain to the nation. But this is far from being all that we have annually gained. For if our cultivation is doubled, as indeed it is, then the rent of lands, the ſubſiſtence of working hands, the profits of the tradeſmen ſupplying them with utenſils, clothes, the value of horſes employed, &c. muſt all be taken into the account. To theſe we muſt add the freight, amounting to half the bounty, to form a complete idea of the advantages gained. Bounties are alſo occaſionally given with a view to promote manufactures, as in the caſe of thoſe made of ſilk. Many laws are to be found in our ſtatute books in favour of the ſilk manufacture, made with great wiſdom and propriety, for the encouragement and ſupport of many thouſands of induſtrious perſons employed therein. By ſtatute 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. § 1. a bounty was given on the due exportation of ribbons and ſtuffs, of ſilk only, of 3 s. upon a pound weight; ſilks, and ribbons of ſilk, mixed with gold and ſilver, 4 s. a pound; on ſilk gloves, ſilk ſtockings, ſilk fringes, ſilk laces, and ſewing ſilk, 1 s. 3 d. a pound; on ſtuffs of ſilk and grogram yarn, 8 d. a pound; on ſilks mixed with incle or cotton, 1 s. a pound; on ſtuffs of ſilk mixed with worſted, 6 d. a pound, for 3 years: and, from experience of their utility, theſe were continued by ſubſequent acts. Sometimes bounties are given to ſupport a new manufacture againſt foreigners already in poſſeſſion of it, as in making linen and ſail-cloth. The promoting of the manufacture of Britiſh ſail-cloth was undoubtedly a very important national object, as the conſumption was very large, and of conſequence the purchaſe of it from foreigners an heavy expence on the public. Many methods were therefore deviſed, and countenanced by law, both here and in Ireland, for introducing and encouraging our own in preference to that of ſtrangers, more eſpecially in the royal navy. By ſtat. 12 Ann, cap. 16. § 2. a bounty was given of one penny per ell on all that was exported for a term, and continued by ſubſequent ſtatutes. By 4 Geo. II. cap. 27. § 4. an additional bounty of another penny an ell is granted. Theſe bounties were to be paid out of an additional duty on imported ſail-cloth. By the ſame ſtatute every ſhip built in Britain, or in the plantations, is under the penalty of 50 l. to be furniſhed with a complete ſuit of ſails of Britiſh manufacture. The amount of theſe bounties marks the progreſs of the manufacture, which is alſo aſſiſted by the fund on which the payment is aſſigned. Theſe bounties, however, are never beſtowed but on mature deliberation, in virtue of ſtrong proofs, and with a moral certainty of a national benefit. The great intention of bounties is to place the Britiſh trader on ſuch ground as to render his commerce beneficial to his country. In order to this, ſome profit muſt accrue to himſelf, otherwiſe he would not embar[illegible] this, whatever it be, muſt prove inconſiderable in compariſon of what reſults to the public. For if, by the help of ſuch a bounty, one or many traders export to the value of 1000, 10,000, or 100,000 pounds worth of commodities or manufactures, whatever his or their profit or loſs (for the latter, through avidity and overloading the market, ſometimes happens,) may be, the nation gains the 1000, 10,000, or 100,000 pounds; which was the object of the legiſlature in granting the bounty. Upon this conſideration, that the entire produce of what is exported accrues to the nation, the legiſlature, when an alteration of circumſtances required it, have made no ſcruple of augmenting a bounty; as in the caſe of refined ſugar exported, from 3 s. to 9 s. per hundred weight. In like manner, the original bounty of 1 l. per ton in favour of veſſels employed in the whale fiſhing hath been doubled, and many new regulations made, in order to render this fiſhery more advantageous to the public. As a bounty is given on malt when allowed to be exported, ſo an equivalent of 3 s. per ton hath been granted on all Britiſh made malt ſpirits when exported, which is a common benefit to land, manufactures and commerce. It muſt be admitted indeed, that on whatever account, or to whatever amount, this reward is given, the public ſeem to pay, and private perſons ſeem to receive. But theſe private perſons receive it as the hire from the public, for performing a ſervice which otherwiſe they would not perform, the benefit of which accrues to the public, and who can therefore very well afford to pay that reward in reality, which, in fact, they only ſeem to do. For, the bounty is paid to individuals, who, as ſuch, make a part of the public. But the commodities or manufactures exported are ſold to foreigners; and the whole produce of them, be it what it will, comes into the purſe of the public. By attending to this ſelf-evident doctrine, every reaſonable and public-ſpirited man will be eaſily reconciled to bounties; and the 3 following conſiderations will be ſufficient to obviate the moſt common objections that have been made to the practice of giving them. 1. That no bounty can be deſired but on the plea of national utility, which always deſerves notice, and cannot be miſtaken. It muſt likewiſe be alledged and proved, that this is the only means whereby the national benefit can be attained. 2. The ſums iſſued on this account not only ſhow the clear expence of the bounty, but alſo indicate the profit gained by the public; for as the one cannot exiſt without the other, that amount muſt be the inconteſtable index of both. 3. It muſt be remembered (and of this too ſome inſtances might be given), that if bounties ſhould be improperly beſtowed, they will of courſe prove ineffectual, and after a few fruitleſs trials will remain unclaimed, and conſequently produce no expence. There is indeed another objection which hath been made againſt the giving of bounties. This is grounded on the frauds to which they are ſuppoſed to be liable; and particularly the relanding of the goods on which the bounty hath been paid, and thereby deceiving and cheating the public. But whoever purſues the laws made on this head, and attentively conſiders the numerous precautions taken

to

to fix every circumſtance relative to the obtaining of the bounty, the checks on the ſhipping of goods, the ſecurities taken for their due exportation, the certificates required to aſcertain their being actually delivered and ſold in a foreign market, muſt be convinced, that to diſcharge all thoſe ſecurities, in caſe of an intended fraud, is a thing very difficult, if not altogether impracticable. To theſe remarks we may add, that bounties are uſually granted only for a limited time; are always liable to be ſuſpended; and of courſe can never be the great cauſe of any great national loſs. There is no doubt that, excluſive of frauds, the immoderate thirſt of gain may tempt intereſted men to aim at converting what was calculated for public benefit to its detriment, for their own private advantage. Thus, on a proſpect of ſhort crops in other countries, men may take meaſures within the letter, but directly againſt the ſpirit, of the law, to ſend ſo much of our corn abroad, as to endanger a famine at home. For this the wiſdom of parliament provides, not barely by ſuſpending the bounty, but by prohibiting exportation and opening the ports for foreign ſupplies. We cannot with any ſhadow of juſtice aſcribe ſcarcity to the bounty on the exportation. If this was the caſe, ſuſpenſions would be frequent, whereas there have been but 5 in a courſe of 70 years. If the bounty had any ſhare, the larger the exportation, the greater would be the ſcarcity. In A. D. 1750 we exported more than one fifth of our growth of wheat, which was notwithſtanding but at 4 ſhillings per buſhel; whereas a century before, A. D. 1650, when we had neither bounty nor exportation, wheat was at 9s and 6d per buſhel. The cauſes of ſcarcity are unkindly ſeaſons; which though human policy cannot prevent, yet their ſad effects have been evidently leſſened by our increaſed growth, ſince the bounty and exportation were allowed by law.

(3.) BOUNTY OF QUEEN ANNE, for augmenting poor livings under 50l. *per annum*, conſiſts of the produce of the firſt fruits and tenths, after the charges and penſions payable out of the ſame are defrayed. A corporation for management of the ſame was ſettled, &c. in 1704. See AUGMENTATION, § 4.

(1.) BOURBON, Nicholas, a famous Latin poet in the 16th century, was a native of Vandeure near Langres, and the ſon of a wealthy ſmith. Margaret de Valois appointed him preceptor to her daughter Jane d'Albret of Navarre, the mother of king Henry IV. At length he retired to Conde, where he had a benefice, and died about 1550. He wrote 8 books of Epigrams; and a poem on the forge, intitled *Ferraria*. He had great knowledge of antiquity and of the Greek language. Eraſmus praiſes his epigrams.

(2.) BOURBON, Nicholas, a celebrated Greek and Latin poet, was nephew of the preceding. (N. 1.) He taught rhetoric in ſeveral colleges of Paris; and cardinal Perron got him appointed profeſſor of eloquence in the Royal College: he was alſo canon of Langres, and one of the 40 of the French academy. He died in 1644, aged 70. He is eſteemed one of the greateſt Latin poets France has produced. His poems were printed at Paris in 1630.

(3.) BOURBON, a ſmall county of the United States, in Kentucky, bounded on the S. E. by Clarke county; on the S. W. by Fayette; N. by Harriſon, and N. W. by Scott county. Bourbontown is the chief town.

(4.) BOURBON, a river of N. America, in Labrador, which iſſues from Lake Chriſtianaux, paſſes through lake Aſſenipolis, and falls into Hudſon's Bay at York Factory.

(5.) BOURBON, or MASCARENHAS, an iſland in the Indian ocean, lying 300 m. E. of Madagaſcar. It is about 60 m. long and 45 broad. It is in ſome places inacceſſible, and has no port, but has many good roads for ſhipping, particularly on the W. and N. E. It is for the moſt part mountainous, but in ſome places there are very beautiful and fertile plains. In the S. E. part of the iſland there is a volcano, which has long thrown out vaſt quantities of bitumen, ſulphur, and other combuſtible materials; ſo that the country about it is uſeleſs, and is called by the inhabitants *pays brule*, that is, burnt land. The ſhore is high and rocky all around; and the form of the land is irregular. The air is equally pleaſant and wholeſome. The people live to a great age, without feeling either infirmities or diſeaſes. The hurricanes, of which they have one or two every year, purify the air, ſo as to render it highly ſalubrious. When theſe fail of making their annual viſits, as they ſometimes do, diſeaſes occur and cut off many of the inhabitants, who would otherwiſe ſoon overſtock the iſland. The climate is hot, but not to ſuch a degree as might be expected from its ſituation, the breezes from the mountains being conſtant and refreſhing. The tops of theſe mountains are in winter covered with ſnow; which, melting in ſummer, furniſhes abundance of rivulets, with which the country is plentifully watered: ſo that the ſoil, though not very deep, is wonderfully fruitful, producing Turkey corn and rice twice a-year; and the latter in great abundance. Moſt ſorts of cattle are found here, good in their kind, and very cheap; wild goats and wild hogs are found in the woods and on the tops of the mountains; alſo vaſt quantities of wild fowl of different kinds, fiſh, and land tortoiſes, affording at once the moſt delicate and wholeſome food. This iſland produces bananas, oranges, citrons, tamarinds, and other fruits; alſo ebony, cotton, white pepper, gum benzoin, aloes, and tobacco; all excellent in their kind. No venomous animals are to be found in it, and only two ſorts that are diſagreeable to the ſight, *viz.* ſpiders of the ſize of a pigeon's egg, which weave nets of a ſurpriſing ſtrength, reckoned by ſome capable of being treated ſo as to become as valuable as ſilk; and bats of a moſt enormous ſize, which are not only eaten, but eſteemed a very great delicacy. This iſland was diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1545, as appears by a date inſcribed by them upon a pillar when they firſt landed; but when the French ſettled in Madagaſcar, this iſland was totally deſolate. Three Frenchmen being baniſhed thither, and left there for 3 years, made ſuch a report of it at their return as ſurpriſed their countrymen. They lived moſt of that time upon pork; and though they were in a manner naked, yet they affirmed that they never had the leaſt

pain

pain or ſickneſs whatever. This tempted one Anthony Taureau to go over in 1654, accompanied by 7 whites and 6 negroes, who carried with them the cattle from which the iſland has been ſtocked ever ſince. The firſt thing they did was to erect the arms of France, by order of Mr Falcourt who was governor of Madagaſcar, and to give the iſland the name of *Bourbon*. They then ſet up huts, and laid out gardens, in which they cultivated melons, different ſorts of roots, and tobacco: but juſt as the laſt became ripe, the whole plantation was deſtroyed by a hurricane. The French, however, went to work again; and having now ſome acquaintance with the climate, ſucceeded better, and added aloes to the reſt of their plantations; but receiving no ſuccour from Madagaſcar, and being tired of living by themſelves, they embraced the offer of an Engliſh captain, and in 1658 embarked for Madraſs. When the laſt great blow was given to the French at Madagaſcar by the natives, who ſurpriſed and cut them off in one night, there eſcaped as many men, as with their wives, who were natives, filled two canoes; and theſe being driven by the wind on the iſle of Bourbon, were the next ſet of people who inhabited it. This laſt colony, having no opportunity to remove, remained in this iſland and cultivated it. Soon after an additional ſtock of inhabitants arrived. A pirate who had been committing depredations in the Indies, returning to Europe, ran aſhore, and his ſhip being ſplit to pieces upon the rocks, the crew were glad to join the former inhabitants; and as they had a great many Indian women whom they had made priſoners, they lived with them, and in proceſs of time had a numerous poſterity. As Eaſt India ſhips touched frequently at this iſland, when too late to double the Cape, many of the ſailors, for the ſake of the women, deſerted, and ſtaying behind became planters in the iſle of Bourbon. As the place grew more populous, the people became more civilized, and deſirous of living in a more commodious manner; which induced them to build ſmall veſſels, that they might make a trip to Madagaſcar, and to purchaſe ſlaves, whom they employed in their plantations to cultivate aloes, tobacco, and other things, with which they drove a ſmall trade, when ſhips anchored in their roads for the ſake of refreſhments. In this ſituation they were, when the French Eaſt India company put in their claim; and aſſuming their property of the iſland, ſent thither five or ſix families and a governor. At firſt the inhabitants expected to reap ſome benefit from their new maſters; but finding very little, and thinking the governor took too much upon him, they revolted at the inſtigation of a prieſt, ſeized their governor and put him into a dungeon, where he died of hunger and grief. For this ſome of the ringleaders were puniſhed, a kind of fort was erected, ſome guns placed on it, and the French flag kept flying; but in other reſpects, ſo little care was taken, that, till within theſe 10 years, the iſland was in no ſtate of defence. The number of inhabitants, in 1717, was computed at 2000; viz. 900 free, and 1100 ſlaves. It is difficult to diſtinguiſh theſe by their complexions, for even the free are of different colours: and a French writer aſſures us, that he ſaw in a church one family, conſiſting of 6 generations, of all complexions. The eldeſt was a female, 108 years of age, of a brown black, like the Indians of Madagaſcar; her daughter, a mulatto; her grand daughter, a meſtizo; her great grand-daughter, of a dusky yellow; her daughter, again, of an olive colour; and the daughter of this laſt, as fair as any Engliſh girl of the ſame age. Theſe people are, generally ſpeaking, of a gentle quiet diſpoſition; very induſtrious; and ſubmiſſive enough to authority, provided it is exerciſed with a tolerable degree of equity and decency; for otherwiſe the whole of them are apt to riſe in rebellion at once; and the ſlaves have ſo little reaſon to complain of their maſters, that they are always on the ſame ſide. The iſland is divided into 4 quarters. The firſt is that of St Paul, which is the largeſt and beſt peopled: their houſes are built at the foot of a ſteep mountain, on both ſides of a freſh water lake. The plantations are on the top of a mountain, which they aſcend by a very rough and troubleſome paſſage. On the ſummit there is a ſpacious plain, a great part of which is divided into plantations of rice, tobacco, corn, ſugar, and fruits. The quarter of St Dennis, where the governor reſides, lies 7 leagues E. from that of St Paul. It is not ſo well peopled as the former; but the country is more pleaſant, and the ſituation better. At two leagues diſtance, along the ſea coaſt, lies St Mary's, which is but thinly peopled. The laſt and moſt fertile quarter is that of St Suſannah, which is 4 leagues from St Dennis. When the India company became poſſeſſed of Bourbon, they began to improve it greatly, erecting new forts and batteries, and importing coffee trees from Arabia, which have ſucceeded ſo well, that it is believed they produce a 6th part as much coffee as is raiſed in the kingdom of Yemen in Arabia, and it is likewiſe held next to it in goodneſs to that.—In 1763, the population amounted to 4627 white people, and 11140 blacks; the cattle conſiſted of 8702 brevets, 4084 horſes, 7405 goats, and 7619 hogs. Upon an extent of 125,909 acres of cultivated land, they gathered as much caſſava as would feed their ſlaves, 2,113,600 pounds weight of corn, 844,100 pounds of rice, 2 879,100 pounds of maize, and 2,535,100 pounds of coffee; which laſt the company bought up at about 3 d. per pound. In 1748, Admiral Boſcawen appeared before this iſland with a Britiſh fleet; but found it ſo well fortified both by nature and art, that he was obliged, after ſome cannonading to very little purpoſe, to purſue his voyage. Lon. 55. 10. E. Lat. 20. 32. N.

(6.) BOURBON, HOUSE OF, before the eſtabliſhment of the republican conſtitution, was the royal family of France. Henry IV. in 1589, though of the 10th generation, was the neareſt heir to the crown, on the death of Henry III. (the laſt of the Valois race,) whoſe brother Francis II. married Mary Queen of Scots; both theſe kings having died without iſſue. Louis XVI. who was dethroned and beheaded, was the 5th king of the Bourbon houſe in ſucceſſion. This family alſo mounted the throne of Spain in 1700, in the ſucceſſion of Philip V. grandſon to Louis XIV. which was the occaſion of the long and bloody war, that ended in the peace of Utrecht. A branch of this

Spaniſh

Spaniſh family likewiſe aſcended the throne of the Two Sicilies in 1734. Theſe three branches entered into a treaty offenſive and defenſive in 1761, which went by the name of the *family compact*, but which the new order of things in Europe has nearly annihilated.

BOURBON LANCI, a town of France, in the department of Saone and Loire, and late province of Burgundy. It is remarkable for its caſtle and hot mineral waters; and has a large marble pavement, called the Great Bath, which is a work of the Romans. It is 15 miles S. W. of Autun. Lon. 4. 6. E. Lat. 46. 47. N.

BOURBON L'ARCHAMBAUD, a ſmall town of France, in the department of Allier, and late province of Bourbonnois. It is ſituated in a bottom, near the river Allier, and is remarkable for its hot baths, and for giving name to the family of the late unfortunate king of France. It is 12 miles W. of Moulins, and 362 S. of Paris. Lon. 3. 5. E. Lat. 46. 35. N.

BOURBON, P. D. of Orleans. See EGALITE.

BOURBONNE-LE-BAINS, a town of France, in the department of Upper Marne and late province of Champagne, famous for its hot baths. It is 17 miles E. of Langres. Lon. 5. 45. E. Lat. 47. 54. N.

BOURBONNOIS, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the N. by Nivernois and Berry; on the W. by Berry and part of Marche; on the S. by Auvergne, and on the E. by Burgundy and Forez. It is watered by the Loire, the Allier and the Chur; and abounds in corn, fruit, paſture, wood, game, and wine. It now forms the department of Allier.

BOURBON TOWN, a poſt town of Kentucky, and capital of the county of BOURBON, (N. 35.) ſeated on the W. ſide of the river Stony-fork. It is a flouriſhing town, and contains above 60 houſes, a baptiſt church, a court houſe, and jail; and has ſeveral variable mills adjacent to it. It lies 20 m. N. E. of Lexington, 60 E. of Frankfort, and 574 from Philadelphia. Lon. 9. 42. W. Lat. 38. 15. N.

BOURBOURG, a town of France, in the department of the North, ſeated on a canal that goes to Dunkirk. Lon. 2. 15. E Lat. 50. 55. N.

BOURCHIER, John, lord Bernars, grandſon and heir of a lord of the ſame name, was created a knight of the Bath, at the marriage of the duke of York ſecond ſon of Edward IV. and was firſt known by quelling an inſurrection in Cornwall and Devonſhire, raiſed by Michael Joſeph, a blackſmith, in 1495, which recommended him to the favour of Henry VII. He was captain of the pioneers at the ſiege of Therounne, under Henry VIII. by whom he was made chancellor of the exchequer for life, lieutenant of Calais and Marches, appointed to conduct the lady Mary the king's ſiſter into France on her marriage with Louis XII. and had the extraordinary good fortune to continue in favour with that fickle tyrant for 16 years. He died at Calais in 1532, aged 63. He tranſlated Froiſſart's Chronicle; printed in 1523, by Richard Piſon, the 5th on the liſt of Engliſh printers. His other works were a whimſical medley of tranſlations, from French, Spaniſh, and Italian novels; viz. The life of Sir Arthur, an Armorican knight; The famous exploits of Sir Hugh Bourdeaux; Marcus Aurelius; and, The caſtle of love. He wrote alſo a book, of the duties of the inhabitants of Calais; and a comedy entitled *Ite in Vineam*, which is mentioned in none of our catalogues of Engliſh plays. Wood ſays it was uſually acted at Calais after Veſpers.

BOURDALOUE, Lewis, a celebrated preacher among the Jeſuits, and one of the greateſt orators France has produced, was born at Bourges, on the 20th of Auguſt 1632. After having preached at Provence, he, in 1699, went to Paris; and there met with ſuch applauſe, that the king reſolved to hear him; on which he was ſent for to court, and frequently preached before Louis XIV. He aſſiſted the ſick, viſited the priſoners and hoſpitals, and was liberal in giving alms. He died at Paris on the 13th of May 1704. The beſt edition of his ſermons is in 8vo.

BOURDEAUX, an ancient, large, and rich town of France, in the department of Gironde, and ci-devant province of Guienne. It has an univerſity and an academy of arts and ſciences.—It is built in the form of a bow, of which the Garonne is the ſtring. This river is bordered by a large quay, and the water riſes 4 yards at full tide, for which reaſon the largeſt veſſels can come up to it very readily. The caſtle called the *Trumpet* is ſeated at the entrance of the quay, and the river runs round its walls. Moſt of the great ſtreets lead to the quay. The town has 12 gates; and near another caſtle are fine walks under ſeveral rows of trees. Though conſiderable in point of ſize, it was anciently ill built, badly paved, dangerous, without police or any of thoſe municipal regulations indiſpenſably requiſite to render a city ſplendid or elegant. It has entirely changed its appearance within theſe laſt 30 years.—The public edifices are very noble, and all the ſtreets newly built are regular and handſome. The quays are 4 miles in length, and the river is conſiderably broader than the Thames at London bridge. On the oppoſite, a range of hills, covered with woods, vineyards, churches, and villas, extends beyond the view. Almoſt in the centre of the town was a fine equeſtrian ſtatue in bronze erected to Lewis XV. in 1743; which has probably fallen a ſacrifice to the popular rage againſt royalty. The beauty of the Garonne, and the fertility of the adjoining country, were probably the cauſes which induced the Romans to lay the foundation of this city. The ruins of a very large amphitheatre yet remain, conſtructed under the emperor Gallienus; it is of brick, as are moſt of the edifices of that period, when the empire was verging to its fall, and the arts began rapidly to decline. During the irruptions of the barbarous nations, and particularly in thoſe which the Normans repeatedly made, Bourdeaux was ravaged, burnt, and almoſt entirely deſtroyed. It only began to recover again under Henry II. of England, who having united it to the crown by his marriage with Eleanor of Aquitaine, rebuilt it, and made it a principal object of his policy, to reſtore the city again to its ancient luſtre. Edward, the Black Prince received all Guienne, Gaſcony, and many inferior provinces in full ſovereignty from his father Edward III. He brought his royal captive

tive, John king of France, to this city, after the battle of Poitiers in 1356; and held his court and residence here during 11 years. His exalted character, his uninterrupted series of good fortune, his victories, his modesty, his affability, and his munificence, drew strangers to Bourdeaux from every part of Europe. His son Richard II. was born in it. In 1453, Charles VII. king of France, re-entered the city, and subjected the whole province of Guienne, which had been near 3 centuries under the English government. Conscious of the importance of such a conquest, he ordered the *Chateau Trompette* to be built to defend the passage of the river; and Lewis the XIV. afterwards employed the celebrated Vauban to erect a new fortress in the modern style of military architecture, on the same spot. Bourdeaux contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants, and is one of the first cities in France for magnitude, riches, and beauty. The cathedral, and the churches belonging to the late religious orders, the Dominicans and Chartreux, are much admired. The spire of St Michael's was a beautiful Gothic piece till 1768, when more than 100 feet of it was thrown down by a hurricane. Bourdeaux has a considerable trade; and every year 100,000 tons of wine and brandy are exported from it. It is 87 miles S. of Rochelle, and 325 S. W. of Paris. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 44. 50. N.

(1.) BOURDELOT, John, a learned French critic, who lived at the close of the 16th and beginning of the 17th centuries. He distinguished himself by writing notes on Lucian, Petronius, and Heliodorus; by an Universal History; Commentaries on Juvenal; a Treatise on the Etymology of French words; and some other works never published.

(2.) BOURDELOT, Peter, (sister's son to John, (N. 1.) changed his name from Michon to oblige his uncle. He had the title of Abbe, and was a celebrated physician at Paris, and gained great reputation by a *Treatise on the Viper*, and other works. He died in 1685.

BOURDFIELD, a village E. of Lenham, Kent.

BOURDIN, a name given by Bellonius to a genus of univalve shell-fish, commonly known among authors by the name of AURIS MARINA.

BOURDINES, a town of France, in the ci-devant Austrian Netherlands, now included in one of the new French departments. It is 10 m. N. E. of Namur. Lon. 5. 0. E. Lat. 50. 35. N.

(1.) BOURDON, Sebastian, a famous painter, born at Montpelier, in 1619. He studied 7 years at Rome; and acquired such reputation, that at his return to France he was made rector of the academy of painting at Paris. He succeeded better in landscapes than in history painting. His pieces are seldom finished; and those that are so, are not always the finest. He once laid a wager with a friend, that he should paint 12 heads after the life, and as big as the life, in one day. He won it; and these are said not to be the worst things he ever did. The most esteemed of all his performances is, The martyrdom of St Peter, drawn for the church of Notre Dame: It is kept as one of the choicest rarities of that cathedral.—Bourdon, though a Calvinist, was much respected, because his life and manners were good. We have also a great number of his etchings; which are executed in a bold, masterly style, and are justly held in the highest estimation by the generality of collectors. He died in 1673, aged 64.

(2.) BOURDON, *n. f.* a bagpipe drone. *Chauc.*

BOURDONE'E, in heraldry, the same with POMEE.

BOURE, *n. f. obs.* a house or chamber. *Chauc.*

(1.) BOURG, a sea port town of France, in the department of Gironde and ci-devant province of Guienne, with a good harbour on the river Dordogne, near the point of land formed by the confluence of that river with the Garonne, which is called the Bec-d'Ambez, and is thought a dangerous passage. It is 15 miles N. of Bourdeaux. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 45. 5. N.

(2.) BOURG, a town of France, in the department of Ain, and ci-devant province of Bresse. Near this place is the magnificent church and monastery of the late Augustins, in which is the mausoleum of Margaret of Austria, aunt of Charles V. and other fine pieces of sculpture. Bourg is seated on the river Ressousse, 20 miles S. E. of Maçon, and 233 S. E. of Paris. Lon. 1. 35. E. Lat. 46. 11. N.

(3.) BOURG, the capital of Cayenne, in South America. Lon. 52. 50. W. Lat. 5. 2. N.

BOURGANEUF, a small well built town of France, in the department of Creuse and ci-devant province of Marche. It is remarkable for a very large and lofty tower, faced with stones cut diamond wise. It was erected, toward the end of the 15th century, by Zisim, brother of Bajacet II. emperor of the Turks, when he was obliged to exile himself, after the loss of a decisive battle. It is seated on the river Taurion, 20 miles N. E. of Limoges, and 200 S. of Paris. Lon. 5. 19. E. Lat. 45. 59. N.

BOURGEOISE, *adv.* in the city fashion.

* *To* BOURGEON. *v. n.* [*bourgeonner*, Fr.] To sprout; to shoot into branches; to put forth buds.—Long may the dew of heaven distil upon them, to make them *bourgeon* and propagate among themselves. *Howel.*—

O that I had the fruitful heads of Hydra,
That one might *bourgeon* whether another fell!
Still would I give thee work! *Dryden.*

BOURGES, an ancient town of France in the department of Cher and late province of Berry. It has a university. Although in extent it is one of the largest cities in France, the inhabitants hardly amount to 25,000, and their trade is inconsiderable. See BERRY, (N. 1.) This city was the birth place of Lewis XI. the Nero of France, and the celebrated preacher Bourdaloue. It is seated on the rivers Auron and Yevre, 25 miles N. W. of Nevers, and 125 S. of Paris. Lon. 1. 28. E. Lat. 47. 5. N.

(1.) BOURGET, a lake of France in the department of Mount Blanc, the ci-devant duchy of Savoy.

(2.) BOURGET, a town of France, 6 miles N. of Chamberry, seated on the lake (N. 1.) Lon. 5. 50. E. Lat. 45. 41. N.

(3.) BOURGET, Dominic John, an ingenious French antiquary, was born at the village of Beaumains, near Falaise, in the diocese of Sees, in 1724. He was educated at Caen, and pursued his studies with

with great diligence and ſucceſs till 1745, when he became a Benedictine monk of the abbey of St Martin de Seez. Some time after, he was appointed prior, and went through ſeveral ſucceſſive promotions till at laſt he was removed to the abbey of Bec, where he reſided till 1764. He was elected an honorary member of the Society of Antiquaries of London, Jan. 10. 1765; in which year he returned to the abbey of St Stephen at Caen, where he continued to the time of his death.—Theſe honourable offices, to which he was promoted on account of his great abilities, enabled him not only to purſue his favourite ſtudy of the hiſtory and antiquities of ſome of the principal Benedictine abbeys in Normandy, but likewiſe gave him acceſs to all their charters, deeds, regiſters, books, &c. &c. Theſe he examined with great care, and left behind him in MS. large and accurate accounts of the abbeys of St Peter de Jumieges, St Stephen, and the Holy Trinity at Caen (founded by William the Conqueror and his queen Matilda), and a very particular hiſtory of the abbey of Bec. Theſe were all written in French. The *Hiſtory of the Royal Abbey of Bec*, which he preſented to Dr Ducarel in 1764, is only an abſtract of his larger work. This ancient abbey (which hath produced ſeveral archbiſhops of Canterbury and other illuſtrious prelates of this kingdom) is frequently mentioned by our old hiſtorians. He died 1 Jan. 1776 much regretted.

BOURGOGNE, or BURGUNDY, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the E. by Franche Comte, on the W. by Bourbonnois and Nivernois, on the S. by Lyonois, and on the N. by Champagne. It is fertile in corn, fruits and excellent wines. It is 112 miles in length, and 75 in breadth; and is now formed into the 3 departments of Cote d'Or, Saone and Loire, and Yonne. It is watered by the rivers Seine, Dehune, Brebince, Armancon, Ouche, Souzon, Tille and Saone. Dijon was the capital.

BOURG-SUR-MER. See BOURG, No. 1.

BOURGUIGNONS, or BURGUNDIANS, one of the northern nations who over-ran the Roman empire, and ſettled in Gaul. They were of a great ſtature, and very warlike; for which reaſon the emperor Valentinian the Great engaged them in his ſervice againſt the Germans. They lived in tents cloſe to each other, that they might the more readily unite on any unforeſeen attack. Theſe conjunctions of tents they called *burghs*; and they ſerved them for towns. Sidonius Apollinaris tells us, that they wore long hair, took great pleaſure in ſinging, and were fond of praiſe for their vocal talents. He adds, that they ate great quantities; and anointed their hair with butter, deeming that unction very ornamental. Their crown was at firſt elective, and the authority of their kings depended on their ſucceſs. They were not only accountable for their own miſconduct, but likewiſe for the calamities of nature and fortune. They were depoſed if they loſt a battle; if they ſucceeded ill in any enterpriſe; or if, in ſhort, any great event had not correſponded with the hopes of the people. They were not more favourably treated in caſe of a bad harveſt or vintage, or if any epidemical diſtemper ravaged the ſtate. At firſt they were governed by many kings, and HENDIN was the title of the royal dignity. But in later times they were ſubjected to one ſovereign; and on the introduction of Chriſtianity, they grew humane and civilized. Before that epocha, their religion was much the ſame with that of the other northern nations. They had many prieſts, the chief of whom was entitled SINISTRUS. He was perpetual, and they paid him great reſpect.

BOURGUIGNOTTE, a defenſive weapon wherewith to cover the head; being a kind of caſk, open before, and proof againſt either pike or muſket: its name aroſe from the Bourguignons, who firſt introduced it.

BOURIGNON, Antonietta, a famous enthuſiaſtic preacher and pretended prophetеſs, born at Liſle, in 1616. At her birth ſhe was ſo deformed, that it was debated ſome days in the family whether it was not proper to ſtifle her as a monſter; but her deformity diminiſhed, and ſhe was ſpared; and afterwards obtained ſuch a degree of beauty, that ſhe had her admirers. From her childhood to her old age, ſhe had an extraordinary turn of mind. She ſet up for a reformer, and publiſhed a great number of books filled with very ſingular notions; the principal of which are intitled, *The light of the World*; *The Teſtimony of Truth*; and, *The Renovation of the Goſpel Spirit*. She was an enemy to reaſon, which ſhe maintained ought to give place to the illumination of divine faith; and aſſerted, that whenever any one was born again by embracing her doctrine, ſhe felt the pains and throes of a woman in labour. Of her pretended viſions and revelations, we have already given a ſpecimen. See ADAM, § 3. With regard to the jarring doctrines of *predeſtination* and *free-will*, which philoſophers, divines, and metaphyſicians, in all ages, have puzzled themſelves in vain to reconcile, ſhe cut the Gordian knot at once; by aſſerting, that although God *can* foreſee every future event, yet his *power* being equal to his *wiſdom*, he *with-holds from himſelf* the foreknowledge of the actions of thoſe to whom he has given free-will, and thus leaves them entirely free to act as they pleaſe; without which, ſhe affirms, he could not be juſt in puniſhing their ſins. Beſides all her extravagances, ſhe had other forbidding qualities: her temper was moroſe and peeviſh, and ſhe was extremely avaricious and greedy of amaſſing riches. She dreſſed like a hermit, and travelled to France, Holland, England, and Scotland. In the laſt ſhe made a ſtrong party, and ſome thouſand converts. She died at Franeker in Friſe, Oct. 30th, 1680. Her works have been printed in 18 vols 8vo. An apology for her life and her opinions were written by Profeſſor Garden, of Aberdeen.

BOURIGNONISTS, a name given the followers of Antonietta Bourignon, who ſet up a kind of QUIETISM, pretending to be guided by an immediate revelation.

(1.) * BOURN. *n. ſ.* [*borne*, Fr.] 1. A bound; a limit.—

Eourn, bound of land, tilth, vineyard, none.
Shakeſpeare.

That undiſcover'd country, from whoſe *bourn*
No traveller returns. *Shakeſpeare.*

Falſe,

Falſe,
As dice are to be wiſh'd, by one that fixes
No *bourn* 'twixt his and mine. *Shakeſpeare.*
I know each lane, and every alley green,
And every boſky *bourn* from ſide to ſide. *Milt.*

2. [From *burn*, Saxon.] A brook; a torrent; whence many towns, ſeated near brooks, have names ending in *bourn*. It is now uſed in either ſenſe; though the ſecond continues in the Scottiſh dialect.

Ne ſwelling Neptune, ne loud thund'ring Jove,
Can change my cheer, or make me ever mourn:
My little boat can ſafely paſs this perilous *bourn*.
Spenſer.

(2.) BOURN, a large town in Lincolnſhire, ſeated on a rivulet that runs through it. It is very ancient, and had a caſtle, of which no traces now remain, but the ditch that ſurrounded it. K. Edmund was crowned in it. It has a good corn market, and 3 fairs, March 7, May 6, and Oct. 29. It is 17 m. N. of Peterborough, 35 S. of Lincoln, and 97 N. of London. Lon. 0. 20. W. Lat. 52. 42. N.

(3.) BOURN, a river in Worceſterſhire.

(4.) BOURN, a village in Yorkſhire.

BOURNE, *n. ſ.* See BOURN, No. 1.

BOURN-HALL, a village in Cambridgeſhire, 8 m. N. W. of Shengay.

BOURNS, a river in Warwickſhire.

BOURO, an iſland in the Eaſt Indian ocean, between the Moluccas and Celebes. It is well cultivated; and is ſubject to the Dutch, who have built a fortreſs in it. Some of its mountains are exceedingly high, and the ſea on each ſide is uncommonly deep. It produces nutmegs, cloves, ebony, cocoa, and banana trees; beſides many vegetables introduced by the Dutch. It is ſubject to earthquakes, and infeſted with crocodiles; and is about 50 miles in circumference. Lon. 124. 5. E. Lat. 3. 30. S.

BOURREE. See BOREE.

BOURTHER-HALL, a village in Eſſex.

BOURTIE, a pariſh of Scotland, in Aberdeenſhire, about 4 m. long and 2 broad, containing about 4000 acres, of which 600 are incloſed. The ſoil is ſtony but pretty fertile; and produces barley, oats, potatoes, turnips, and ſown graſs. The population in 1793, as ſtated in the rev. Mr Shepherd's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 450, which was a decreaſe of 75, within 40 years; but within the laſt 20 years, it had decreaſed 110, owing to the monopoly of farms; one farmer poſſeſſing now what formerly ſerved 4. There are about 130 horſes, 500 ſheep, and 600 black cattle in the pariſh.

BOURTON, 3 Engliſh villages, viz. 1. in Dorſetſhire, near Gillingham: 2. *on the hill*, in Glouceſterſhire, 5 m. from Stow and Campden: and, 3. *on the water*, in ditto, about a mile from the other. It has ſeveral good houſes and ſome trade.

* *To* BOUSE. *v. n.* [*buyſen*, Dutch.] To drink laviſhly; to tope.—

As he rode, he ſomewhat ſtill did eat,
And in hand did bear a *bouſing* can,
Of which he ſipt. *Fairy Queen.*

BOUSSAC, a town of France in the department of Creuſe, ſeated on a rock, 25 m. N. of Gueret.

BOUSTROPHEDON, in literature, an ancient method of writing among the Greeks, wherein the lines were continued forwards and backwards, like the furrows in ploughing. See BOOKS, § 9. Pauſanias mentions ſeveral ancient inſcriptions written in this manner: the laws of Solon are alſo ſaid to have been thus written; which, as Pauſanias explains it, is when the 2d line is turned on the contary ſide, beginning at the end of the former, thus:

ΕΚ ΔΙΟΣ ΑΡ-
ΧΟΜΕΘΑ

* BOUSY. *adj.* [from *bouſe*.] Drunken.—

With a long legend of romantic things,
Which in his cups the *bouſy* poet ſings. *Dryden.*
The gueſts upon the day appointed came,
Each *bouſy* farmer with his ſimp'ring dame.
King.

* BOUT. *n. ſ.* [*botta*, Ital.] A turn; as much of an action as is performed at one time, without interruption; a ſingle part of any action carried on by ſucceſſive intervals.—

The play began: Pas durſt not Coſma chace
But did intend next *bout* with her to meet,
Sidney.
Ladies that have your feet
Unplagu'd with corns, we'll have a *bout*.
Shakeſpeare.
When in your motion you are hot,
As make your *bouts* more violent to that end,
He calls for drink. *Shakeſpeare.*
If he chance to 'ſcape this diſmal *bout*,
The former legatees are blotted out. *Dryden.*

—A weaſel ſeized a bat; the bat begged for life; ſays the weaſel, I give no quarters to birds: ſays the bat, I am a mouſe; look on my body: ſo the got off for that *bout*. *L'Eſtrange.*—

We'll ſee when its enough,
Or if it want the nice concluding *bout*. *King.*

BOUTADE, in muſic, an irregular flight or movement, without art or ſtudy.

BOUTAEL, in ichthyology, the name of a Eaſt Indian fiſh, of the lamprey kind, called alſo *neegen oogen*, and by Mr Ray, *lampetra Indica*. It is caught in lakes, ponds, and other ſtanding waters, and is a very wholeſome and well taſted fiſh. From its general deſcription, it ſeems to be rather of the *muſtela* than the *lampetra* kind; but if, as its name expreſſes, it has ſeveral apertures for the gills, (its Dutch name ſignifying eyes,) it is abſolutely a new genus.

(1.) BOUTANT, or ARCH-BOUTANT, in architecture, an arch, or part of an arch, abutting againſt the reins of a vault to prevents its giving way.

(2.) BOUTANT, PILLAR, a large chain or pile of ſtone, made to ſupport a wall, terrace, or vault.

BOUTE, in the manege, an epithet for a horſe when his legs are in a ſtraight line from the knee to the coronet: ſhort jointed horſes are apt to boute, but not long jointed ones.

* BOUTEFEU. *n. ſ.* [French.] An incendiary; one who kindles feuds and diſcontents. Not diſuſed.—Animated by a baſe fellow, called John Chamber, a very *bouteſeu*, who bore much ſway amon

among the vulgar, they entered into open rebellion. *Bacon.*—Nor could ever any order be obtained impartially to punish the known *boutefeus*, and open incendiaries. *King Charles.*—

Beſides the herd of *boutefeus*,
We ſet on work within the houſe. *Hudibras.*

BOUTH, a village in Lancaſhire, 4 m. N. of Cartmel.

BOUTHAM, a village near York.

BOUTHES, in Cheſhire, S. of Knutsford.

* BOUTISALE. *n. ſ.* [I ſuppoſe from *bouty* or *boot*, and *ſal.*] A ſale at a cheap rate, as booty or plunder is commonly ſold.—To ſpeak nothing of the great *boutiſale* of colleges and chantries. *Sir J. Hayward.*

BOUTON, an iſland in the Eaſt Indian ocean, about 12 miles from the S. E. part of Celebes. The inhabitants are ſmall, but well ſhaped, and of a dark olive complexion. They ſpeak the Malayan language, and are Mahometans. The principal town is Callaſujung. The houſes are not built upon the ground, but on poſts. Lon. 123. 30. E. Lat. 5. 0. S.

BOUTONNE, a river of France, in the department of Lower Charente, which riſes in the ci-devant province of Poitou, becomes navigable at St Jean D'Angely and falls into the Charente.

(1.) * BOUTS RIMES. [Fr.] The laſt words or rhimes of a number of verſes given to be filled up.

(2.) BOUTS RIMES are given to a poet, with a ſubject, to be filled up with verſes ending in the ſame words, and the ſame order. The invention of the bouts rimes is aſcribed to one Du Lot, a French poet, in 1649. In fixing the bouts it is uſual to chooſe ſuch as ſeem the remoteſt, and have the leaſt connection. Some authors fancy that theſe rhymes aſſiſt the invention, and furniſh the neweſt thoughts. Sarraſin has a poem on the defeat of the bouts rimes. The academy of Lanternifts at Tholouſe contributed towards keeping in countenance the bouts rimes, by propoſing each year a ſet to be filled up on the glories of the grand monarque: the victorious ſonnet to be rewarded with a fine medal.—An inſtance is given in the following, filled up by P. Commire.

Tu ſais grand dans le roi; l'aſpect ſeul de ſon buſte
Rend nos fiers ennemis plus froids que des glaçons.
Et Guillaume n'attend que le tems des moiſſons,
Pour ſe voir ſoccomber ſous un bras ſi robuſte.
Qu'on ne nous vante plus les miracles d' Auguſte;
Il va de bien regner lui ſeroit des leçons:
Il ne ſe vit en vain l'egale aux dieux dans ſes chanſons
Moins que mon heros il etoit ſage et juſte, &c.

BOUVENEY, a village in Berkſhire, near Windſor.

BOUVERIDGE, in Dorſetſhire, near Cranborn.

BOUVIERA, in ichthyology, a name given by ſome to the BUCULCA.

BOUVILLON, a city of France in the ci-devant province of Luxemburg, now included in one of the new departments lately annexed to the republic. Lon. 5. 0. E. Lat. 49. 55. N.

BOVY-TRACEY, a village in Devonſhire, near Chudleigh, 5 miles from Aſhburnham. It has fairs on Holy Thurſday, and July 7.

BOUZONVILLE, a town of France in the department of the Moſelle. Lon. 6. 40. E. Lat. 49. 20. N.

(1.) * BOW. *n. ſ.* [from the verb. It is pronounced, like the verb, as *now*, *bow.*] An act of reverence or ſubmiſſion, by bending the body.—

Some clergy too ſhe wou'd allow,
Nor quarrel'd at their awkward *bow*. *Swift.*

(2.) * BOW. *n. ſ.* [pronounced as *grow*, *no*, *lo*, without any regard to the *w*.] 1. An inſtrument of war, made by holding wood or metal bent with a ſtring, which, by its ſpring, ſhoots arrows with great force.—Take, I pray thee, thy weapons, thy quiver and thy *bow*, and go out to the field, and take me ſome veniſon. *Geneſis.*—

The white faith of hiſt'ry cannot ſhow,
That e'er the muſket yet could beat the *bow*.
Alleyne's Henry VII.

2. A rainbow.—I do ſet my *bow* in the cloud, and it ſhall be for a token of a covenant between me and the earth. *Gen.* ix. 13. 3. The inſtrument with which ſtring-inſtruments are ſtruck.—

Their inſtruments were various in their kind;
Some for the *bow*, and ſome for breathing wind:
The ſawtry, pipe, and hautboy's noiſy band,
And the ſoft lute trembling beneath the touching hand. *Dryden's Fables.*

4. The doubling of a ſtring in a ſlip-knot. This is perhaps corruptly uſed for *bought*.—Make a knot, and let the ſecond knot be with a *bow*. *Wiſem.* 5. A yoke.—As the ox hath his *bow*, ſir, the horſe his curb, and the falcon his bells, ſo man hath his deſire. *Shakeſp.* 6. Bow *of a ſaddle*. The *bows of a ſaddle* are two pieces of wood laid archwiſe, to receive the upper part of a horſe's back, to give the ſaddle its due form, and to keep it tight. *Farrier's Dict.* 7. Bow *of a ſhip*. That part of her which begins at the loof, and compaſſing ends of the ſtern, and ends at the ſternmoſt parts of the foreçaſtle. If a ſhip hath a broad bow, they call it a *bold bow*; if a narrow thin bow, they ſay ſhe hath a *lean bow*. The piece of ordnance that lies in this place, is called the *bow-piece*; and the anchors that hang here, are called her *great* and *little bowers*. 8. *Bow* is alſo a mathematical inſtrument, made of wood, formerly uſed by ſeamen in taking the ſun's altitude. 9. *Bow* is likewiſe a beam of wood or braſs, with three long ſcrews, that direct a lath of wood or ſteel to any arch; uſed commonly to draw draughts of ſhips, projections of the ſphere, or wherever it is requiſite to draw long arches. *Harris.*

(3.) BOW, (as above defined, § 2. *def.* 1.) is alſo called the LONG BOW, by way of diſtinction from the CROSS BOW: (§ 10.). The bow is the moſt ancient, and the moſt univerſal of all weapons. It has been found to obtain among the moſt barbarous people, who had the leaſt communication with the reſt of mankind. Barbarous nations often excel in the fabric of the particular things which they have the greateſt neceſſity for in the common offices of life. The Laplanders, who ſupport themſelves almoſt entirely by hunting, have an art of making bows, which we, in theſe improved parts of the world, have never arrived at. Their bow is made of two pieces of tough and ſtrong wood, ſhaved down to the ſame ſize, and flatted on each ſide; the two flat ſides of the

pieces are brought closely and evenly together, and then joined by means of a glue made of the skins of pearch, which they have in great plenty, and of which they make a glue superior in strength to any which we have. The two pieces, when once united in this manner, will never separate, and the bow is of much more force to expel the arrow, than it could possibly have been under the same dimensions if made of only one piece. Among the ancients, the bow-string, called νευρον, was made of horses hair, and hence also called νευρα; though we find Homer's bow-strings frequently made of hides cut into small thongs; whence ταῦρεα βιὸς. The uppermost part of the bow, to which the string was fastened, was called κερων, being commonly made of gold, and the last thing towards finishing the bow. The Grecian bows were frequently beautified with gold or silver; whence we have mention of *aurei arcus*; and Apollo is called Αργυροτοξος. But the matter of which they were ordinarily composed, seems to have been wood; though they were anciently, Scythian-like, made of horn, as appears from that of Pandarus in *Homer's Iliad*. δ. v. 105. The invention of the bow is usually ascribed to Apollo, by whom it was communicated to the primitive inhabitants of Crete, who are said to have been the first people who understood the use of bows and arrows. And hence, even in later ages, the Cretan bows were famous, and preferred by the Greeks to all others. Some, however, rather choose to honour Perses, the son of Perseus, with the invention of the bow; while others ascribe it to Scythes, son of Jupiter, and progenitor of the Scythians, who were excellent at this art, and by many reputed the first masters of it. From them it was derived to the Grecians, some of whose ancient nobility were instructed by the Scythians in the use of the bow, which in those days passed for a most princely education. It was first introduced into the Roman army in the second Punic war. The Scythian bow was famous for its incurvation, which distinguished it from the bows of Greece and other nations; being so great as to form a half moon or semicircle: whence the shepherd in Athenæus, in describing the letters in Thestis's name, and expressing each of them by some apposite resemblance, compares the ϛ to the Scythian bow; meaning not the more-modern character Σ, but the ancient C, which is semicircular, and has the ϛ and 6th place in ΘΗCΕΥC. The Indians still retain the bow. In the repository of the Royal Society there is a West Indian bow two yards long. The use of the bow and arrows was first abolished in France under Louis XI. in 1481, and in their place was introduced the Swiss arms; viz. the halberd, pike, and broad sword. The long bow was formerly in great vogue in England; most of our victories in France were acquired by it; and many laws were made to regulate and encourage its use. See ARCHERY, § 3—5. The parliament under Henry VIII. complain "of the disuse of the long bow, heretofore the safe guard and defence of this kingdom, and the dread and terror of its enemies." (33 Hen. VIII. cap. 6.) The art of using bows is called ARCHERY, and those practised therein, ARCHERS, or BOWMEN. The strength of a bow may be calculated on this principle, that its spring, *i. e.* the power whereby it restores itself to its natural position, is always proportionate to the distance or space it is removed therefrom.

(4.) BOW, for taking the sun's altitude, &c. (*def.* 8.) consisted of a large arch of 90° graduated, a shank or staff, a side vane, a sight vane, and an horizon vane. It is now out of use.

(5.) BOW, in geography, is the name of,

1. BOW, a river in Shropshire, which runs into the Warren.

2. BOW, or BOWE, a town of Devonshire, near Crediton, 188 miles W. from London. It has a weekly market, and two fairs; in Whitsun week and Nov. 22. The court of the duchy of Lancaster is commonly held in it. It is 14 m. N. W. of Exeter. And,

3. BOW, or STRATFORD LE BOW, a village in Middlesex, near Stratford in Essex, 2 miles N. E. by E. of London. It is memorable for having the first stone bridge ever erected in England; from the *bows* or arches of which over the Lea, it has its name. It is noted for dyeing scarlet, and has several mills, manufactories and distilleries on the Lea. It has a fair on Whit Thursday.

(6.) BOW, in music, a small machine, which being drawn over the strings of a musical instrument, makes it resound. It is composed of a small stick, to which are fastened 80 or 100 horse hairs, and a screw which serves to give these hairs a proper tension. In order that the bow may touch the strings briskly, it is usual to rub the hairs with rosin. The ancients do not appear to have been acquainted with bows of hair: in lieu hereof they touched their instruments with a PLECTRUM, over which our bows have great advantage, for giving long and short sounds, and other modifications which a plectrum cannot produce.

(7.) BOW, in navigation, an arch of the horizon comprehended between some distant object and that point of the compass which is right a-head, or to which the ship's stem is directed. The phrase *on the bow* is equally applicable when the object is beheld from the ship, or discovered by trigonometrical calculation: As, we saw a fleet at day-break bearing 3 points *on the starboard-bow*, that is, 3 points from that part of the horizon which is right a-head, towards the right-hand. See BEARING, § 4.

(8.) BOW, in ship-building, [*Epaule*,] the rounding part of a ship's side forward, beginning at the place where the planks arch inwards; and terminating where they close, at the stem or prow. (See § 2. *def.* 7.) It is proved by a variety of experiments, that a ship with a narrow bow is much better calculated for sailing swiftly, than one with a broad brow; but is not so well fitted for a high sea, into which she always *pitches* or plunges her fore-part very deep, for want of sufficient breadth to repel the volume of water which she so easily divides in her fall. The former of these is called by seamen a *lean*, and the other a *bluff*, bow. "The bow which meets with the least resistance in a direct course, not only meets with least resistance in oblique courses, but also has the additional property of driving the least to leeward; which is a double advantage gained by forming the bow so as to give it that figure which will be least resisted

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is moving through any medium." *Bouguer Traite de Navire.*

(9.) Bow, or DRILL-BOW, among artificers, an inſtrument ſo called from its figure; uſed by goldſmiths, gunſmiths, lockſmiths, watchmakers, &c. for making a drill go. Among turners it is the name of a pole fixed to the ceiling, to which they faſten the cord that whirls round the piece to be turned.

(10.) Bow, CROSS, or ARBALEST, conſiſts of a ſteel bow, ſet in a ſhaft of wood, furniſhed with a ſtring and a trigger; and is bent with a piece of iron fitted for that purpoſe. It ſerves to throw bullets, large arrows, darts, &c. The ancients had large machines for throwing many arrows at once, called *baliſtæ*. See BALLISTA, N° 1. and *Plate* XXXV, *fig.* 7.

(11.) Bow, LONG. See § 3.

(12.) BOW OF A SADDLE. (See § 2. *def.* 6.) The fore bow which ſuſtains the pommel, is compoſed of the withers, the breaſts, the points or toes, and the corking. The hind bow bears the troſequin or quilted roll. The bows are covered with ſtews to make them ſtrong, and ſtrengthened with bands of iron to keep them tight: and on the lower ſide are nailed the ſaddle ſtraps, with which they make faſt the girths.

(13.) Bow OF THE GILLS, a term uſed by ſome ichthyologiſts, to expreſs the convex part of each gill of a fiſh, each being a long ſemicircle, terminated by many *laminæ*, which form what is called the *leaf*.

(1.) * *To* Bow. *v. a.* [*bugen*, Sax.] 1. To bend, or inflect. It ſounds as *now*, or *bow*.—

A threepence *bow'd* would hire me,
Old as I am, to queen it. *Shakeſpeare.*
Orpheus, with his lute, made trees,
And the mountain tops, that freeze,
Bow themſelves when he did ſing. *Shakeſp.*
Some *bow* the vines, which bury'd in the plain,
Their tops in diſtant arches riſe again. *Dryden.*

—The mind has not been made obedient to diſcipline, when at firſt it was moſt tender and moſt eaſy to be *bowed*. *Locke.* 2. To bend the body in token of reſpect or ſubmiſſion.—They came to meet him, and *bowed* themſelves to the ground before him. 2 *Kings.*—Is it to *bow* down his head as a bulruſh, and to ſpread ſackcloth and aſhes under him? wilt thou call this a faſt, and an acceptable day to the Lord? *Iſaiah.* 3. To bend, or incline, in condeſcenſion.—Let it not grieve thee to *bow* down thine ear to the poor, and give him a friendly anſwer. *Eccluſ.* 4. To depreſs; to cruſh.—

Are you ſo goſpell'd,
To pray for this good man, and for his iſſue,
Whoſe heavy hand hath *bow'd* you to the grave,
And beggar'd yours for ever? *Shakeſpeare.*
Now waſting years my former ſtrength confound,
And added woes may *bow* me to the ground.
Pope.

(2.) * *To* Bow. *v. n.* 1. To bend; to ſuffer flexure. 2. To make a reverence.—

Rather let my head
Stoop to the block, than theſe knees *bow* to any
Save to the God of heav'n, and to my king. *Shak.*

—This is the great idol to which the world *bows*; to this we pay our devouteſt homage. *Dean of Piety.*—

Admir'd, ador'd by all the circling crowd,
For whereſoe'er ſhe turn'd her face, they *bow'd*.
Dryden.

3. To ſtoop.—The people *bowed* down upon their knees, to drink. *Judges.* 4. To ſink under preſſure.—They ſtoop, they *bow* down together; they could not deliver the burden. *Iſaiah*, xlvi. 2.

BOWAN's HILLOCK, an ancient fort in Aberdeenſhire, 3 miles W. of Peterhead. The moat, parapet, baſtions, &c. are very conſpicuous.

BOWBARD. See BOOBY, N° 1.

(1.) * BOW-BEARER. *n. ſ.* [from *bow* and *bear*.] An under-officer of the foreſt. *Cowel.*

(2.) BOW-BEARER. The bow-bearer is ſworn to make inquiſition of all treſpaſſes againſt vert or veniſon, and to attach offenders.

BOWBEN, a river in Northumberland, which runs into the Till.

* BOW-BENT. *adj.* [from *bow* and *bent*.] Crooked.—

A ſibyl old, *bow-bent* with crooked age,
That far events full wiſely could preſage. *Milt.*

BOWCOMB, a village in Dorſetſhire, near Buckland Abbas.

BOW-COMPASS, an inſtrument for drawing arches of very large circles, for which the common compaſſes are too ſmall. It conſiſts of a beam of wood or braſs, with 3 long ſcrews, that govern or bend a lath of wood or ſteel, to any arch.

(1.) BOWDEN, anciently called BOTHENDEN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Roxburghſhire, containing about 6700 acres, 6 miles long and 4½ broad. About ¾ are arable and ¼ moſs or wood. The ſurface is hilly and the ſoil moſtly a white clay, beſt ſuited for paſture. It produces annually, however, as much barley, oats, wheat, peaſe, &c. as, after maintaining the inhabitants, admits an export to the value of above 1200l. beſides feeding 160 horſes, 340 black cattle, 2300 ſheep, and 80 ſwine. The population, in Jan. 1794, as ſtated by Mr Blaikie, was 860; and had increaſed 188, ſince 1755.

(2—9.) BOWDEN, the name of eight Engliſh villages: 1. in Cheſhire, near Altringham: 2. in Devonſhire, near Ilfracomb: 3. in ditto, near Ivybridge: 4. EAST, in Durham, near Sunderland: 5. NORTH, and 6. WEST, in ditto, on the road to Shields, N. W. of Sunderland: 7. MAGNA, in Leiceſterſhire, on the N. ſide of the Welland; and, 8. PARVA, in Northamptonſhire, on the S. ſide of that river.

BOWDEN-EDGE, } two villages in the High Peak
BOWDEN-HALL, } of Derby.

BOWDITCH, in Dorſetſhire, near Chardſtock.

BOWDOIN, and } two towns in the United
BOWDOINHAM, } States, in Lincoln County, in the diſtrict of Maine.

BOWDON, a town in Wilts, near Lacock.

BOWDON-HEATH, in Berkſhire, between Pangborn and Reading.

BOW DYE, a kind of ſcarlet red, ſuperior to madder; but inferior to the true ſcarlet grain for fixedneſs and duration. It was brought into England, and firſt practiſed at the village of Bow, near London, by Kephler, a Dutchman, in 1643.

BOWE. See Bow, § 5. N° 2.

* *To* BOWEL. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To pierce the bowels. *Thomſon.*—[This article is omitted in Dr Johnſon's laſt folio edition.]

(1.) * BOWELS. *n. ſ.* [*boyaux*, Fr.] 1. Inteſtines; the veſſels and organs within the body.—He ſmote him therewith under the fifth rib, and ſhed out his *bowels*. 2 *Sam.* xx. 10. 2. The inner parts of any thing.—

Had we no quarrel elſe to Rome, but that
Thou art thence baniſh'd, we would muſter all
From twelve to ſeventy; and pouring war
Into the *bowels* of ungrateful Rome,
Like a bold flood appear. *Shakeſpeare.*

His ſoldiers ſpying his undaunted ſpirit,
A Talbot! Talbot! cried out amain,
And ruſh'd into the *bowels* of the battle. *Shak.*

—As he ſaw drops of water diſtilling from the rock, by following the veins, he has made himſelf two or three fountains in the *bowels* of the mountain. *Addiſon.* 3. The ſeat of pity, or kindneſs.—His *bowels* did yearn upon him. *Geneſis* 4. Tenderneſs; compaſſion.—He had no other conſideration of money, than for the ſupport of his luſtre; and whilſt he could do that, he cared not for money; having no *bowels* in the point of running in debt, or borrowing all he could. *Clarendon.* 5. This word ſeldom has a *ſingular*, except in writers of anatomy.

(2.) BOWELS. See ANATOMY, § 286—296.

(1.) BOWER, [*i. e.* a valley, Dan.] a pariſh of Scotland, in the county of Caithneſs, 7 miles long from E. to W. and 3 broad, from N to S. The cultivated ground is a long extended vale. The ſoil is various. The principal produce is oats and barley. About 2000 bolls of oats are annually ſold by the proprietors alone; but the produce might be much increaſed if the commons were cultivated. A gradual abolition of ſervitudes is taking place. The population, in 1791, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Smith in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1592, and had increaſed 305 within 36 years.

(2.) * BOWER. *n. ſ.* [from *bow* or *branch*, or from the verb *To bow* or *bend*.] 1. An arbour; a ſheltered place covered with green trees, twined and bent.—

But, O ſad virgin, that thy power
Might raiſe Muſæus from his *bower*. *Milton.*

To gods appealing, when I reach their *bow'rs*
With loud complaints, they anſwer me in ſhow'rs.
Waller.

Refreſh'd, they wait them to the *bow'r* of ſtate,
Where, circl'd with his peers, Atrides ſat. *Pope.*

2. It ſeems to ſignify, in *Spenſer*, a blow; a ſtroke; *bourrer*, Fr. to fall upon.—

His rawbone arms, whoſe mighty brawned *bowers*.
Were wont to rive ſteel plates, and helmets hew,
Were clean conſum'd, and all his vital powers
Decay'd. *Spenſer's Fairy Queen.*

(3.) * BOWER. *n. ſ.* [from the *bow* of a ſhip.] Anchors ſo called. See BOW.

(4.) BOWER, in gardening, a place under covert of trees, differing only from an arbour, as being round or ſquare, and made with a kind of dome or ceiling at top; whereas the arbour is always built long and arched.

(5.) BOWERS, in the ſea-language, are generally two, called *firſt* and *ſecond*, *great* and *little*, or *beſt* and *ſmall* bowers. See ANCHOR, § 1—7.

* *To* BOWER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To embower; to incloſe.—

Thou didſt *bower* the ſpirit
In mortal paradiſe of ſuch ſweet fleſh. *Shakeſ.*

BOWER-LAND, a town near Maidſtone, Kent.

BOWERS, in Staffordſhire, N. of Standon.

* BOWERY. *adj.* [from *bower*.] Full of bowers.—

Landſkips how gay the *bow'ry* grotto yields,
Which thought creates, and laviſh fancy builds!
Tickell.

Snatch'd through the verdant maze, the hurried eye
Diſtracted wanders: now the *bow'ry* walk
Of covert cloſe, where ſcarce a ſpeck of day
Falls on the lengthen'd gloom, protracted ſweeps.
Thomſon.

BOWES, two Engliſh villages: 1. in Suſſex, E. of New Shoreham: and 2. in Yorkſhire, 2 m. from Barnard's caſtle.

BOWESDEN, a village in Northumberland, between Holyland and the Tweed.

BOWESS, or BOWET, } in falconry; a young hawk, when ſhe draws any thing out of her neſt, and covets to clamber on the boughs.

* *To* BOWGE. See *To* BOUGE.

BOW-GRACE, in the ſea language, a frame or compoſition of old ropes or junks of cables, uſed to be laid out at the bows, ſterns, and ſides of ſhips, to preſerve them from great flakes of ice, chiefly when they ſail in high N. or S. latitudes.

* BOW HAND. *n. ſ.* [from *bow* and *hand*.] The hand that draws the bow.—Surely he ſhoots wide on the *bow-hand*, and very far from the mark. *Spenſer's Ireland.*

(1.) * BOWL. *n. ſ.* [*burlia*, Welch; which ſignifies, according to *Junius*, any thing made of horn, as drinking cups anciently were. It is pronounced *bole*.] 1. A veſſel to hold liquids, rather wide than deep; diſtinguiſhed from a cup, which is rather deep than wide.—

Give me a *bowl* of wine;
I have not that alacrity of ſpirit,
Nor cheer of mind, that I was wont to have.
Shakeſpeare.

—If a piece of iron be faſtened on the ſide of a *bowl* of water, a loadſtone, in a boat of cork, will make unto it. *Brown.*—

The ſacred prieſts, with ready knives, bereave
The beaſts of life, and in full *bowls* receive
The ſtreaming blood. *Dryden.*

While the bright Sein, t' exalt the ſoul,
With ſparkling plenty crowns the *bowl*,
And wit and ſocial mirth inſpires.
Penton to Lord Gower.

2. The hollow part of any thing.—If you are allowed a large ſilver ſpoon for the kitchen, let half the *bowl* of it be worn out with continual ſcraping. *Swift.* 3. A baſin, or fountain.—But the main matter is ſo to convey the water, as it never ſtay either in the *bowl* or in the ciſtern. *Bacon.*

(2.) * BOWL. *n. ſ.* [*boule*, Fr. It is pronounced as *cow*, *bowl*.] A round maſs, which may be rolled along the ground.—

Like

Like to a *bowl* upon a ſubtile ground,
I've tumbl'd paſt the throw. *Shakeſ.*

How finely doſt thou times and ſeaſons ſpin!
And make a twiſt checker'd with night and day!
Which as it lengthens, winds, and winds us in,
As *bowls* go on, but turning all the way. *Herbert.*

—Like him, who would lodge a *bowl* upon a precipice, either my praiſe falls back, or ſtays not on the top, but rowls over. *Dryden.*—Men may make a game at *bowls* in the ſummer, and a game at chuſk in the winter. *Dennis's Letters.*—Though that piece of wood, which is now a *bowl*, may be made ſquare, yet, if roundneſs be taken away, it is no longer a *bowl*. *Watt's Logick.*

* To BOWL. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To roll as a bowl. 2. To pelt with any thing rolled.—

Alas! I had rather be ſet quick i' th' earth,
And *bowl'd* to death with turnips.
Merry Wives of Windſor.

BOWLAND FOREST, in Yorkſh. near Lancaſh.

* BOWLDER-STONES. *n. ſ.* Lumps or fragments of ſtones or marble, broke from the adjacent cliffs, rounded by being tumbled to and fro by the water; whence their name. *Woodward.*

(1.)* BOW-LEGGED. *adj.* [from *bow* and *leg.*] Having crooked legs.

(2.) BOW-LEGGED, or BANDY-LEGGED. Some children are bow-legged from their birth; others become ſo from ſetting them on their feet too early. The tibia of ſome is crooked; the knees of others are diſtorted; from a fault in the ankle, the feet of ſome are turned inwards. Theſe are called *vari*; and in others, who are called *valgi*, they are turned outwards. The beſt method of preventing theſe diſorders in weakly children is to exerciſe them duly, but not violently, by toſſing them about in one's arms; and not ſetting them much upon their feet, at leaſt not without properly ſupporting them; if the diſorder attends at the birth, or increaſes after it is begun, apply emollients, then boots of ſtrong leather, wood, &c. ſo as gradually to diſpoſe the crooked legs to a proper form. Other inſtruments may be uſed inſtead of boots, which, when not too coſtly, are more to be preferred. Slighter inſtances of theſe diſorders yield to careful nurſing, without inſtruments. The cold bath has been recommended, and may often be of ſervice; but if the child be very weak, it will do more hurt than good. A ſtrengthening diet will always be of ſervice.

* BOWLER. *n. ſ.* [from *bowl.*] He that plays at bowls.

BOWLEY, a village near Ragham, Suſſex.

(1.) * BOWLINE. BOWLING. *n. ſ.* [ſea term.] A rope faſtened to the middle part of the outſide of a ſail; it is faſtened in three or four parts of the ſail, called the *bowling bridle*. The uſe of the *bowling* is to make the ſails ſtand ſharp or cloſe to a wind. *Harris.*

(2.) BOW-LINES are only uſed when the wind is ſo unfavourable that the ſails muſt be all braced ſideways, or cloſe hauled to the wind. In this ſituation the bow-lines are employed to keep the weather or windward edges of the principal ſails tight, forward, and ſteady, without which they would always be ſhivering, and rendered incapable of ſervice. To *check* the bow-line is to ſlacken it, when the force of the wind requires it.

(1.) BOWLING, the art of playing at bowls.—This game is practiſed either in open places, as bares and bowling greens, or in cloſe bowling-alleys. The ſkill of bowling depends much on a knowledge of the ground, and the right choice of a bowl ſuitable to it: for cloſe alleys, the flat bowl; for green ſwards plain and level, the bowl as round as a ball is preferred. The terms uſed in bowling are; to *bowl wide*, which is when the bias does not hold, or is not ſtrong enough; *narrow*, when it is too ſtrong, or holds too much; *finely bowled*, is when the ground is well choſen, and the bowl paſſes near the block, even though it goes much beyond it: *bowling through* or a *yard over*, is done in order to move the block; an *over bowl*, that which goes beyond it; a *bowl laid at hand*, is that put done within the gameſter's reach, to be in the way of the next bowler, and hinder his having the advantage of the beſt ground; *bowling at length*, neither bowling through nor ſhort; a *dead length*, a juſt or exact one; *throwing* or *flinging*, is diſcharging a bowl with a ſtrength purpoſely too great for a length, in order to carry off either the block or ſome near bowl; *bowl-room*, or *miſſing wood*, is when a bowl has free paſſage, without ſtriking on any other; *get off*, is when a bowl being narrow, is wanted to be wider; *bowl beſt at block*, that neareſt the block: *drawing a caſt or bowl*, is to win it by bowling nearer, without ſtirring either the bowl or block; a bowl is ſaid to *rub*, when it meets with ſome obſtacle in the ground, which retards its motion, and weakens its force; *it is gone*, when far beyond the block. *Block* ſignifies a little bowl laid for a mark, alſo called a *jack*. *Mark*, is a proper bowling diſtance, not under a certain number of yards; and at leaſt a yard and a half from the edge of the green. *Ground*, a bag or hankerchief laid down to mark where a bowl is to go. *Lead*, the advantage of throwing the block, and bowling firſt. *Caſt*, is one beſt bowl at an end. *End*, a hit, or when all the bowls are out. The *game*, or *up*, is five caſts or beſt bowls.

(2.) BOWLING, in geography, a village in Yorkſhire, a mile from Bradford.

(3.) * BOWLING. See BOW-LINE, § 1.

BOWLING BAY, a place in the county of Dumbarton, at which the chairman of the committee on the FORTH and CLYDE navigation, after deſcending the laſt lock of the great canal into the Clyde, with the aſſiſtance of Mr Whitworth, performed the ceremony of joining the eaſtern and weſtern ſeas together, by the ſymbol of launching a hogſhead of the water of the Forth into the Clyde, on the 28th July, 1790.

BOWLING BRIDLES, the ropes by which the bow-line is faſtened to the leech of the ſail.

(1.) * BOWLING-GREEN. *n. ſ.* [from *bowl* and *green.*] A level piece of ground, kept ſmooth for bowlers.—A bowl equally poiſed, and thrown upon a plain *bowling-green*, will run neceſſarily in a direct line. *Bentley.*

(2.) BOWLING-GREEN, in gardening, a kind of parterre in a grove, laid with fine turf, requiring to be frequently mowed, laid out in compartments of divers figures, with dwarf trees and other decorations. Bowling-greens are of Engliſh origin, but have been adopted by the French and Italians,

Italians, who have them only for ornament; being unacquainted with, or not fancying the exerciſe, on account of which they were firſt made in England.

(3.) BOWLING-GREEN, THE D. OF ARGYLL'S, a name ironically given to the weſtern range of the Grampian mountains in Argyllſhire, on account of their uncommonly rugged and craggy appearance. *Stat. Acc. Vol.* V. *p* 558.

BOWLTON, a village in Derbyſhire, W. of Alveſton.

BOW-MAKER. See BOWYER, § 2.

* BOWMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *bow* and *man*.] An archer; he that ſhoots with a bow.—The whole city ſhall flee, for the noiſe of the horſemen and *bowmen*. *Jerem.* iv. 29.

BOWMERE, a village in Northumberland, N. of Aylmouth.

(1.) BOWMORE, a thriving village of Argyllſhire, in the iſle of Iſlay. It was only begun in 1768, but being laid out on a regular plan, and an elegant church and ſteeple built in it, (which coſt L 1000,) fronting the quay, it is already become very populous. In 1793, it contained 500 people, and 110 houſes; of which 50 were covered with blue ſlates and 20 with tiles.

(2.) BOWMORE. See KILLARROW.

BOWNESS, a village of Weſtmoreland, pleaſantly ſeated on the lake Winandermere.

BOW-NET, or BOW-WHEEL, an engine for catching fiſh, chiefly lobſters and craw-fiſh, made of two round wicker baſkets, pointed at the end, one of which is thruſt into the other; at the mouth is a little rim, 4 or 5 inches broad, ſomewhat bent inwards. It is alſo uſed for catching ſparrows.

BOWOOD, a village in Dorſetſhire, 2 m. W. of Netherby.

BOW-PIECES, pieces of ordance at the bow of a ſhip.

BOWSDEN, a village in Hertfordſhire, 3 m. S. W. of Buntingford.

To BOWSE, *v. n.* in the ſea language, to *hale* or *pull*. Thus *bowſing upon a tack*, is hailing upon a tack; *Bowſe away*, Pull away all together.

BOW'S-FARM, a village in Middleſex, near Hornſey.

* BOW-SHOT. *n. ſ.* [from *bow* and *ſhot*.] The ſpace which an arrow may paſs in its flight from the bow.—Though he were not then a *bow-ſhot* off, and made haſte; yet, by that time he was come, the thing was no longer to be ſeen. *Boyle.*

(1.) * BOWSPRIT. *n. ſ.* [from the *bow* of a ſhip.] This word is generally ſpelt BOLTSPRIT; which ſee.

(2.) BOWSPRIT carries the ſprit-ſail, ſprit-top-ſail, and jack-ſtaff; and its length is uſually the ſame with that of the fore-maſt.

* To BOWSSEN. *v. a.* [probably of the ſame original with *bouſe*, but found in no other paſſage.] To drench; to ſoak.—The water fell into a cloſe walled plot; upon this wall was the frantick perſon ſet, and from thence tumbled headlong into the pond; where a ſtrong fellow toſſed him up and down, until the patient, by foregoing his ſtrength, had ſomewhat forgot his fury: but if there appeared ſmall amendment, he was *bowſſened* again and again, while there remained in him any hope of life, &c. ——. *Carew's Survey of Cornwall.*

BOWSTEAD, a village in Cumberland, n Burgh-Marſh.

BOWSTERTON, in Yorkſhire 9 m. N. of Barnſley.

* BOWSTRING. *n. ſ.* [from *bow* and *ſtri* The ſtring by which the bow is kept bent.—had twice or thrice cut Cupid's *bowſtring*, the little hangman dare not ſhoot at him. *Sha* —Sound will be conveyed to the ear, by ſtri upon a *bowſtring*, if the horn of the bow be to the ear. *Bacon.*

BOWTELL, a village in Cumberland, S. E Seaton.

BOWTHORP, 2 villages; viz. 1. in Glou ter, N. of Fairford: 2. in Norfolk, W. of Norw

BOWTON, 2 villages: 1. in Norfolk, S. of W. Dereham: 2. in Northumberland, 3 m. of Alnwick.

BOW-WHEEL. See BOW-NET.

(1.) * BOWYER. *n. ſ.* [from *bow*.] An arch one that uſes the bow.—

Call for vengeance from the *bowyer* king. D 2. One whoſe trade is to make bows.

(2.) *A* BOWYER, or BOW-MAKER, was anci ly a diſtinct buſineſs from a FLETCHER, or arr maker. The company of Bowyers was incor rated ſo late as 1620, and conſiſts of a maſte wardens, 12 aſſiſtants, and 30 on the livery.

(3.) BOWYER, William, the moſt lear printer of his age, was born at White Friar London, Dec. 17, 1699. His father, whoſe n alſo was William, had been eminent in the ſ profeſſion; and his maternal grandfather, Ic Dawks, was employed in printing Bp. Walt celebrated Polyglott bible. Having acquire grammatical education under Mr Ambroſe B wicke, he made great advances in literature, a firm attachment commenced betwixt him a his maſter. On the 30th Jan. 1713, his fath whole property being deſtroyed by fire, Mr B wicke generouſly undertook the education of pupil for another year. In 1716, young Bow was admitted a ſizar at St John's college, C bridge, where he continued under Dr Newcom till Jun. 1722. Soon after this he had an oppor nity of repaying Mr Bonwicke's kindneſs, by o ating ſome time after his death, as a ſchoolma for the benefit of his family. He next entered to the printing buſineſs along with his father. O of the firſt books which received the benefit of correction was the complete edition of Selden 3 vols fol. by Dr David Wilkins. It was beg in 1722, and finiſhed in 1726; and Mr Bowyer great attention to it appeared in his drawing u an epitome of Selden *de Synedriis*, as he read t proof-ſheets. In 1727, he drew up an excell ſketch of W. Baxter's Gloſſary of the Roman A tiquities; called "A view of a book intitled *Ra quiæ Baxterianæ*: in a letter to a friend;" 1 ſhe 8vo. By this firſt public proof of his abilities, D Wotton and Mr Clarke were highly pleaſed; but as it was never publiſhed, and very few copies printed, it is very ſeldom found with the gloſſary. In Oct. 1728, he married Miſs Ann Prudom, hi couſin, a very accompliſhed lady, by whom h had two ſons; of whom, William ſurvived him. In 1729, he publiſhed a curious treatiſe, intitled, "A Pattern for young Students in the Univerſity

ſet forth in the Life of Ambroſe Bonwicke, ſome time Scholar of St John's College, Cambridge;" which was generally aſcribed to Mr Bowyer, though it was in reality wrote by Mr Bonwicke the elder. About this time Mr Bowyer had written a pamphlet againſt the Separatiſts, though neither the title nor the occaſion of it are now remembered. The ſame year, through the friendſhip of the R. H. Arthur Onſlow, he was appointed printer of the Votes of the Houſe of Commons; which office he held, for near 50 years. In 1731, he publiſhed, and, it is believed, *tranſlated*, Voltaire's Life of Charles XII. This year alſo his wife dying, he remained a widower till 1747, when he married a worthy woman, Mrs Elizabeth B——y, by whom he had no children. In 1733, he publiſhed in two ſheets 4to, "The Beau and the Antiquarian;" being a tranſlation from a Latin piece recited that year at the Sheldonian theatre; and in 1736, he was admitted into the Society of Antiquarians, where he became an uſeful member. In 1742, he publiſhed a tranſlation of Trapp's Latin Lectures on Poetry, in which he was aſſiſted by Mr Clarke. In 1750, he annexed a ſatisfactory critical diſſertation and ſome notes to Ruhnken's Treatiſe *De uſu verborum mediorum*; a new edition of which, with farther improvements, appeared in 1773. He wrote likewiſe about the ſame time a Latin preface to Leedes's *Veteres poetæ* &c. &c.—Being ſoon after employed to print a new edition of Col. Bladen's tranſlation of Cæſar's Commentaries, that work received conſiderable improvements from Mr Bowyer's hands, with the addition of ſuch notes in it as are ſigned TYPOGR. In the ſubſequent editions of this work, though printed by another perſon during the author's lifetime, the ſame ſignature, though contrary to juſtice, was ſtill retained. In 1751, he wrote a long preface to Monteſquieu's "Reflections on the riſe and fall of the Roman Empire;" tranſlated the parallel between Sylla and Socrates; made ſeveral corrections to the work from the Baron's "Spirit of Laws;" and improved it with his own notes. A new edition, with many new notes, was printed in 1759. In 1751, he alſo publiſhed the firſt tranſlation that ever was made of Rouſſeau's paradoxical oration, which gained the prize of the academy of Dijon in 1750; and which firſt announced that ſingular genius to the attention and admiration of Europe. On the publication of the 3d edition of Lord Orrery's Remarks on the Life and Writings of Dr Swift, in 1752, Mr Bowyer wrote and printed, but never publiſhed, "Two Letters from Dr Bentley in the Shades below, to Lord Orrery in a Land of thick darkneſs." The notes ſigned B. in the 9th 4to vol. of Swift's works are extracted from theſe Letters. In 1753, he endeavoured to allay the ferment occaſioned by the Jew bill; with which view he publiſhed, in 4to, "Remarks on the ſpeech made in common council, on the bill for permitting perſons profeſſing the Jewiſh religion to be naturalized, ſo far as prophecies are ſuppoſed to be affected by it." This little tract was written with ſpirit, and well received by all who were ſuperior to narrow prejudices. Its deſign was to ſhow, that Chriſtianity was in no danger of being prejudiced by the intended protection promiſed to the Jews. The ſame year ſome of Mr Bowyer's notes were annexed to Biſhop Clayton's tranſlation of "A journal from Grand Cairo to mount Sinai and back again." In 1761, Mr Bowyer was appointed printer to the Royal Society, through the intereſt of the E. of Macclesfield; and enjoyed that office till his death. In 1763, Mr Bowyer publiſhed an excellent edition of the Greek Teſtament, in two vols 12mo, which ſold with great rapidity: the Conjectural Emendations were well received by the learned, and are thought valuable. The preſident and fellows of Havard college in Cambridge expreſſed their approbation of this edition in very high terms; and reckoned it, "of more value than many large volumes of the commentators." A ſecond edition of the Conjectures on the New Teſtament, with enlargements, was publiſhed, in one vol. 8vo, in 1772. Dr Warburton's Divine Legation received very conſiderable advantage from Mr Bowyer's corrections; and this even in an edition which was neceſſarily given to another preſs. In 1761 he printed his Doctrine of Grace. In 1765, at the requeſt of Thomas Hollis, Eſq; Mr Bowyer wrote a ſhort Latin preface to Dr Wallis's *Grammatica Linguæ Anglicanæ*. He wrote alſo a large Engliſh preface for it, which, however, ſtill remains unprinted. In 1766 he wrote an excellent Latin preface to *Joannis Harduini, Jeſuitæ, ad Cenſuram Scriptorum veterum Prolegomena. Juxta Autographum.* In 1767 he was appointed to print the Journals of the Houſe of Lords, and the Rolls of Parliament. This year he printed Mr Clarke's learned work on "The Connection of the Roman, Saxon, and Engliſh Coins;" and wrote ſome notes upon it, which are interſperſed with thoſe of the author. Part of the Diſſertation on the Roman ſeſterce was likewiſe Mr Bowyer's production; and the index, which is an uncommonly good one, was drawn up by him entirely. In 1771, he printed a ſmall pamphlet, intitled, "Remarks, occaſioned by a late Diſſertation on the Greek and Roman money." In 1773, he publiſhed 3 little tracts entitled, "Select Diſcourſes. 1. Of the correſpondence of the Hebrew months with the Julian, from the Latin of Profeſſor Michaelis. 2. Of the Sabbatical years, from the ſame. Of the years of jubilee, from an anonymous writer in Maſſon's Hiſtoire Critique de la Republique des Lettres." In 1774 he corrected a new edition of Schrevelius's Greek Lexicon; to which he has added a number of words, diſtinguiſhed by an aſteriſk, which he had collected in the courſe of his ſtudies. Conſiderable additions, ſtill in M. S. were made by him to the lexicons of Hederic and Buxtorf, the Latin ones of Faber and Littleton, and the Engliſh Dictionary of Bailey; and he left behind him many other proofs of his critical ſkill in the learned languages. In 1774 was publiſhed, "The Origin of printing, in two eſſays. 1. The ſubſtance of Dr Middleton's Diſſertation on the Origin of Printing in England. 2. Mr Meerman's Account of the Invention of the Art at Haarlem, and its progreſs to Mentz, with occaſional Remarks; and an Appendix." The original idea of this valuable tract was Mr Bowyer's, but it was completed by Mr Nicholas. During the laſt ten years of his life, he was afflicted with the palſy and ſtone; yet he not only

only preſerved a remarkable cheerfulneſs of temper, but was enabled to ſupport the labour of almoſt inceſſant reading; and he regularly corrected the learned works, eſpecially the Greek books, which came from his preſs. This he continued to do till near his death, which happened in Nov. 1777, in his 78th year. For more than half a century Mr Bowyer was unrivalled as a learned printer; and many of the moſt maſterly productions of this kingdom have come from his preſs. To his literary and profeſſional abilities he added an excellent moral character; and he was particularly diſtinguiſhed by his inflexible probity, and an uncommon alacrity in relieving the neceſſitous.

(1.) * BOX. *n. ſ.* [*bock*, a cheek, Welch.] A blow on the head given with the hand.—For the *box* o' th' ear that the prince gave you, he gave it like a rude prince. *Shakeſpeare.*—If one ſhould take my hand perforce, and give another a *box* on the ear with it, the law puniſheth the other. *Bramhall.*—There may happen concuſſions of the brain from a *box* on the ear. *Wiſeman's Surgery.*—Olphis, the fiſherman, received a *box* on the ear from Theſtylis. *Addiſon's Spectator.*

(2.) * Box. *n. ſ.* [*box*, Sax. *buſte*, Germ.] 1. A caſe made of wood, or other matter, to hold any thing. It is diſtinguiſhed from *cheſt*, as the *leſs* from the *greater*. It is ſuppoſed to have its name from the *box* wood.—A magnet, though but in an ivory *box*, will, through the *box*, ſend forth his embracing virtue to a beloved needle. *Sidney.*—

About his ſhelves
A beggarly account of empty *boxes*. *Shakeſp.*

—The lion's head is open to a moſt wide voracious mouth, which ſhall take in letters and papers. There will be under it a *box*, of which the key will be kept in my cuſtody, to receive ſuch papers as are dropped into it *Steele.*

This caſket India's glowing gems unlocks,
And all Arabia breathes from yonder *box*. *Pope.*

2. The caſe of the mariners compaſs. 3. The cheſt into which money given is put.—

So many more, ſo every one was uſed,
That to give largely to the *box* refuſed. *Spenſer.*

4. The ſeats in the playhouſe, where the ladies are placed.

'Tis left to you, the *boxes* and the pit
Are ſovereign judges of this ſort of wit. *Dryd.*

She glares in balls, front *boxes*, and the ring,
A vain, unquiet, glittering, wretched thing.
Pope.

(3.) Box is alſo uſed for an uncertain quantity or meaſure: thus a box of quickſilver contains from one to 200 lb.; a box of prunellas only 14 lb.; a box of rings for keys, two groſs, &c. See alſo Dice Box, and ſimilar compounds of Box, in their order.

(4.) * Box. *n. ſ.* [*box*, Sax. *buxus*, Lat.] A tree.—The leaves are pinnated, and evergreen; it hath male flowers, that are produced at remote diſtances from the fruit, on the ſame tree; the fruit is ſhaped like a porridge-pot, inverted, and is divided into three cells, containing two ſeeds in each, in which, when ripe, are caſt forth by the elaſticity of the veſſels. The wood is very uſeful for engravers, and mathematical inſtrument-makers; being ſo hard, cloſe, and ponderous, as to ſink in water. [illegible], there are two ſorts of it; the dwarf *box*, and a taller ſort. The dwarf *box* is very good for borders, and is eaſily kept in order, with one clipping in the year. It will increaſe of ſlips ſet in March, or about Bartholomew tide, and will proſper on the declivity of cold, dry, barren, chalky hills, where nothing elſe will grow.

(5.) Box, in botany. See Buxus.

(6.) Box, in geography, a village in Wiltſhire, between Bath and Chippenham.

(7.) Box, in ichthyology, a name given by ſome zoologiſts to the Boops.

(8.) Box and needle, the ſmall compaſs of a theodolite, circumferentor or plain table.

(9.) Box, African. See Myrsine.

(10.) Box, Low. See Polygala.

(1.) * *To* Box. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To incloſe in a box.—

Box'd in a chair, the beau impatient ſits,
While ſpouts run clatt'ring o'er the roof by fits.
Swift.

(2.) * *To* Box. *v. a.* To ſtrike with the fiſt.

(3.) * *To* Box. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To fight with the fiſt.—The aſs very fairly looked on, till they had *boxed* themſelves a-weary, and then left them fairly in the lurch. *L'Eſtrange.*—A leopard is like a cat; he *boxes* with his forefeet, as a cat doth her kittens. *Grew.*—The fighting with man's ſhadow conſiſts in brandiſhing two ſticks, loaden with plugs of lead; this gives a man all the pleaſure of *boxing*, without the blows. *Spectator.*—He hath had ſix duels, and four and twenty *boxing* matches, in defence of his majeſty's title. *Spectator.*

* BOXEN. *n. ſ.* [from *box*.] 1. Made of box.—The young gentlemen learned, before all other things, to deſign upon tablets of *boxen* wood. *Dryden.*—

As lads and laſſes ſtood around,
To hear my *boxen* hautboy ſound. *Gay.*

2. Reſembling box.—

Her faded cheeks are chang'd to *boxen* hue,
And in her eyes the tears are ever new. *Dryden.*

(1.) * BOXER. *n. ſ.* [from *box*.] A man who fights with his fiſt.

(2.) Boxers, among the Romans were called Pugiles. The ancient boxers battled with great force and fury, inſomuch as to daſh out each others teeth, break bones, and often kill each other. The ſtrange diſfigurements theſe boxers underwent were ſuch that they frequently could not be known, and rendered them the ſubject of many railleries. In the Greek anthology there are 4 epigrams of Lucilius, and one of Lucian, wherein their diſfigurements are pleaſantly enough expoſed. See Boxing, § 1.

BOXFORD, 1. a town in Eſſex, 4 S. W. from Hadley: 2. a village in Berkſhire, near Winterborn.

BOXGROVE, a town in Suſſex, near Chicheſter, N. E. of Stour; 4 m. S. W. of Hadley, 8 N. of Colcheſter, 12 S. W. of Ipſwich. It has fairs on Eaſter Monday and St Thomas's day.

BOX-HAULING, in ſea language, a particular method of veering a ſhip, when the ſwell renders tacking impracticable.

BOX-HILL, a town in Surry, near Darking.

BOXHORNIUS, Marc Zuerius, a learned critic; born at Bergen-op-Zoom, in 1612, was profeſſor of eloquence at Leyden, and at length of politics

politics and history in the room of Heinsius. He published, 1. *Theatrum urbium Hollandiæ.* 2. *Scriptores historiæ Augustæ, cum notis.* 3. *Poetæ satyrici minores, cum comment.* 4. Notes on Justin, Tacitus; and a great number of other works. He died in 1653, aged 41.

(1.) BOXING, the exercise of fighting with the fists, either naked or with a stone or leaden ball grasped in them. It coincides with the *pugilatus* of the Romans, and what on our amphitheatres is sometimes called trial of manhood. When the champions had σφαῖραι, or balls, whether of lead or stone, it was properly denominated SPHÆROMACHIA. The ancient boxing differed from the *pugna cæstum*, in which the combatants had leathern thongs in their hands, and balls to hurt their antagonists; though this distinction is frequently overlooked, and fighting with the *cæstus* ranked as a part of the business of *pugiles*. There were 3 species of boxing, viz. 1. where both the head and hands were naked; 2. where the hands were armed, and the head naked; and, 3. where the head was covered with a kind of cap called *amphotides*, and the hands also furnished with the *cæstus*. Boxing is an ancient exercise, having been in use in the heroic ages. Those who prepared themselves for it, used all the means that could be contrived to render themselves fat and fleshy, that they might be better able to endure blows: whence corpulent men or women were usually called *pugiles*. In modern times this art has been in a manner appropriated by the English. Above half a century ago, it formed as regular an exhibition as we now see at any of the places of public amusement, the theatres alone excepted. It was encouraged by the first ranks of the nobility, patronised by the first subject in the realm, and tolerated by the magistrates. Before the establishment of Broughton's amphitheatre, a booth was erected at Tottenham Court, in which the proprietor Mr George Taylor, invited the professors of the art to display their skill, and the public to be present at its exhibition. The bruisers then had the reward due to their prowess, in a division of the entrance-money, which was sometimes L.100 or L.150. The general mode of sharing was for two-thirds to go to the winning champion, while the remaining third was the right of the loser; though sometimes by an express agreement of the parties, the conqueror and the vanquished shared alike. The nobility and gentry having complained of the inconveniences sustained at Taylor's Booth, prevailed on Mr Broughton, who was then rising into note as the first bruiser in London, to build a place better adapted for such exhibitions. This was accordingly done in 1742, principally by subscription, behind Oxford road. The building was called Broughton's New Amphitheatre; and, besides the stage for the combatants, had seats corresponding to the boxes, pit, and galleries. After a course of years, however, these exhibitions became gradually less patronised and frequented, owing probably to the refinement of our manners. Lately, indeed, they seemed to be revived, and for some time considerably engaged the attention of the public; but a fatal issue which attended one of them, brought the practice again into disrepute. One of the combatants was killed on the spot. The Prince of Wales was present, and declared he would have some settlement made on the nearest relation of the deceased, but that on account of the dreadful example he had then witnessed, he would never more either see or patronise another stage fight.

(2.) BOXING, among sailors, is used to denote the rehearsing the several points of the compass in their proper order.

(3.) BOXING is also used for the tapping of a tree to make it yield its juice. The boxing of mapple is performed by making a hole with an ax or chissel into the side of the tree about a foot from the ground; out of it flows a liquor of which sugar is made.

BOXLEY, a village near Maidstone, Kent.

BOXLEYS, in Surry, near Chertsey.

BOXTED, in Essex, W. of Dedham, near Maningtree. It has a fair Whitsun. Tues.

BOXTED-CUM-HARTEST, in Suffolk, 5 m. W. of Lavenham.

BOXTEHUDE, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Bremen, and circle of Lower Saxony, subject to the Danes. It is seated on the rivulet Esse. Lon. 9. 35. E. Lat. 53. 40. N.

BOXTEL, a town in Dutch Brabant, with sluices, seated on the river Bommel; 8 m. S. of Bois-leduc. Lon. 5. 15. E. Lat. 51. 36. N.

BOXTHUDE. See BOXTEHUDE.

BOXWELL, a village in Gloucestershire, 6 m. W. from Tetbury.

BOXUS, a name given by some to the Mistletoe

BOXWORTH, a town 7. m. W. of Cambridge.

* BOY. *n. s.* [*buy*, Germ. The etymology is not agreed on.] 1. A male child; not a girl.—The streets of the city shall be full of *boys* and *girls* playing. *Zech.* 2. One in the state of adolescence; older than an infant, yet not arrived at puberty or manhood.—

Speak thou, *boy*;
Perhaps thy childishness will move him more
Than can our reasons. *Shakesp. Coriolanus.*

Sometimes forgotten things, long cast behind,
Rush forward in the brain, and come to mind:
The nurse's legends are for truths receiv'd,
And the man dreams but what the *boy* believ'd.
Dryden.

3. A word of contempt for young men, as noting their immaturity.—Men of worth and parts will easily admit the familiarity of *boys*, who yet need the care of a tutor. *Locke.*—

The pale *boy* senator yet tingling stands;
And holds his breeches close with both his hands.
Pope.

* *To* BOY. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To treat as a boy.—

Anthony
Shall be brought druken forth, and I shall see
Some squeaking Cleopatra *boy* my greatness,
I' th' posture of a whore. *Shakespeare*

BOYAR, a grandee of Russia and Transylvania. Becman says, that the Boyars are the upper nobility; and have precedence of the WAYWODES.

BOYAU, in fortification, a ditch covered with a parapet, which serves as a communication between two trenches. It runs parallel to the works of the body of the place; and serves as a line of contravallation, not only to hinder the sallies of

the beſieged, but alſo to ſecure the miners. But when it is a particular cut that runs from the trenches to cover ſome ſpot of ground, it is drawn ſo as not to be enfiladed or ſcoured by the ſhot from the town.

BOYCOT, a village in Shropſhire, 3 m. S. E. of Weſtbury.

(1.) BOYD, Mark Alexander, an extraordinary genius, was ſon of Robert Boyd, and grandſon of Adam Boyd of Pinkhill, brother to Lord Boyd. He was born in Galloway in 1562, and came into the world with teeth. He learned the rudiments of the Latin and Greek languages at Glaſgow under two grammarians; but was of ſo high and untractable a ſpirit, that they deſpaired of ever making him a ſcholar. Having quarrelled with his maſters, he beat them both, burnt his books, and forſwore learning. While yet a youth, he followed the court, and did his utmoſt to puſh his intereſt there; but the fervour of his temper ſoon precipitated him into quarrels, from which he came off with honour and ſafety, though frequently at the hazard of his life. He went to ſerve in the French army, and carried his little patrimony with him, which he ſoon diſſipated at play. He was ſhortly after rouſed by that emulation which is natural to great minds, and applied himſelf to letters with unremitted ardour, till he became one of the moſt conſummate ſcholars of his age. He is ſaid to have tranſlated Cæſar's Commentaries into Greek in the ſtyle of Herodotus, and to have written many Latin poems, little inferior to the firſt productions of the Auguſtan age. He alſo left ſeveral MSS. on philological, political, and hiſtorical ſubjects, in the Latin and French, languages as familiar to him as his native tongue. He could with facility dictate to three amanuenſes at the ſame time, in different languages, and on different ſubjects. He was alſo one of the beſt Scottiſh poets of the age. And his perſonal beauty and accompliſhments were equal to his mental ſuperiority. He died at Pinkhill, in 1601. The following works, which are all that have been printed, were publiſhed in *Deliciæ Poetarum Scotorum*; Amſtel. 1637, 12mo. 1. *Epigrammata*, lib. ii. 2. *Heroidum Epiſtolæ* XIV. lib. i. 3. *Hymni* XIV.

(2.) BOYD, Zachary, a clergyman of the church of Scotland, who flouriſhed in the 16th century, about the time of the reformation. We have looked in vain for an account of him in the *Biographia Britannica*, the different *Encyclopædiæ*, *Bayle's Dictionary*, and ſimilar works. He is not even mentioned in *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* of the Univerſity of Glaſgow, which is the more ſurpriſing that he was a liberal Donor to it, as an evidence of which his ſtatue is erected on the front of it. It is a current tradition, that he was very learned and pious, but that his piety led him to the very excentric length of turning the whole bible into rhyme, in the vulgar dialect of the country, to be publiſhed for the benefit (as he intended) of the lower ranks; and that he left a large ſum of money to build the college on the expreſs condition of having his metrical verſion printed; but that his executors were of ſo very different an opinion, from the reverend author, of the tendency of his work, that it has been ever ſince kept carefully locked up under ſeveral keys, held by the different profeſſors, and only ſhown as a curioſity to particular friends. Indeed if the work be of a piece with ſome verſes, which we have heard retailed as quotations from this extraordinary MS. the executors and their ſucceſſors have certainly acted very wiſely in keeping it from the public eye; as the verſification is ſo homely and often ſo indelicate, that the publication would be a complete burleſque on ſacred ſcripture.

BOYDON, a village in Eſſex, 4 miles from Epping and Waltham.

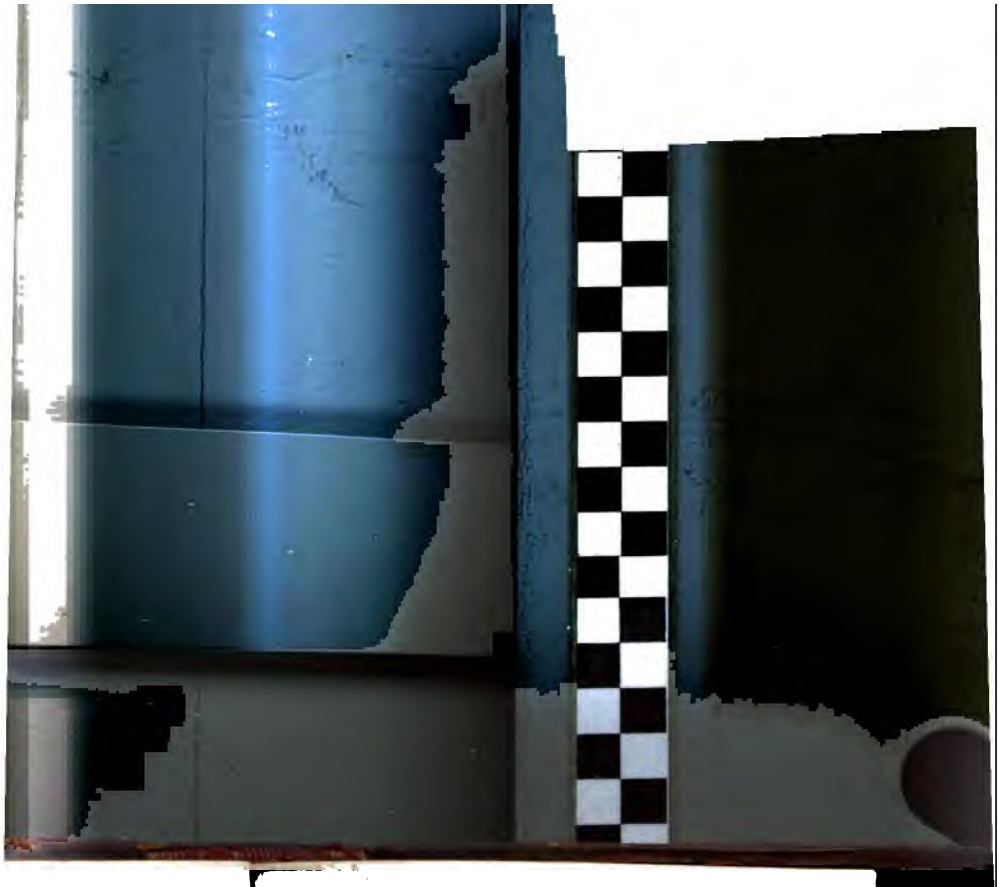
(1.) BOYER, Abel, an eminent gloſſographer and hiſtoriographer, born at Caſtres in France, in 1664. On the revocation of the edict of Nantz, he went firſt to Geneva, then to Franeker, and finally to England, where he applied himſelf ſo cloſely to the ſtudy of the Engliſh language, and made ſo great a proficiency therein, that he became an author of conſiderable note in it, being employed in ſeveral periodical and political works. He, for many years, had the principal management of a newſpaper, called the *Poſt-boy*. He likewiſe publiſhed a monthly work, intitled, the *Political State of Great Britain*. He wrote a life of queen Anne in folio, which is eſteemed a very good chronicle of that period of the Engliſh hiſtory.—But he is moſt famed for his excellent Dictionary and Grammar of the French language, which have been long eſteemed the beſt of their kind. He alſo wrote, or rather tranſlated from the French of M. de Racine, the tragedy of Iphigenia, which he publiſhed under the title of *The Victim*. It was performed with ſucceſs at the theatre of Drury Lane, and affords a ſtrong proof of the abilities of its author. Writing with any degree of correctneſs, even in proſe, in a foreign language, is an excellence not often attained; but to attain ſuch perfection, as to be even ſufferable in poetry, and eſpecially in the Drama, in which the diction and manner of expreſſion require a peculiar dignity and force, and in a language ſo difficult to attain the perfect command of, as the Engliſh, is what has been very ſeldom accompliſhed. He died in 1729.

(2.) BOYER, in navigation, a kind of Flemiſh ſloop, or ſmall veſſel of burden, having a boltſprit, a caſtle at each end, and a tall maſt: chiefly fit for the navigation of rivers, and in many of its parts reſembling a ſmack.

BOYES, idolatrous prieſts among the ſavages of Florida. Every boye attends a particular idol, and the natives addreſs themſelves to the prieſt of that idol to which they intend to pay their devotion. The idol is invoked in hymns, and his uſual offering is the ſmoke of tobacco.

BOYEUPECANGA, in zoology, a large and remarkably thick ſerpent, mentioned by Ray, diſtinguiſhed by prominences on its back. Its poiſon is fatal.

* BOYHOOD. *n. ſ.* [from *boy*.] 1. Belonging to a boy; the part of life in which we are boys. This is perhaps an arbitrary word.—If you ſhould look at him, in his *boyhood*, through the magnifying end of a perſpective, and, in his manhood, through the other, it would be impoſſible to ſpy any difference; the ſame air, the ſame ſtrut. *Swift.*



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* BOYISH. *adj.* [from *boy*.] 1. Belonging to a boy.—

I ran it through, e'en from my *boyiſh* days,
To th' very moment that he bade me tell it.
Shakeſpeare.

2. Childiſh; trifling.—

This unhair'd ſaucineſs, and *boyiſh* troops,
The king doth ſmile at, and is well prepar'd
To whip this dwarfiſh war, theſe pigmy arms.
Shakeſpeare.

—Young men take up ſome Engliſh poet for their model, and imitate him, without knowing where he is defective, where he is *boyiſh* and trifling.
Dryden.

* BOYISHLY. *adv.* [from *boyiſh*.] Childiſhly; trifflingly.

* BOYISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *boyiſh*.] Childiſhneſs; trifling manner.

* BOYISM. *n. ſ.* [from *boy*.] Puerility; childiſhneſs.—He had complained he was farther off, by being ſo near, and a thouſand ſuch *boyiſms*, which Chaucer rejected as below the ſubject.
Dryden.

(1.) BOYLE, Charles, earl of Orrery, and baron Marlton, the 2d ſon of earl Roger, (N° 6.) was born in Auguſt, 1679. He was educated at Chriſt-church in Oxford, and ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his learning and abilities. He was an author, a ſoldier, and a ſtateſman. He tranſlated the life of *Lyſander* from the Greek of Plutarch; and publiſhed a new edition of the epiſtles of Phalaris, which engaged him in a literary diſpute, in which he defended the genuineneſs of thoſe epiſtles againſt Dr Bentley. (See BENTLEY, N° 1. § i.) He was 3 times member for Huntingdon; but his elder brother, Lionel earl of Orrery, dying on the 23d of Aug. 1703, without iſſue, he ſucceeded to that title; and, entering into the Queen's ſervice, had a regiment given him, when he behaved with ſuch bravery, that in 1709, he was raiſed to the rank of major-general, and ſworn one of her majeſty's privy council. At the famous battle of the wood, he gave the ſtrongeſt proofs of his intrepid courage, remaining at the head of his regiment in the warmeſt part of the action, till the victory was complete, which, as it was one of the moſt glorious, ſo it was the deareſt bought, of any of that war. He was appointed the Queen's envoy to Brabant and Flanders; and having honourably diſcharged the truſt, was created a Britiſh Peer, by the titles of Lord Boyle, and baron Marlton. He enjoyed ſeveral other additional honours in the reign of K. George I; but falling under the ſuſpicion of the government, he was committed to the tower: but nothing being found that could be eſteemed a ſufficient ground for a proſecution, he was diſcharged. He died Aug. 21, 1731. To his tutor, Mr Atterbury, he probably owed a good part of that fine reliſh he had for the writings of the ancients. He made theſe his conſtant ſtudy, and expreſſed a high contempt for the greater part of our modern wits and authors. He was delighted with the company of two ſorts of perſons; either ſuch as were really eminent of the firſt rank, who had fine underſtandings, ſtrong judgments, and true taſtes; or ſuch as had a few foibles, and an eye of ridicule in them, which ſpread

would rally theſe in ſo agreeable, and yet in ſo tender a manner, that, though it diverted himſelf and others, it was never offenſive to the perſon rallied. The inſtrument which was invented by him, and bears his name, repreſenting the ſolar ſyſtem according to the ſentiments of the new aſtronomers, is an undeniable proof of his mechanic genius. He had alſo a turn for medicine; which led him not only to read whatever was publiſhed on that ſubject, but alſo to employ his friends to ſend him accounts of herbs and drugs in foreign countries.

(2.) BOYLE, John, earl of Cork and Orrery, a nobleman diſtinguiſhed by his learning and genius, was the only ſon of earl Charles, (N° 1.) and was born on the 2d January, 1707. He was educated at Chriſt-church college in Oxford; but, as he himſelf declares, early diſappointments, indifferent health, and many untoward accidents, rendered him fond of retirement, and of improving his talents for polite literature and poetry; of which laſt art he gave ſeveral excellent ſpecimens. He alſo wrote a Tranſlation of Pliny the Younger's letter, with various notes, for the ſervice of his eldeſt ſon the Lord Boyle, in two volumes, 4to. This was firſt publiſhed in 1751. The year following, he publiſhed the Life of Dean Swift, in ſeveral letters, addreſſed to his ſecond ſon Hamilton Boyle; and afterwards printed Memoirs of Robert Cary earl of Monmouth, a manuſcript preſented to him by a relation, with explanatory notes. He died in 1762.

(3.) BOYLE, Richard, one of the greateſt ſtateſmen of the laſt century, and generally ſtyled the *Great earl of Corke*, was the youngeſt ſon of Mr Roger Boyle, of Herefordſhire, and was born at Canterbury, Oct. 3, 1566. He ſtudied at Bennet college, Cambridge; afterwards became a ſtudent in the Middle Temple. Having loſt his parents, and being unable to ſupport himſelf in the proſecution of his ſtudies, he became clerk to Sir Richard Manhood, chief baron of the exchequer; but finding that by his employment he could not raiſe his fortune, he went to Ireland in 1588, with fewer pounds in his pocket, than he afterwards acquired thouſands a-year. He was then about 22, had a graceful perſon, and many accompliſhments. He ſoon became uſeful to ſeveral perſons employed in the government, by drawing up memorials, caſes, and anſwers. In 1595, he married Joan the daughter of William Anſley, of Pulborough, Eſq; who had fallen in love with him; and the dying in labour of her firſt child, who was born dead, in 1599, left him an eſtate of 500l. a-year in land. Some time after he was accuſed by Sir H. Wallop and others who envied him, of being a ſpy in the pay of the king of Spain; whereupon he was taken up and his papers ſearched; but having fully vindicated himſelf in preſence of Q. Elizabeth, and laid open the villainy of Wallop, ſhe not only liberated him, but appointed him clerk of the council of Munſter, and recommended him to Sir G. Carew, the preſident. After this, by his various ſervices, and the great abilities he diſplayed, he gradually roſe to the higheſt offices, and at laſt to the peerage of Ireland; to which he was raiſed by James I. in 1616, by

viſcount Dungarvan and earl of Cork; and in 1631, was made lord treaſurer of Ireland, an office, that was made hereditary to his family. In 1603, he married Mrs Catherine Fenton, daughter of Sir George Fenton, then Secretary of State. He afterwards diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the noble ſtand he made, when the fatal rebellion broke out in that kingdom, under Charles I; and in his old age acted with as much bravery and military ſkill, as if he had been trained from his infancy to arms. He turned the caſtle of Liſmore, his capital ſeat, into a fortreſs; armed and diſciplined his ſervants and proteſtant tenants; and by their aſſiſtance, and a ſmall army raiſed and maintained at his own expence, which he put under the command of his four ſons, defended the province of Munſter, and in the ſpace of a year took ſeveral ſtrong caſtles, and killed upwards of 3000 of the enemy: during which time he paid his forces regularly; and when all his money was gone, like a true patriot, converted his plate into coin. This great man died in 1643, aged 78.

(4.) BOYLE, Richard, earl of Burlington and Cork, ſon to the former, (N° 3.) was a nobleman of unblemiſhed loyalty and untainted integrity, in times of rebellion and general corruption. He was born at Youghall in 1612. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his loyalty to king Charles I. He not only commanded troops, but raiſed and for a long time paid them, and continued to ſtand up for the king, as long as any one place held out for him in England; till at laſt he was forced to compound for his eſtate. He contributed all in his power to the Reſtoration; on which Charles II. raiſed him to the dignity of earl Burlington, in 1663. He died Jan. 15, 1697-8, aged 86.

(5.) BOYLE, Robert, one of the greateſt philoſophers as well as beſt men that any nation has produced, was the 7th ſon and the 14th child of Richard earl of Cork, (N° 3.) and born at Liſmore, Jan. 25, 1626-7. Before he went to ſchool, he was taught to write a very fair hand, and to ſpeak French and Latin, by one of the earl's chaplains, and a Frenchman that he kept in the houſe. In 1635, his father ſent him over to England, in order to be educated at Eaton ſchool, under Sir Henry Wotton, who was the earl of Cork's old friend and acquaintance. Here he ſoon diſcovered a force of underſtanding which promiſed great things, and a diſpoſition to cultivate and improve it to the utmoſt. While he remained at Eaton, ſeveral extraordinary accidents befel him, three of which were very near proving fatal to him. The firſt was, the ſudden fall of the chamber where he was lodged, while he was in bed; when, beſides the danger he run of being cruſhed to pieces, he had certainly been choaked with the duſt during the time he lay under the rubbiſh, if he had not had preſence of mind enough to have wrapped his head up in the ſheet, which gave him an opportunity of breathing without hazard. A little after this, he had been cruſhed to pieces by a ſtarting horſe that roſe up ſuddenly, and threw himſelf backwards, if he had not happily diſengaged his feet from the ſtirrups, and caſt himſelf from his back before he fell. The 3d accident proceeded from the c[illegible] an apothecary's ſervant, who, [illegible] phials, brought him a ſtrong vomit inſtead of a cooling julep. In 1638, he attended his father to London; and remained with him at the Savoy, till his brother Mr Francis Boyle eſpouſed Mrs Eliſabeth Killigrew; and then, towards the end of October, within four days after the marriage, the two brothers, Francis and Robert, were ſent abroad upon their travels, to France and Geneva, under the care of Mr Marcombes. Mr Boyle, during his ſtay at Geneva, reſumed his acquaintance with the mathematics, or at leaſt with the elements of that ſcience, of which he had before gained ſome knowledge. For he tells us in his memoirs, that while he was at Eaton, and afflicted with an ague, before he was ten years old, by way of diverting his melancholy, they made him read Amadis de Gaul, and other romantic books, which produced ſuch a reſtleſſneſs in him, that he was obliged to apply himſelf to the extraction of the ſquare and cube roots, and to the more laborious operations of algebra, in order to fix and ſettle the volatile operations of his fancy. In Sept. 1641, he quitted Geneva, after having ſpent 21 months in that city; he returned to the continent, and ſpent the winter at Florence. Here he employed his ſpare hours in reading the modern hiſtory in Italian, and the works of the celebrated aſtronomer Galileo, who died in a village near this city during Mr Boyle's reſidence in it. At Florence he acquired the Italian language; which he underſtood perfectly, though he never ſpoke it ſo fluently as the French. Of this indeed he was ſuch a maſter, that he paſſed for a native of that country in more places than one during his travels. About the end of March, 1642, he began his journey from Florence to Rome, which took up but five days. He ſurveyed the numerous curioſities of that city; among which, he tells us, "he had the fortune to ſee Pope Urban VIII. at chapel, with the cardinals, who ſeverally appearing mighty princes, in that aſſembly looked like a company of common friars." He returned to Florence; from thence to Leghorn; and ſo by ſea to Genoa: then paſſing through Nice, he croſſed the ſea to Antibes, where he fell into danger from refuſing to honour the crucifix: from thence he went to Marſeilles by land. He was in that city, in May, 1642, when he received his father's letters, which informed him that the rebellion had broken out in Ireland, and how difficultly he had procured the 2501. then remitted to them in order to help them home. They never received this money; and were obliged to go to Geneva with their governor Marcombes, who ſupplied them with as much at leaſt as carried them thither. They continued there a conſiderable time, without either advice or ſupplies from England; upon which Marcombes was obliged to take up ſome jewels upon his own credit, which were afterwards diſpoſed of with as little loſs as might be; and with the money thus raiſed, they continued their journey for England, where they arrived in 1644. On their arrival, Mr Boyle found his father dead; and though the earl had made an ample proviſion for him, by leaving him his manor of Stalbridge in England, as well as other conſiderable eſtates in Ireland, yet it was ſome time before he could receive any money. However, he procured protections for his eſtate

assistance of those great men, particularly Edward Pocock, Mr Thomas Hyde, and Narcissus Marsh, all of great eminence for their skill in the oriental languages. He had also a friendly correspondency with Dr Thomas Barlow, afterwards bishop of Lincoln, a man of various and extensive learning. In 1659, Mr Boyle, being acquainted with the unhappy circumstances of the learned

gion or philoſophy. In 1665 came forth, 8. Occaſional reflections upon ſeveral ſubjects; 8vo. This piece is addreſſed to *Sophronia*, under whoſe name he concealed that of his beloved ſiſter the viſcounteſs of Ranelagh. The thoughts themſelves are on a vaſt variety of ſubjects, written many years before; ſome indeed upon trivial occaſions, but all with great accuracy of language, much wit, more learning, and in a wonderful ſtrain of moral and pious reflection. Yet this expoſed him to the only ſevere cenſure that ever was paſſed upon him; and that too from no leſs a man than the celebrated Dean Swift, who, to ridicule theſe diſcourſes, wrote *A pious meditation upon a broomſtick, in the ſtyle of the honourable Mr Boyle.* But as his noble relation Lord Orrery ſaid, "To what a height muſt the ſpirit of ſarcaſm ariſe in an author, who could prevail on himſelf to ridicule ſo good a man as Mr Boyle? The ſword of wit, like the ſcythe of time, cuts down friend and foe, and attacks every object that lies in its way. But, ſharp and irreſiſtible as the edge of it may be, Mr Boyle will always remain invulnerable." The ſame year, he publiſhed an important work, intitled, 9. New experiments and obſervations upon cold, 1665, 8vo. In 1666, he publiſhed, 10. Hydroſtatical paradoxes made out by new experiments, for the moſt part phyſical and eaſy, in 8vo. 11. The origin of forms and qualities, according to the corpuſcular philoſophy, illuſtrated by conſiderations and experiments. This treatiſe did great honour to Mr Boyle, whether we conſider the quickneſs of his wit, the depth of his judgment, or his indefatigable pains in ſearching after truth. At this time he alſo communicated to his friend Mr Oldenburgh, who was ſecretary to the royal ſociety, ſeveral excellent ſhort treatiſes of his own, upon a great variety of ſubjects, and others tranſmitted to him by his learned friends both at home and abroad, which are printed and preſerved in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. In 1668, Mr Boyle reſolved to ſettle in London for life; and removed for that purpoſe to the houſe of his ſiſter, the lady Ranelagh, in Pall-Mall. This was to the infinite benefit of the learned in general, and particularly to the advantage of the royal ſociety, to whom he gave great and continual aſſiſtance, as the ſeveral pieces communicated to them from time to time, and printed in their Tranſactions, abundantly teſtify. Thoſe who applied to him, either to deſire his help, or to communicate to him any new diſcoveries in ſcience, he had his ſet hours for receiving; otherwiſe it is eaſy to conceive that he would have had very little of his time for himſelf. But, beſides theſe, he kept a very extenſive correſpondence with perſons of the greateſt figure, and moſt famous for learning, in all parts of Europe. In 1669, he publiſhed, 12. A continuation of new experiments touching the weight and ſpring of the air; to which is added, A diſcourſe of the atmoſpheres of conſiſtent bodies: and the ſame year he reviſed and made many additions to ſeveral of his former tracts, ſome of which were now tranſlated into Latin, to gratify the curious abroad. 13. Tracts about the coſmical qualities of things; coſmical ſuſpicions; the temperature of the ſubterraneous regions; the bottom of the ſea; to which is prefixed an introduction to the hiſtory of particular qualities. This book occaſioned much ſpeculation, as it ſeemed to contain a vaſt treaſure of knowledge which had never been communicated to the world before; and this too grounded upon actual experiments, and arguments juſtly drawn from them, inſtead of that notional and conjectural philoſophy which in the beginning of the 17th century had been ſo much in faſhion. In 1671, he publiſhed, 14. Conſiderations on the uſefulneſs of experimental and natural philoſophy; part 2d, 4to. 15. A collection of tracts upon ſeveral uſeful and important points of practical philoſophy, 4to. 16. An eſſay about the origin and virtues of gems, 1672, 8vo. 17. A collection of tracts upon the relation between flame and air; and ſeveral other uſeful and curious ſubjects: beſides furniſhing, in this and the former year, a great number of ſhort diſſertations upon a vaſt variety of topics, addreſſed to the royal ſociety, and inſerted in their Tranſactions. 18. Eſſays on the ſtrange ſubtilty, great efficacy, and determinate nature, of effluvia; to which were added a variety of experiments on other ſubjects; 1673, 8vo. 19. A collection of tracts upon the ſaltneſs of the ſea, the moiſture of the air, the natural and preternatural ſtate of bodies; to which is prefixed a dialogue concerning cold; 1674, 8vo. 20. The excellency of theology compared with philoſophy, 1673, 8vo. This diſcourſe was written in 1665, while Mr Boyle, to avoid the great plague which then raged in London, was forced to go from place to place in the country, and had little or no opportunity of conſulting his books. It contains a great number of curious and uſeful, as well as juſt and natural, obſervations. 21. A collection of tracts containing ſuſpicions about hidden qualities of the air; with an appendix touching celeſtial magnets; animadverſions upon Mr Hobbes's problem about a vacuum; a diſcourſe of the cauſe of attraction and ſuction; 1674, 8vo. 22. Some conſiderations about the reconcileableneſs of reaſon and religion. By T. E. a layman. To which is annexed a diſcourſe about the poſſibility of the reſurrection. By Mr Boyle, 1675, 8vo. Both theſe pieces were of his writing, only he thought fit to mark the former with the final letters of his name. Among other papers that he communicated this year to the royal ſociety, there were two connected into one diſcourſe on quickſilver growing hot with gold. Both of them contained diſcoveries of the utmoſt importance. In 1676, he publiſhed, 23. Experiments and notes about the mechanical origin or production of particular qualities, in ſeveral diſcourſes on a great variety of ſubjects, and among the reſt on electricity. In 1678, he communicated to Mr Hook a ſhort memorial of ſome obſervations upon an artificial ſubſtance that ſhines without any preceding illuſtration; which that gentleman thought fit to publiſh in his *Lectiones Cutlerianæ*. 24. Hiſtorical account of a degradation of gold made by an anti-elixir. This made a great noiſe both at home and abroad, and is looked upon as one of the moſt remarkable pieces that ever fell from his pen; ſince the facts contained in it would have been eſteemed incredible, if they had been related by a man of leſs integrity and piety than Mr Boyle. The

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regard which the great Newton had for Mr Boyle, appears from a very curious letter, which the former wrote to him, at the latter end of this year, for the ſake of laying before him his ſentiments of that etherial medium, which he afterwards conſidered in his Optics as the cauſe of gravitation. This letter is to be found in Dr Birch's Life of Mr Boyle. In 1680, he publiſhed, 25. The aerial noctiluca; or ſome new phenomena, and a proceſs of a factitious ſelf-ſhining ſubſtance, 8vo. This year the royal ſociety, as a proof of the juſt ſenſe of his great worth, and of the conſtant and particular ſervices which through a courſe of many years he had done them, made choice of him for their preſident; but he being extremely tender in point of oaths, he declined the honour, by a letter addreſſed to "his much reſpected friend Mr Robert "Hooke, profeſſor of mathematics at Greſham "College." 26. Diſcourſe of things above reaſon; inquiring, whether a philoſopher ſhould admit any ſuch; 1681, 8vo. 27. New experiments and obſervations upon the icy noctiluca: to which is added a chemical paradox, grounded upon new experiments, making it probable that chemical principles are tranſmutable, ſo that out of one of them others may be produced, 1682, 8vo. 28. A continuation of new experiments, phyſico-mechanical, touching the ſpring and weight of the air, and their effects, 1682, 8vo. In 1683, he publiſhed nothing but a ſhort letter to Dr Beale, in relation to the making of freſh water out of ſalt. In 1684, he publiſhed two very conſiderable works, *viz.* 29. Memoirs for the natural hiſtory of human blood, eſpecially the ſpirit of that liquor, 8vo; and, 30. Experiments and conſiderations about the porofity of bodies, &c. In 1685, Mr Boyle obliged the world with, 31. Short memoirs for the natural experimental hiſtory of mineral waters, with directions as to the ſeveral methods of trying them; including abundance of new and uſeful remarks, as well as ſeveral curious experiments. 32. An eſſay on the great effects of even languid and unheeded motion; whereunto is annexed an experimental diſcourſe of ſome hitherto little regarded cauſes of the ſalubrity and inſalubrity of the air and its effects. None of his treatiſes, it is ſaid, were ever received with greater or more general applauſe than this. 33. Of the reconcileableneſs of ſpecific medicines to the corpuſcular philoſophy; to which is annexed a diſcourſe about the advantages of the uſe of ſimple medicines; 8vo. Beſides theſe philoſophical tracts, he gave the world the ſame year, an excellent theological one, 34. Of the high veneration man's intellect owes to God, peculiarly for his wiſdom and power, 8vo. In 1686, came abroad his, 35. Free inquiry into the vulgarly received notion of nature; a piece which was then, and will always be, greatly admired by thoſe who have a true zeal and reliſh for pure religion and philoſophy. In 1687, he publiſhed, 36. The martyrdom of Theodora and Didymia; a work he had drawn up in his youth. 37. A diſquiſition about the final cauſes of natural things; wherein it is inquired, whether, and (if at all) with what caution, a naturaliſt ſhould admit them; with an appendix about vitiated light; 1688, 8vo. In May this year he complained to the public of ſome inconveniences under which he had long laboured; This he did by an advertiſement, about "the loſs of many of his writings addreſſed to J. W. to be communicated to thoſe of his friends that are virtuoſi; which may ſerve as a kind of preface to moſt of his mutilated and unfiniſhed writings." He complains in this advertiſement of the treatment he had met with from plagiaries both at home and abroad; and though it might have been difficult in any other man to have done ſo, without incurring the imputation of ſelf-conceit and vanity, yet Mr Boyle's manner is ſuch as only to raiſe in us a higher eſteem and admiration of him. This advertiſement is inſerted at length in his life by Birch. He began now to find that his health and ſtrength, notwithſtanding all his care and caution, gradually declined, which put him upon uſing every poſſible method of huſbanding his remaining time. With this view, he no longer communicated particular diſcourſes, or new diſcoveries, to the royal ſociety; becauſe this could not be done without withdrawing his thoughts from taſks which he thought of ſtill greater importance. The more ſteadily to attend to theſe, he reſigned his poſt of governor of the corporation for propagating the goſpel in New England; nay, he went ſo far as to ſignify to the world that he could no longer receive viſits as uſual, in an advertiſement, which begins in the following manner: "Mr Boyle finds himſelf obliged to intimate to thoſe of his friends and acquaintance, that are wont to do him the honour and favour of viſiting him, 1. That he has by ſome unlucky accidents, namely, by his ſervant's breaking a bottle of oil of vitriol over a cheſt which contained his papers, had many of his writings corroded here and there, or otherwiſe ſo maimed, that, without he himſelf fill up the lacunæ out of his memory or invention, they will not be intelligible. 2. That his age and ſickneſs have for a good while admoniſhed him to put his ſcattered and partly defaced writings into ſome kind of order, that they may not remain quite uſeleſs. And, 3. That his ſkillful and friendly phyſician, Sir Edmund King, ſeconded by Mr Boyle's beſt friends, has preſſingly adviſed him againſt ſpeaking daily with ſo many perſons as are wont to viſit him, repreſenting it as what cannot but waſte his ſpirits, &c. He ordered likewiſe a board to be placed over his door, with an inſcription ſignifying when he did, and when he did not, receive viſits." Among the other great works, which by this means he gained time to finiſh, there is reaſon to believe, that one was a collection of elaborate proceſſes in chemiſtry; concerning which he wrote to a friend, that "he left it as a kind of hermetic legacy to the ſtudious diſciples of that art." Beſides theſe papers he left many others relating to chemiſtry; which, by a letter to one of his executors, he deſired might be inſpected by 3 phyſicians whom he named, and that ſome of the moſt valuable might be preſerved. In the mean time, he publiſhed, 38. *Medicina Hydroſtatica*; or, Hydroſtatics applied to the materia medica, ſhowing how, by the weight that divers bodies uſed in phyſic have in water, one may diſcover whether they be genuine or adulterated. To which is ſubjoined a previous hydroſtatical way of eſtimating ores, 1690, 8vo. 39. The Chriſtian virtuo-

ſo;

ſo; ſhewing, that, by being addicted to experimental philoſophy, a man is rather aſſiſted than indiſpoſed to be a good Chriſtian. To which are ſubjoined, 1. A diſcourſe about the diſtinction that repreſents ſome things as above reaſon, but not contrary to reaſon. 2. The firſt chapters of a diſcourſe intitled *Greatneſs of mind promoted by Chriſtianity*. The laſt work which he publiſhed himſelf, was in the ſpring of 1691; and is intitled, 4o. *Experimenta et Obſervationes Phyſicæ*: wherein are briefly treated ſeveral ſubjects relating to natural philoſophy in an experimental way. To which is added a ſmall collection of ſtrange reports, 8vo. On the 18th of July, 1691, he ſigned and ſealed his laſt will. In October, his diſtempers increaſed; on the 31ſt Dec. 1691, he died aged 65. He was buried at Weſtminſter, on the 7th Jan. and his funeral ſermon was preached by Bp. Burnet. The biſhop made choice upon this occaſion of a text very appoſite to the ſubject; namely, "For God giveth to a man that is good in his ſight, wiſdom, knowledge, and joy. *Eccleſ.* xi. 26." After explaining the words, he applied the doctrine to the honourable perſon deceaſed; of whom, he tells us, he was the better able to give a character from the many happy hours he had ſpent with him in the courſe of 29 years. He gives a large account of Mr Boyle's ſincere and unaffected piety; and more eſpecially of his zeal for the Chriſtian religion, without having any narrow notions concerning it, or miſtaking, as ſo many do, a bigotted heat in favour of a particular ſect, for that zeal which is an ornament of a true Chriſtian. He mentions, as a proof of this, his noble foundation for lectures in defence of the goſpel againſt infidels of all ſorts; the effects of which have been ſo conſpicuous in many volumes of excellent diſcourſes which have been publiſhed in conſequence of that pious foundation. He was at the charge of the tranſlation and impreſſion of the New Teſtament into the Malayan tongue, which he ſent over all the Eaſt Indies. He gave a noble reward to him that tranſlated Grotius's incomparable book "Of the truth of the Chriſtian religion," into Arabic; and was at the charge of a whole impreſſion, which he took care ſhould be diſperſed in all the countries where that language was underſtood. He was reſolved to have carried on the impreſſion of the New Teſtament in the Turkiſh language; but the company thought it became them to be the doers of it, and ſo ſuffered him only to give a large ſhare towards it. He ſpent 700l. on the edition of the Iriſh bible, which he ordered to be diſtributed in Ireland; and he contributed liberally to the impreſſion of the Welſh bible. He gave, during his life, 300l. to advance the propagation of the Chriſtian religion in America; and as ſoon as he heard that the Eaſt India company were entertaining propoſitions for the like deſign in the eaſt, he ſent 100l. for a beginning, as an example, but intended to carry it much farther when it ſhould be ſet on foot to purpoſe. In other reſpects his charities were ſo bountiful and extenſive, that they amounted to upwards of 1000l. a-year. To this extract from the biſhop, we may add a ſhort eulogium by the celebrated Dr Herman Boerhaave; who, after having declared lord Bacon to be the father of experimental philoſophy, ſays, that "Mr Boyle, the ornament of his age and country, ſucceeded to the genius and inquiries of the great chancellor Verulam. Which of all Mr Boyle's writings ſhall I recommend? All of them. To him we owe the ſecrets of fire, air, water, animals, vegetables, foſſils: ſo that from his works may be deduced the whole ſyſtem of natural knowledge." It is worth remarking, that Mr Boyle was born the ſame year in which lord Bacon died. As to his perſon he was tall, but ſlender; and his countenance pale and emaciated. His conſtitution was ſo delicate, that he had different cloaks to put on when he went abroad, according to the temperature of the air; and in this he governed himſelf by his thermometer. He eſcaped indeed the ſmall-pox; but for almoſt 40 years he laboured under ſuch feebleneſs of body, and ſuch lowneſs of ſtrength and ſpirits, that it was aſtoniſhing how he could read, meditate, make experiments, and write, as he did. He had likewiſe a weakneſs in his eyes; which made him very tender of them, and extremely apprehenſive of ſuch diſtempers as might affect them. He imagined likewiſe, that if ſickneſs ſhould confine him to his bed, it might raiſe the pains of the ſtone to a degree which might be above his ſtrength to ſupport; ſo that he feared his laſt minutes ſhould be too hard for him. This was the ground of all the caution and apprehenſion with which he was obſerved to live; but as to life itſelf, he had that juſt indifference for it which becomes a philoſopher and a Chriſtian. However, his ſight began to grow dim not above 4 hours before he died; and when death came upon him, he had not been above 3 hours in bed before it made an end of him, with ſo little pain that the flame appeared to go out merely for want of oil to maintain it. Mr Boyle was never married; but Mr Evelyn was aſſured, that he courted the beautiful and ingenious daughter of Cary earl of Monmouth, and that to this paſſion was owing his *Seraphic Love*. In the memorandum of Mr Boyle's life ſet down by Bp. Burnet, it is remarked that he abſtained from marriage, at firſt out of policy, afterwards more philoſophically. His poſthumous works, are, 1. "The general Hiſtory of the air deſigned and begun. 2. "General heads for the natural hiſtory of a country, great or ſmall; drawn out for the uſe of travellers and navigators." 3. "A paper of the honourable Robert Boyle's, depoſited with the ſecretaries of the Royal Society, Oct. 14th, 1680, and opened ſince his death; being an account of his making the phoſphorus, Sept. 30th, 1680." Printed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. 4. "An account of a way of examining waters, as to freſhneſs or ſaltneſs." 5. "A free diſcourſe againſt cuſtomary ſwearing, and a diſſuaſive for curſing," 1695, 8vo. 6. "Medicinal experiments, or a collection of choice remedies, chiefly ſimple and eaſily prepared, uſeful in families, and fit for the ſervice of the country people. The 3d and laſt volume, publiſhed from the author's original M. S. whereunto is added ſeveral uſeful notes explicatory of the ſame," 1698, 12mo. Beautiful editions of all his works have been printed at London, in 5 vols folio, and 6 vols 4to.

(6.) BOYLE, Roger, earl of Orrery, the 5th ſon of

of earl Richard, (N° 4.) was born in 1621; and by the credit of his father with the lord deputy Falkland, raiſed to the dignity of *baron Broghill*, when only 7 years old. He was educated at the college of Dublin, where he ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a promiſing genius. He afterwards made the tour of France and Italy; and at his return aſſiſted his father in oppoſing the rebellious Iriſh; in which he behaved with all the ſpirit of a young, and all the diſcretion of an old, officer. Upon the death of the king, he retired to Marſton, in Somerſetſhire, and hid himſelf; but being at length aſhamed to ſit the tame ſpectator of all the miſchief that appeared round him, he reſolved to attempt ſomething in favour of the king; and under the pretence of going to Spa for his health, he determined to croſs the ſeas, and apply to king Charles II. for a commiſſion to raiſe what forces he could in Ireland, in order to reſtore his majeſty, and recover his own eſtate. To this purpoſe, he prevailed on the earl of Warwick to procure a licence for his going to the Spa; and having raiſed a conſiderable ſum of money, came up to London to proſecute his voyage: but he had not been long in town when he received a meſſage from Cromwell, who was then general of the parliament's forces, that he intended to wait upon him. Lord Broghill was ſurpriſed at this meſſage, having never had the leaſt acquaintance with Cromwell; and deſired the gentleman to let the general know, that he would wait upon his excellency. But while he was waiting the return of the meſſenger, Cromwell entered the room; and after mutual civilities, told him, that the committee of the ſtate were appriſed of his deſign of applying to Charles Stuart for a commiſſion to raiſe forces in Ireland; and that they were determined to make an example of him, if he himſelf had not diverted them from that reſolution. Lord Broghill aſſured him, that the intelligence which the committee had received was falſe, and that he neither was in a capacity, nor had any inclination to raiſe diſturbances in Ireland: but Cromwell, inſtead of making any reply, drew out of his pocket copies of ſeveral letters, which lord Broghill had ſent to thoſe in whom he moſt confided, and put them into his hands. Broghill, upon the peruſal of theſe papers, finding it to no purpoſe to diſſemble, aſked his excellency's pardon for what he had ſaid, returned him thanks for his protection againſt the committee, and intreated his direction how to behave in ſuch a delicate conjuncture. Cromwell told him, that though till this time he had been a ſtranger to his perſon, he was not ſo to his merit and character; he had heard how gallantly his lordſhip had behaved in the Iriſh wars; and therefore, ſince he was named *lord lieutenant of Ireland*, and the reducing that kingdom was now become his province, he had obtained leave of the committee to offer his lordſhip the command of a general officer, if he would ſerve in the war; and he ſhould have no oaths or engagements impoſed upon him, nor be obliged to draw his ſword againſt any but the Iriſh rebels. Broghill was infinitely ſurpriſed at ſo generous and unexpected an offer. He ſaw himſelf at liberty, by all the rules of honour, to ſerve againſt the Iriſh, whoſe rebellion and barbarities were equally deteſted by the royal party and the parliament. He deſired, however, ſome time to conſider of what had been propoſed to him. But Cromwell briſkly told him, that he muſt come to ſome reſolution that very inſtant: that he himſelf was returning to the committee who were ſtill ſitting; and if his lordſhip rejected their offer, they had determined to ſend him to the tower. Upon this, lord Broghill, finding that his liberty and life were in the utmoſt danger, gave his word and honour that he would faithfully ſerve him againſt the Iriſh rebels; on which Cromwell once more aſſured him, that the conditions which he had made with him would be punctually obſerved; and then ordered him to repair to Briſtol, adding, that he himſelf would ſoon follow him into Ireland. Lord Broghill, therefore, went over into that country; where, by his conduct and intrepidity, he performed many important ſervices, and fully juſtified the opinion Cromwell had conceived of him. By his own intereſt he now raiſed a gallant troop of horſe, conſiſting chiefly of gentlemen attached to him by perſonal friendſhip; which corps was ſoon increaſed to a complete regiment of 1500 men. Theſe he led into the field againſt the Iriſh rebels; and was ſpeedily joined by Cromwell, who placed the higheſt confidence in his new ally, and found him of the greateſt conſequence to the intereſt of the commonwealth. Among other conſiderable exploits performed by Lord Broghill, the following deſerves to be particularly mentioned. Whilſt Cromwell laid ſiege to Clonwell, Broghill being detached to diſperſe a body of 5000 men who had aſſembled to relieve the place, he, with 2000 horſe and dragoons, came up with the enemy at Maecrooms on the 10th of May 1650; and without waiting for the arrival of his foot, immediately attacked, and routed them, making their general priſoner. Then proceeding to the caſtle of Carrigdroghid, he ſent a ſummons to the garriſon to ſurrender before the arrival of his battering cannon, otherwiſe they were to expect no quarter. His own army was ſurpriſed at this ſummons, knowing he had not one piece of heavy cannon; but Broghill had ordered the trunks of ſeveral large trees to be drawn at a diſtance by his baggage horſes; which the beſieged perceiving, and judging from the ſlowneſs of the motion that the guns muſt be of a vaſt bore, immediately capitulated. He afterwards relieved Cromwell himſelf at Clonwell, where that great commander happened to be ſo dangerouſly ſituated, that he confeſſed, nothing but the ſeaſonable relief afforded him by lord Broghill could have ſaved him from deſtruction. When Ireton ſat down before Limeric, he gave Broghill 600 foot and 400 horſe, with orders to prevent lord Muſkerry's joining the pope's nuncio, who had got together a body of 8000 men, and was determined to attempt the relief of Limeric. Muſkerry was at the head of 1000 horſe and dragoons, and about 2000 foot: notwithſtanding which lord Broghill fell reſolutely upon him. The Iriſh, having the advantage of the ground and numbers, would have conquered, but for a ſtratagem of lord Broghill. In the heat of the action he deſired thoſe about him to repeat what he ſaid; and then cried out as loud as he could, "They run, they run." The firſt line

of the Iriſh looked round to ſee if their rear was broke; and the rear ſeeing the faces of their friends, and hearing the ſhouts of the enemy, imagined that the firſt line was routed, and fled. The taking of Limeric, which put an end to the war in Ireland, was the conſequence of this defeat. When Cromwell became protector, he ſent for lord Broghill, merely to take his advice occaſionally. And we are told, that, not long after his coming to England, he formed a project for engaging Cromwell to reſtore the old conſtitution. The baſis of the ſcheme was to be a match between the king (Charles II.) and the protector's daughter. As his lordſhip maintained a ſecret correſpondence with the exiled monarch and his friends, it was imagined that he was beforehand pretty ſure that Charles was not averſe to the ſcheme, or he would not have ventured to have propoſed it ſeriouſly to Cromwell; who at firſt ſeemed to think it not unfeaſible. He ſoon changed his mind, however, and told Broghill that he thought his project impracticable: "For (ſaid he) Charles can never forgive me the death of his father." In fine, the buſineſs came to nothing, although his lordſhip had engaged Cromwell's wife and daughter in the ſcheme; but he never durſt let the protector know that he had previouſly treated with Charles about it. On the death of the protector, lord Broghill continued attached to his ſon Richard, till he ſaw that the honeſty and good nature of that worthy man would infallibly render him a prey to his many enemies; and he did not think it adviſeable to ſink with a man whom he could not ſave. The dark clouds of anarchy ſeemed now to be hovering over the Britiſh iſland. Lord Broghill ſaw the ſtorm gathering, and he deemed it prudent to retire to his command in Ireland, where he ſhortly after had the ſatisfaction of ſeeing things take a turn extremely favourable to the deſign he had long been a well-wiſher to, viz. that of the king's reſtoration. In this great event lord Broghill was not a little inſtrumental; and, in conſideration of his eminent ſervices in this reſpect, Charles created him Earl of Orrery by letters patent bearing date September 5, 1660. He was ſoon after made one of the lords juſtices of Ireland; and his conduct, while at the head of affairs in that kingdom, was ſuch as greatly added to the general eſteem in which his character was held before. His lordſhip's active life at length brought upon him ſome diſeaſes and infirmities which gave him much pain and uneaſineſs; and a fever which fell into his feet, joined to the gout with which he was often afflicted, abated much of that vigour which he had ſhown in the early part of his life: but his induſtry and application were ſtill the ſame, and bent to the ſame purpoſes; as appears from his letters, which ſhow at once a capacity, and an attention to buſineſs, which do honour to that age. Notwithſtanding his infirmities, on the king's deſiring to ſee him in England, he went over in 1665. He found the court in ſome diſorder, the king being on the point of removing the great earl Clarendon, lord high chancellor; and there being alſo a great miſunderſtanding between the two royal brothers. Lord Orrery reconciled the king with the duke of York, by prevailing on the latter to aſk his majeſty's pardon for ſome ſteps he had taken in ſupport of the lord chancellor. On his return to Ireland, he found himſelf called to a new ſcene of action. The Dutch war was then at its height; and the French, in confederacy with the Hollanders, were endeavouring to ſtir up rebellion in Ireland. The duke de Beaufort had formed a ſcheme for a deſcent upon Ireland; but this was rendered abortive by the extraordinary diligence, military ſkill, and prudent meaſures, of lord Orrery. But in the midſt of all his labours, a diſpute aroſe, founded on a mutual jealouſy of each other's greatneſs, betwixt him and his old friend the duke of Ormond, then lord lieutenant; the bad effects of which were ſoon felt by both diſputants, who reſorted to England to defend their reſpective intereſts and pretenſions, both having been attacked by ſecret enemies who ſuggeſted many things to their prejudice. This quarrel, though of a private beginning, became at laſt of a public nature; and producing firſt an attempt to frame an impeachment againſt the duke of Ormond, occaſioned in the end, by way of revenge, an actual impeachment againſt the earl of Orrery. He defended himſelf, however, ſo well againſt a charge of high crimes, and even of treaſon itſelf, that the proſecution came to nothing. He nevertheleſs loſt his public employments; but not the king's favour: he ſtill came frequently to court, and ſometimes to council. After this he made ſeveral voyages to and from Ireland; was often conſulted by the king on affairs of the utmoſt conſequence; and on all occaſions gave his opinion and advice with the freedom of an honeſt plain-dealing man and a ſincere friend; which the king always found him, and reſpected him accordingly. In 1678, being attacked more cruelly than ever by his old enemy the gout, he gave the ſtrongeſt proofs of Chriſtian patience, manly courage, and rational fortitude, and breathed his laſt on the 16th Oct. 1679, in the 59th year of his age. He wrote, 1. A work intitled *The Art of War*. 2. Parthenifſa, a romance, in one volume folio. 3. Several Poems. 4. Dramatic pieces, in two volumes. 5. State tracts, in one volume folio, &c. Mr Walpole, ſpeaking of this nobleman, ſays, he never made a bad figure but as a poet. As a ſoldier, his bravery was diſtinguiſhed, his ſtratagems remarkable. As a ſtateſman it is ſufficient to ſay that he had the confidence of Cromwell. As a man he was grateful, and would have ſupported the ſon of his friend: but like Cicero and Richelieu, he could not be content without being a poet; though he was ill qualified, his writings of that kind being flat and trivial.

(7.) BOYLE. See ABBEY-BOYLE.

BOYLE'S LECTURES, a courſe of 8 ſermons or lectures preached annually, ſet on foot by the hon. R. BOYLE (N° 5.) by a codicil annexed to his will in 1691; whoſe deſign, as expreſſed by the inſtitutor, is, to prove the truth of the Chriſtian religion againſt infidels, whithout deſcending to any controverſies among Chriſtians; and to anſwer new difficulties, ſcruples, &c. For the ſupport of this lecture he aſſigned the rent of his houſe in Crooked Lane to ſome learned divine within the bills of mortality, to be elected for a term not exceeding 3 years, by the late Abp. Tenniſon and others.

others. But the fund proving precarious, the salary was ill paid; to remedy which inconveniences, the archbishop procured a yearly stipend of 50l. for ever, to be paid quarterly, charged on a farm in the parish of Brill in the county of Bucks. To this appointment we are indebted for many defences of natural and revealed religion.

BOYLSTON, a village 10 m. SW. of Derby.

BOYN, a river of Scotland, in Banffshire.

BOYNDIE, a parish of Scotland, in Banffshire.

BOYNDLIE, a district in Aberdeenshire.

BOYNE, a river in Ireland, which rises in Queen's county, and runs NE. by Trim and Cavan, falling at last into the Irish channel a little below Drogheda. It is memorable for a battle fought on its banks between James II. and William III. in which the former was defeated.

BOYNTON, a village in Yorkshire, near Bridlington.

BOYOLO, a town of Italy, in Mantua.

(1.) BOYS, } or Bois, John, one of the transBOYSE, } lators of the Bible in the reign of James I. was the son of William Bois, rector of West Stowe, and born at Nettlestead in Suffolk, in 1560. He was taught the rudiments of learning by his father; and his capacity was such, that at 5 years of age he read the Bible in Hebrew.—At 14 he was admitted of St John's college, Cambridge, where he distinguished himself by his skill in Greek. Happening to have the small-pox when he was elected fellow, he, to preserve his seniority, caused himself to be carried in blankets to be admitted. He for some time studied medicine; but, finding himself affected with every disease he read of, he quitted that science. He was ten years chief Greek lecturer in his college, and read every day. He voluntarily read a Greek lecture for some years at 4 in the morning, in his own chamber, which was frequented by many of the fellows. On the death of his father, he succeeded him in the rectory. At the age of 36, he married the daughter of Mr Holt, rector of Boxworth, whom he succeeded in that living Oct. 13, 1596. On his quitting the university, the college gave him L.100. His young wife proved a bad economist, and he himself being wholly addicted to his studies, he soon became so much involved in debt, that he was obliged to sell his choice collection of books, consisting of almost every Greek author then extant. When a new translation of the Bible was by K. James I. directed to be made, Mr Bois was elected one of the Cambridge translators. He performed not only his own, but also the part assigned to another, with great reputation; though with no profit, for he had no allowance but his commons. He was also one of the six who met at Stationers Hall to revise the whole; which task they went through in 9 months, having each from the company of stationers, during that time, 30s. a-week. He afterwards assisted Sir Henry Saville in publishing the works of St Chrysostom. In 1615, Dr Lancelot Andrews, Bp. of Ely, bestowed on him, unasked, a prebend in his church. He died 14th Jan. 1643, aged 84. He left many MSS. particularly a commentary on almost all the books of the New Testament.—When he was a young student at Cambridge, he received from the learned Dr Whitaker three rules for avoiding those distempers which usually attend a sedentary life, to which he adhered with equal constancy and success. The first was, To study always standing; the second, Never to study in a window; and the third, Never to go to bed with his feet cold.

(2.) BOYSE, Joseph, a late eminent dissenting minister in Dublin, much respected not only for learning and abilities, but for extensive humanity and undissembled piety. During his ministerial charge at Dublin, he published many sermons, which compose several folio volumes, a few poems, and other tracts; but what chiefly distinguished him as a writer, was the controversy he carried on with Dr King, archbishop of Dublin, and author of the *Origin of Evil*, concerning the office of a scriptural bishop. This controverted point was managed on both sides with great force of argument and calmness of temper. The bishop asserted, that the episcopal right of jurisdiction had its foundation in the New Testament; Mr Boyse, consistent with his principles, denied that any ecclesiastical superiority appeared there, with the greatest candour and good manners.

(3.) BOYSE, Samuel, the son of Joseph, (N° 2.) was a man remarkable for the fineness of his genius, the lowness of his manners, and the wretchedness of his life. He was born in 1708, and received the rudiments of his education in Dublin. When he was 18 years old, his father sent him to the university of Glasgow, to finish his education. He had not been a year at the university, when he fell in love with a daughter of a tradesman of that city, and interrupted his education by marrying her before he had entered his 20th year. His extravagance soon exposed him to want; and obliged him to quit the university, and go over with his wife and her sister to Dublin, where they relied on the old gentleman for support. Young Boyse had no graces of person, and fewer still of conversation. Never were three people of more libertine characters, than young Boyse, his wife, and sister-in law; yet the two ladies wore such a mask of decency before the old gentleman, that his fondness never abated. The estate his father possessed in Yorkshire was sold to discharge his debts; and when the old man lay in his last sickness, he was entirely supported by presents from the congregation, and buried at their expence. We have no farther account of Mr Boyse till we find him soon after his father's death at Edinburgh, where his poetical genius raised him many friends, and some patrons of eminence. He published a volume of poems in 1731, to which he subjoined *The Tablature of Cebes*, and *A Letter upon Liberty*, inserted in the *Dublin Journal*, 1726; and by these he obtained a very great reputation. They were addressed to the countess of Eglinton. This amiable lady was the patroness of all men of wit, and greatly distinguished Mr Boyse while he remained in Scotland. Upon the death of the viscountess Stormont, Mr Boyse wrote an elegy, which was very much applauded by her ladyship's relations. This elegy he intitled *The Tears of the Muses*, as the deceased lady was a woman of the most refined taste, and a great admirer of poetry.—Lord Stormont was so much pleased this mark of esteem paid to the memory

lady, that he ordered a very handſome preſent to be given to Mr Boyſe by his attorney at Edinburgh. The notice which lady Eglinton and lord Stormont took of him, recommended him likewiſe to the ducheſs of Gordon; who was ſo ſolicitous to raiſe him above neceſſity, that ſhe employed her intereſt in procuring the promiſe of a place for him. She gave him a letter, which he was next day to deliver to one of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at Edinburgh. It happened that he was then ſome miles diſtant from the city; and the morning on which he was to have rode to town with her grace's letter of recommendation proved to be rainy. This ſlender circumſtance was enough to diſcourage Boyſe, who never looked beyond the preſent moment: he delayed going to town on account of the rainy weather; and while he let ſlip the opportunity, the place was beſtowed upon another, after the commiſſioner had kept it for ſome time vacant, in expectation of ſeeing a perſon recommended by the ducheſs. Boyſe at laſt, having defeated all the kind intentions of his patrons, fell into contempt and poverty, which obliged him to quit Edinburgh. He communicated his deſign of going to London to the ducheſs of Gordon, who having ſtill a very high opinion of his poetical abilities, gave him a letter of recommendation to Mr Pope, and obtained another for him to Sir Peter King the lord chancellor of England. Lord Stormont recommended him to the ſolicitor-general his brother, and to many other perſons of the firſt faſhion. Upon receiving theſe letters, he, with great caution, quitted Edinburgh, regretted by none but his creditors. Upon his arrival in London, he went to Twickenham, to deliver the ducheſs of Gordon's letter to Mr Pope; but that gentleman not being at home, Mr Boyſe never gave himſelf the trouble to repeat his viſit. He wrote poems; but thoſe, though excellent in their kind, were loſt to the world, by being introduced with no advantage. He had ſo ſtrong a propenſity to grovelling, that his acquaintance were generally of ſuch a caſt as could be of no ſervice to him; and thoſe in a higher life he addreſſed by letters, not having ſufficient confidence or politeneſs to converſe familiarly with them. Thus unfit to ſupport himſelf in the world, he was expoſed to various diſtreſſes, from which he could invent no means of extricating himſelf but by writing mendicant letters. It will appear amazing, that a man of ſo abject a ſpirit was voluptuous and luxurious; he had no taſte for any thing elegant, and yet was to the laſt degree expenſive. Often when he had received a guinea in conſequence of a ſupplicating letter, he would go into a tavern, order a ſupper to be prepared, drink of the richeſt wines, and ſpend all the money that had juſt been given him in charity, without having any one to participate the regale with him, and while his wife and child were ſtarving at home! About 1740, Mr Boyſe, reduced to the laſt extremity of human wretchedneſs, had not a ſhirt, a coat, or any kind of apparel, to put on; the ſheets in which he lay were carried to the pawn-brokers, and he was obliged to confined to his bed with no other covering than a blanket. He had little ſupport but what writing letters to his friends in the moſt abject ſtyle; but was perhaps aſhamed to let this inſtance of his diſtreſs be known, which probably was the occaſion of his remaining ſix weeks in that ſituation. During this time he had ſome employment in writing verſes for the magazines; and whoever had ſeen him in his ſtudy, muſt have thought the object ſingular enough; he ſat up in bed with the blanket wrapt about him, through which he cut a hole large enough to admit his arm, and placing the paper upon his knee, ſcribbled in the beſt manner he could the verſes he was obliged to make: whatever he got by theſe, or any other of his begging letters, was but juſt ſufficient for the preſervation of life. And perhaps he would have remained much longer in this diſtreſsful ſtate, had not a compaſſionate gentleman, upon hearing this circumſtance related, ordered his clothes to be taken out of pawn, and enabled him to appear again abroad. About the year 1745, Mr Boyſe's wife died, and he pretended much concern when he heard of her death. He was then at Reading, compiling a Review of the moſt material tranſactions at home and abroad during the war; in which he included a ſhort account of the rebellion. Upon his return from Reading, his behaviour was more decent than it had ever been before; and there were ſome hopes that a reformation, though late, would be wrought upon him. He was employed by a bookſeller to tranſlate *Fenelon on the Exiſtence of God*; during which time he married a ſecond wife, a woman in low circumſtances, but well enough adapted to his taſte. He began now to live with more regard to his character, and ſupported a better appearance than uſual; but while his circumſtances were mending, and his irregular appetites loſing ground, his health declined. He had the ſatisfaction, while in this lingering illneſs, to obſerve a poem of his, intitled *The Deity*, recommended by two eminent writers, the ingenious Mr Fielding, and the Rev. Mr Harvey, author of the *Meditations*. Mr Boyſe's mind was often ridiculouſly expoſed; and he probably ſuffered much from remorſe of conſcience. The early impreſſions of his good education were never entirely obliterated; and his whole life was a continued ſtruggle between his will and his reaſon. It was in conſequence of this war in his mind, that he wrote a beautiful poem called *The Recantation*. In May 1747, he died in obſcure lodgings in Shoe-lane; but in ſentiments very different from thoſe in which he had ſpent the greateſt part of his life. An old acquaintance of his endeavoured to collect money to defray the expences of his funeral, ſo that the ſcandal of being buried by the pariſh might be avoided: but in vain; the remains of this ſon of the muſes were, with very little ceremony, hurried away by the pariſh officers. Never was a life ſpent with leſs grace, and never were diſtinguiſhed abilities given to leſs purpoſe. His genius was not confined to poetry only. He had a taſte for painting, muſic, and heraldry. His poetical pieces, if collected, would make ſix moderate volumes. Many of them are ſcattered in *The Gentleman's Magazine* marked with the letter *Y*, and *Alceus*. Two volumes were publiſhed in London. An ode, in the manner of Spenſer, intitled *The Olive*, was addreſſed to Sir Robert Walpole, which procured him

him a preſent of 10 guineas. He tranſlated a poem from the High Dutch of Van Haren, in praiſe of peace, upon the concluſion of that made at Aix-la-Chapelle; but the poem which procured him the greateſt reputation was that upon the attributes of the Deity. He was employed by Mr Ogle to tranſlate ſome of Chaucer's tales into modern Engliſh, which he performed with great ſpirit, and received at the rate of three pence a line for his trouble. Mr Ogle publiſhed a complete edition of that old poet's *Canterbury Tales modernized*; and Mr Boyſe's name is put to ſuch tales as were done by him. In 1743, Mr Boyſe publiſhed, without his name, an ode on the battle of Dettingen, intitled *Albion's Triumph*.

BOYSTLY, *adv. obſ.* Rudely; roughly. *Chauc.*

BOYTHORP, a village in Yorkſhire, NE. of Butterwick.

BOYTON, the name of 2 Engliſh villages, viz. 1. in Cornwall, near Tamerton: 2. in Norfolk, NE. of Blowfield: 3. in Suffolk, E. of Woodbridge: and, 4. in Wiltſhire, 6 m. N. of Hindon.

BOYUNA, in zoology, the name of an American ſpecies of ſerpent. It is very long and ſlender, and all over of a black colour. It has exactly the ſmell of a fox, but ſo ſtrong that nobody can endure to be near it. *Ray.*

BOZEZ, a rock in Judæa.

BOZIET, a village in Northamptonſhire, near Oundey.

BOZOLA. See BOZZOLO.

(1.) BORRAH, BEZER, or *Boſtra*, a city of Judæa, ſeated on a plain, about the SE. border of the land of Reuben, near the ſource of the Arnon. It was a city of refuge, (Joſh. xx. 8.) and was taken by the Moabites, during the declenſion of the kingdom of Iſrael. It was afterwards ravaged by the Chaldeans. It was rebuilt however, and a Chriſtian church early planted in it, which continued till the Arabians took it under Mahomet's ſucceſſors. The emperor Trajan favoured it, and called it PHILIPPOPOLIS.

(2.) BOZRAH, the capital of Edom, ſituated about 150 m. from the former, (N° 1.) It was very ancient, and was the birth place of Jobab, king of Edom. It was ravaged by the Aſſyrians; afterwards by the Chaldeans, and at laſt by Judas Maccabæus. It is mentioned in that remarkable prophecy, in Iſa. lxiii. 1. Not a veſtige of it now remains.

(1.) BOZZOLO, or BOZOLA, a territory of Mantua, which was ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, till Feb. 1797, when Mantua was taken by the French republican army.

(2.) BOZZOLO, the capital of the above territory, 12 miles SW. of Mantua. Lon. 11. 5. E. Lat. 45. 42. N.

* BP. An abbreviation of biſhop.

B QUADRO, QUADRATO, or *Durale*, in muſic, called by the French, *b quarre*, from its ſquare figure, See Plate XLVI. fig. 3. This is what we call B *natural* or *ſharp*, in diſtinction to B *mol* or *flat*. See FLAT and SHARP. If the flat, fig. 4. be placed before a note in the thorough baſs, it intimates, that its third is to be minor; and if placed with any cypher over a note in the baſs, fig. 5 or 6, it denotes, that the fifth or ſixth thereof are to be flat. But if the quadro be placed over any note, or with a cypher, in the thorough baſs, it has the contrary effect: for thereby the note or interval thereto is raiſed to its natural order.

BRAABIN, a hill in Caithneſs.

BRAAN, or BRAN, a river of Scotland, in Perthſhire, which falls into the Tay, a little above Dunkeld.

BRAB. See BOMBAY, § 12.

BRABANCIONES, in writers of the middle age, a kind of Netherland ſoldiery, infamous for rapine, being little better than commiſſioned banditti, who hired themſelves to fight for any that could pay them beſt. The word is written in various forms by the hiſtorians of thoſe days; but all derived from Brabant, which was the chief nurſery of theſe troops. They are alſo frequently confounded with the *Routiers*, *Raturiers*, *Ruptarii*, *Ruterorii*, *Corteraux*, &c.

BRABANT, a large ci-devant province of the Netherlands, now incorporated with the French republic, and conſtituting, (we ſuppoſe,) the new department of DYLE; BRUSSELS being the capital of that department, as it was formerly of the province. The greateſt part of it was ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria: the remainder, of which BREDA is the capital, belonging to the Dutch. It was bounded on the W. by Flanders and Zealand; on the N. by Holland; on the NE. by Guelderland; on the E. by Liege; on the S. by Namur; and on the SW. by Hainault. It contains 26 fortified towns, and the country is very fertile. Its principal rivers are the Scheldt, the Dommel, and the Lys.

* BRABBLE. *n. ſ.* [*brabbelen*, Dutch.] A clamorous conteſt; a ſquabble; a broil.—

Here in the ſtreets, deſperate in ſhame and ſtate,
In private *brabble* did we apprehend him.
Shakeſpeare.

* *To* BRABBLE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To clamour; to conteſt noiſily.

* BRABBLER. *n. ſ.* [from *brabble*.] A clamorous, quarrelſome, noiſy fellow.

BRABE, an herb mentioned by Oribaſius, which grows a cubit high, ſhooting forth branches on each ſide, with leaves reſembling thoſe of the LEPIDIUM, but ſofter and whiter, and at the top bearing an umbel of flowers like the elder.

BRABEJUM, the AFRICAN ALMOND: a genus of the monœcia order, belonging to the polygamia claſs of plants. In the male, the corolla is four-parted: there are 4 ſtamina inverted in the throat; the ſtyle is bifid and abortive: The female has a four-parted corolla, revoluted upwards, with 4 ſtamina, one piſtil with two ſtigmas; the fruit is a roundiſh drupa with a globular ſeed. Of this genus there is but one ſpecies, viz.

BRABEJUM STELLATIFOLIUM, the ſtar-leafed African almond, a native of the Cape of Good Hope. In Europe it ſeldom grows above 8 or 9 feet high, but in its native ſoil is a tree of a middling growth. It riſes with an upright ſtem, which is ſoft, and full of pitch within, and covered with brown bark. The leaves come out all round the branches at each joint: they are indented at their edges, ſtanding on very ſhort foot-ſtalks. The flowers are produced towards the end of their ſhoots,

ſhoots, which are of a pale colour inclining to white. They may be propagated, though with difficulty, by layers made in April: but they are often two years before they produce roots ſtrong enough to be taken from the plants. When the branches are laid down, it is proper to ſlit them at the point, to promote their taking root. In winter they ſhould have a good greenhouſe; but in ſummer they ſhould be placed abroad in a ſheltered ſituation.

BRABEUTÆ, or BRABEUTES, [from βραβευω, a prize,] in antiquity, officers among the Greeks, who preſided at the public games, and decided controverſies that happened among the antagoniſts in the gymniſtical exerciſes. The number of Brabeutæ was not fixed; ſometimes there were only one, but more commonly they amounted to nine or ten. Some authors confound them with the Agonothetæ, but they were different. See AGONOTHETA.

BRABORN, a town in Kent, 5 miles E. of Aſhborn.

BRABROOKE, a village in Northamptonſhire, between Kettering and Harborough.

BRABSTER, a diſtrict of Caithneſs, in which there are the ruins of an ancient chapel.

BRABY, a village in Yorkſhire, between New Malton, and Kirby-Moorſide.

BRACADALE, a pariſh of Scotland, on the coaſt of Inverneſs, extending about 26 miles in length, and from 6 to 10 in breadth. The ſurface is hilly; the climate healthy, though moiſt, and the ſoil pretty fertile, but fitter for paſturage than agriculture. It produces oats, barley, potatoes, and much natural graſs; upon which black cattle, ſheep, and horſes are fed. The breed of theſe laſt are ſmall. The population in 1791, by the rev. Mr Roderick M'Leod's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2250, and had increaſed 343, ſince 1755, notwithſtanding repeated emigrations. Four harbours and as many iſlands belong to the pariſh.

BRACCÆ, [Lat.] The ancient Highland *truiſh* or trouſers. Hence ſome derive the Engliſh word, *breeches*.

(1.) BRACCIANO, a lake of Italy, 12 miles N. of Rome.

(2.) BRACCIANO, a town in the pope's dominions, ſeated on the W. ſide of the lake, N° 1. Lon. 13. 4. Lat. 42. 6.

BRACCIOLINI, Francis, an Italian poet, a native of Poſtoia, and the friend of Pope Urban VIII. He wrote 1. an epic poem, intitled, The croſs reconquered, under the emperor Heraclius. 2. The mockery of the Pagan gods: a heroic poem. 3. The election of Pope Urban VIII. in 25 books. He died about 1644, aged 80.

BRACCO, in old records, a large hound.

(1.) * BRACE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Cincture; bandage. 2. That which holds any thing tight.—The little bones of the ear-drum do in ſtraining and relaxing it, as the *braces* of the war-drum do in that. *Derham.* 3. BRACE. [In architecture.] Is a piece of timber framed in with bevil joints, uſed to keep the building from ſwerving either way. *Builder's Dict.* 4. BRACES. [a ſea term.] Ropes belonging to the yards, except the mizen. They have a pendant to the yard-arm, two *braces* to each yard; and, at the end of the pendant, a block is ſeized, through which the rope called the *brace* is reeved. The *braces* ſerve to ſquare and traverſe the yards. *Sea Dict.* 5. BRACES *of a Coach.* Thick ſtraps of leather on which it hangs. 6. Harneſs. 7. BRACE. [in printing.] A crooked line incloſing a paſſage, which ought to be taken together, and not ſeparately; as in a triplet.—

Charge Venus to command her ſon,
Where ever elſe ſhe lets him rove,
To ſhun my houſe, and field and grove;
Peace cannot dwell with hate or love.
Prior.

8. Warlike preparations; from *bracing* the armour; as we ſay, *girded* for the battle.—

As it more concerns the Turk than Rhodes,
So may he with more facile queſtion bear it;
For that it ſtands not in ſuch warlike *brace*,
But altogether lacks th' abilities
That Rhodes is dreſs'd in. *Shakeſpeare.*

9. Tenſion; tightneſs.—The moſt frequent cauſe of deafneſs is the laxneſs of the tympanum, when it has loſt its *brace* or tenſion. *Holder.*

(2.) * BRACE. *n. ſ.* [of uncertain etymology, probably derived from *two braced* together.] 1. A pair; a couple. It is not *braces*, but *brace*, in the *plural*.—

Down from a hill, the beaſts that reign in woods,
Firſt hunter then, purſu'd a gentle *brace*,
Godlieſt of all the foreſt, hart and hind.
Paradiſe Loſt.

Ten *brace* and more of greyhounds, ſnowy fair,
And tall as ſtags, ran looſe and cours'd around his chair. *Dryden's Fables.*

2. It is generally uſed in converſation as a ſportſman's word.—He is ſaid, this ſummer, to have ſhot with his own hands fifty *brace* of pheaſants. *Addiſon.* 3. It is applied to men in contempt.—

But you, *brace* of lords, were I ſo minded,
I here could pluck his highneſs' frown upon you. *Shakeſpeare.*

(3.) BRACE, in architecture. (See § 1. *def.* 3.) When the brace is framed into the kingleſſes or principal rafters, it is by ſome called a *ſtrut*.

(4.) BRACE, in ſea language. (See § 1. *def.* 4.) To brace the yard, is to bring it to either ſide. All braces come aftward on; as, the main brace comes to the poop, the main top ſail brace comes to the mizen top and thence to the main ſhrouds; the fore and fore top-ſail braces come down by the main and main top-ſail ſtay, and ſo of the reſt. But the mizen bowline ſerves to brace to the yard; and the croſs-jack braces are brought forwards to the main ſhrouds, when the ſhip ſails cloſe by a wind.

(5.) BRACE, or BRASSE, a foreign meaſure, anſwering to our fathom. See FATHOM.

* *To* BRACE. *v. a.* [*embraſſer*, Fr.] 1. To bind; to tie cloſe with bandages.—The women of China, by *bracing* and binding them from their infancy, have very little feet. *Locke.* 2. To intend; to make tenſe; to ſtrain up.—The tympanum is not capable of tenſion that way, in ſuch a manner as a drum is *braced*. *Holder.*—The diminution of the force of the preſſure of the external air, in *bracing* the fibres, muſt create a debility in muſcular motion. *Arbuthnot on Air.*

BRACEBY,

BRACEBY, a village in Lincolnſhire, W. of Fokingham.

BRACED, in heraldry, is uſed in ſpeaking of chevrouels which are intermingled.

(1.) * BRACELET. *n. ſ.* [*bracelet*, Fr.] 1. An ornament for the arms.—Both his hands were cut off, being known to have worn *bracelets* of gold about his wriſts. *Sir J. Hayward.*—

Tie about our tawny wriſts
Bracelets of the fairy twiſts. *Ben Jonſon.*

—A very ingenious lady uſed to wear, in rings and *bracelets*, ſtore of thoſe gems. *Boyle.* 2. A piece of defenſive armour for the arm.

(1.) BRACELETS were much uſed among the ancients. They were made of different materials, and in different faſhions, according to the age and quality of the wearer. Menage derives the word from BRACELETUM, a diminutive of *bracile*, a word occurring in writers of the Juſtinian age; all formed from the Latin *brachium*, *arm*. It amounts to the ſame with what was called by the ancients, *armilla*, *brachiale*, or *occabus*; in the middle age, *boga*, *bouga*, and *armiſpatha*. Bracelets are much worn by the ſavages of Africa, who are ſaid to be ſo exceſſively fond of them, as to give the richeſt commodities, and even their fathers, wives, and children, in exchange for thoſe made of no richer materials than ſhells, glaſs-beads, and the like. They form alſo, in modern civilized countries, a very common part of the ornaments of the ladies.

BRACELETUM. See laſt article.

BRACEMEAL, a village in Shropſhire, S. of Shrewſbury.

BRACENARIUS, *n. ſ.* in old records, a huntſman; the maſter of the hounds.

* BRACER. *n. ſ.* [from *brace*.] 1. A cincture; a bandage.—When they affect the belly, they may be reſtrained by a *bracer*, without much trouble. *Wiſeman.* 2. A medicine of conſtringent power.

BRACETUS, *n. ſ.* [old law Lat.] a beagle.

* BRACH. *n ſ.* [*braque*, Fr.] A bitch hound.—Truth's a dog muſt to kennel; he muſt be whipped out, when the lady *brach* may ſtand by the fire, and ſtink. *Shakeſpeare.*

BRACHERIUM, or BRACHERIOLUM, } a ſteel bandage, uſed for the retention and cure of ruptures.

BRACHIÆUS. See BRACHIALIS.

(1.) * BRACHIAL. *adj.* [from *brachium*, an arm, Lat.] Belonging to the arm.

(2.) BRACHIAL NERVES, the nerves of the arm. See ANATOMY, § 500—506, and *Plate* VIII. *fig.* 5. with § 587.

BRACHIALIS, or BRACHIÆUS, the name of a muſcle. See ANATOMY, § 212.

BRACHIONUS, in entomology, a genus of animalcules of the claſs of ARTHRODIA, comprehending all the VORTICELLÆ, or WHEEL ſpecies. See ANIMALCULE, § 16. and *Plate* XI. *fig.* 11—24.

BRACHITÆ, a branch of the ſect of MANICHEES, who appeared in the third century.

(1.) BRACHIUM, in anatomy, the ARM. See ANATOMY, § 148. 211—213.

(2.) BRACHIUM. See BOTANY, GLOSSARY.

BRACHMA. See BRAMA, and next article.

BRACHMANS, or BRACHMINS, } a branch of the ancient Gymnoſophiſts, or philoſophers of India, remarkable for the ſeverity of their lives and manners. See GYMNOSOPHISTS. Some ſay they derive their name from the patriarch Abraham, whom they call in their language BRACHMA, or BRAMA. Others deduce it from the name of their god BRACHMA; which ſome again take to be the ſame with Abraham: whence Poſtel calls them *Abrachamanes*. F. Thomaſſin derives it from the Hebrew *barach*, to fly or eſcape; becauſe the Brachmans retire into the country and live in deſerts; or, to bleſs or pray; as this is their principal occupation. The Greeks aſcribed to them the doctrine of the immortality of the ſoul, and certain notions concerning the nature of the Supreme Being, and future rewards and puniſhments. To this ſpecies of knowledge the Brachmans added an infinite number of religious obſervances, which were adopted by Pythagoras in his ſchool; ſuch as faſting, prayer, ſilence, and contemplation. They were looked upon as the friends of the gods, becauſe they affected to pay them ſo much regard; and as the protectors of mankind, becauſe they paid them no regard at all. No bounds was therefore ſet to the reſpect that were ſhown them: princes did not ſcruple to conſult theſe recluſes upon any critical conjuncture, from a ſuppoſition that they were inſpired; ſince it was impoſſible to imagine that they had the advantages of experience. There might, however, be among them ſome men of real virtue, who reliſhed the pure delights of ſcience; and who were capable of raiſing their thoughts to the contemplation of the Firſt Being. There appear ſtill ſome remains of the ancient brachmans in the eaſt, under the denomination of Bramins. See BRAMINS.

BRACHURUS, in zoology, a name given by Dr Hill to a genus of animalcules of a roundiſh figure, with tails ſhorter than their bodies: Their ſkin is perfectly ſmooth, thin, and colourleſs. They are frequent in water-ponds in pepper-water, and other infuſions of vegetable ſubſtances. See ANIMALCULES, § 5.

BRACHYCATALECTION, in poetry, [from βραχυς, ſhort, and καταλγω, to end,] a verſe wanting a ſyllable at the end.

BRACHYCOLON, [from βραχυς, and κωλον, a member,] a period wherein one member is ſhorter than another.

(1.) * BRACHYGRAPHY. *n. ſ.* [βραχυς, ſhort, and γραφω, to write.] The art or practice of writing in a ſhort compaſs.—All the certainty of thoſe high pretenders, bating what they have of the firſt principles, and the word of God, may be circumſcribed by as ſmall a circle as the creed, when *brachygraphy* had confined it within the compaſs of a penny. *Granville.*

(2.) BRACHYGRAPHY. See SHORT HAND.

BRACHYLOGY, [from βραχυς, and λογος, expreſſion,] in rhetoric, the expreſſing any thing in the moſt conciſe manner. This, ſo far as is conſiſtent with perſpicuity, is a beauty; but if obſcurity be the conſequence, which is often the caſe, it becomes an inexcuſable defect.—Quintilian gives an inſtance of brachylogy from Salluſt: *Mithridates corpore ingenti perinde armatus*; "Mithridates, as it were, armed with the hugeneſs of his ſtature."

BRACHY-

BRACHYPOTÆ, c

BRACHYPOTI, drink but little and ſ who drink ſeldom, tho

BRACHYPTERA, a to denote thoſe hawks v ſhort as not to reach to this kind are the goſe-ha

BRACHYPYRENIA, nucleus,] in the natural h deptariæ, with a roundiſh n.

BRACHYTELOSTYL [from βραχυς, ſhort, στιλος, column,] the name by wh cryſtals which are compoſe column, terminated at each pyramid. See CRYSTAL.

BRACINUM, [old law L

(1.) BRACK, a lake in K bounding with a peculiar and trouts; which meaſure from weigh 8 or 10 lb. each.

(2.) * BRACK. *n. ſ.* [from *br* broken part.—The place was *bracks* fair; but the defendan ſupplied all the defects. *Hay* compare my work with what ſchools, and if they find in thei ſhort ends, which cannot be ſ piece, and, in mine, a fair coher I ſhall promiſe myſelf an acquiet

To BRACK, *v. a.* [Dutch.] T

BRACKENBURGH, a town i

BRACKENFIELD, a village NW. of Alfreton.

BRACKENHILL, in Berkſhire, ingham and Sunning-hill.

BRACKENSTOWN, a town miles from Dublin.

(1.) * BRACKET. *n. ſ.* [a term o A piece of wood fixed for the ſupp thing.—Let your ſhelves be laid up being about two feet wide, and aged lath. *Mortimer.*

(2.) BRACKETS, in gunnery, the ch carriage of a mortar. They are made planks of wood, of almoſt a ſemicircl and bound round with thin iron plates; fixed to the beds by 4 bolts, which are *bolts*; they riſe up on each ſide of the mo ſerve to keep at it any elevation, by means ſtrong iron bolts, called *bracket bolts*, w through theſe cheeks or brackets.

(3.) BRACKETS, in ſhips, the ſmall kne ving to ſupport the galleries, and commo wed. Alſo the timbers that ſupport the g in the head.

* BRACKISH. *adj.* [*brack*, Dutch.] Salt; what ſalt: it is uſed particularly of the wat the ſea.—Pits upon the ſea ſhore turn into water, by percolation of the ſa the but it is farther noted, af wat ſuch pits will become

When I had

A lake of *bra* nd,
Was all
The *Herbe*
Mix'd intent,
ſon'd all the ſea.

ſ. The ſum was laid
who, with the aſſiſ
raham and Mr B
as complete a c
ts, as the m
deſire.
nce,

from Juſtinian. It was printed at London in 1569, folio; and in 1640, 4to. The firſt is very incorrect.

BRACYD, *adj. obſ.* braced; elapſed. *Chauc.*

(1.) BRAD, a town of Sclavonia, ſeated on the N. ſide of the river Save. Lon. 18. 40. E. Lat. 45. 20. N.

(2.) * BRAD, being an initial, ſignifies *broad*, *ſpurious*, from the Saxon, *brad*, and the Gothick, *braid*. *Gibſon.*

(3.) * BRAD. *n. ſ.* A ſort of nail to floor rooms with. They are about the ſize of a tenpenny nail, but have not their heads made with a ſhoulder over their ſhank, as other nails, but are made pretty thick towards the upper end, that the very top may be driven into, and buried in the board they nail down; ſo that the tops of theſe *brads* will not catch the thrums of the mops, when the floor is waſhing. *Moxon.*

(4.) BRADS are diſtinguiſhed by iron-mongers by different names; as *joiner's brads*, *flooring brads*, *batten brads*, *bill brads*, or *quarter brads*, &c. Joiner's brads are for hard wainſcot; batten brads are for ſoft wainſcot; bill brads are uſed when a floor is laid in haſte, or for ſhallow joiſts ſubject to warp. See NAIL.

BRADBORN, a village in Derbyſhire, 4 miles from Wirkſworth.

BRADBORN, in Kent, 5 miles from Maidſtone.

BRADBURY, a town in Durham, 4 miles E. of Biſhop's Auckland.

BRADEL, a village of Dorſetſhire, in Purbeck iſle, SW. of Corfe caſtle.

BRADEN, a lake in Ayrſhire, in which there is an iſland, with an old caſtle.

(1.) BRADENHAM, a village in Buckinghamſhire, W. of Miſſenden.

(2.) BRADENHAM, EAST, } two villages in Nor-
(3.) BRADENHAM, WEST, } folkſh. E. of Swaffham.

BRADENSTOKE, in Wiltſhire, between Chriſtian Malford and Lyneham.

BRADESLEY, in Worceſterſhire, near Bromſgrove.

(1.) BRADFIELD, a river in Shropſhire.

(2.) BRADFIELD, a town of Eſſex, near Manningtree. Lon. 0. 30. E. Lat. 51. 14. N.

(3—7.) BRADFIELD is alſo the name of 5 Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Berks, NW. of Theal: 2. in Hertfordſhire, near Hide-Hall: 3. in Norfolkſhire, NW. of Walſham: 4. in Wiltſhire, near Malmſbury; and, 5. in Yorkſhire W. Riding, near Doncaſter. It alſo makes part of the names of 3 other villages: viz.

(8.) BRADFIELD BRAND, or BRADFIELD-COMBUST, } 4 miles SE. of Edmundſbury.

(9.) BRADFIELD-COULD, near Oulney, Bucks.

(10.) BRADFIELD, LITTLE, and
(11.) BRADFIELD, MAGNA, } in Eſſex, near Thaxted, 38 miles from London. The latter has a market on Thurſday, and a fair June 22.

(12.) BRADFIELD, MONKS, on a hill; and

(13.) BRADFIELD, ST CLARE, SE. of it; both in Suffolk.

(14.) BRADFIELD, SALING, in Eſſex, SE. of Eaton Magna.

(1.) BRADFORD, a river in Derbyſhire.

(2.) BRADFORD, a town in Wiltſhire, the centre of the greateſt fabric of ſuperfine cloths in England; which it ſhares with the ſurrounding towns, Trowbridge, Melkſham, Corſham, and Chippenham. It is ſeated on the Avon, 11 miles W. of Devizes, and 102 W. of London. It has a market on Monday, and fairs Trinity Monday and Nov. 29. Lon. 2. 20. W. Lat. 51. 20. N.

(3.) BRADFORD, a town in Yorkſhire, ſeated on a branch of the Aire, between Leeds and Halifax. It has a conſiderable trade in ſhalloons, everlaſtings, &c. It is 36 miles SW. of York, and 193 NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 40. W. Lat. 53. 49. N.

(4—8.) BRADFORD is alſo the name of 5 Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Devonſhire, between Honiton and Samford: 2. in Ditto, E. of Houlſworthy: 3. in Northumberland, SW. of Bamburgh Caſtle: 4. in Shropſhire; and, 5. in Somerſetſhire, between Wellington and Taunton.

(9.) BRADFORD, John, an eminent divine, and martyr to the reformation, was born in the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. at Manchester. He was at firſt ſecretary to Sir John Harrington, who was ſeveral times employed by king Henry, and his ſucceſſor Edward VI. as paymaſter to the troops abroad. Bradford at this time was a gay man, and to ſupport his extravagance made free with the king's money; but conſcience checking him, he determined to make reſtitution, and actually repaid the money. Quitting his employment of ſecretary about A. D. 1547, he took chambers in the inner temple, and for ſome time ſtudied the law; but finding an inclination to preach the goſpel, he removed, in 1547, to Catharine-hall in Cambridge, and there applied with ſuch uncommon aſſiduity to the ſtudy of divinity, that in a much ſhorter time than uſual he was admitted to the degree of M. A. Biſhop Ridley, who, in 1550, was tranſlated to the ſee of London, charmed with Bradford's application and zeal, now ſent for him to the metropolis, ordained and appointed him his chaplain. In 1553, he was alſo made chaplain to Edward VI. during which time he became one of the moſt popular preachers in the kingdom. Such a reformer was too dangerous to be ſuffered in the ſucceeding reign. Mary was hardly in poſſeſſion of the crown, before Bradford's perſecutions began. He was firſt confined in the tower for ſedition, where he continued a year and a half; during which time he wrote ſeveral epiſtles that were diſperſed in various parts of the kingdom. He was afterwards removed to other priſons, and at laſt brought to his trial before that infernal court of inquiſition, in which Gardiner ſat as chief inquiſitor, where he defended his principles to the laſt in contempt of their utmoſt power. They condemned him to the flames; and he was accordingly burnt alive in Smithfield, where he behaved with uncommon heroiſm, on July 1, 1555. His works are, 1. Seventy-two letters, written to various people, whilſt the author was in priſon; printed in biſhop Coverdale's collection. 2. Ten letters, printed in Foxe's acts and monuments 3. Complaint of Verity, 1559, 8vo. 4. Three examinations before the commiſſioners, and his private talk with the prieſts, with the original of his life; 1561, 8vo. 5. Two notable ſermons: 1574, 8vo, 1631. 6. Godly meditation and prayers; 1614, 24to.

the above *Chronicon*) extracted from Bede, Malmſbury, Geraldus, and others.

(2.) BRADSHAW, John, preſident of the Council who condemned Charles I. an event which brought upon his memory all the opprobrium that the ingenious friends of the party that triumphed over the republicans of that day could deviſe. Neither have there been wanting hiſtorians, ſo far the dupes of vulgar clamour as to put upon record, and hand down to poſterity in their writings, many doubtful ſtories reſpecting the motives of his political conduct, as well as of his birth and origin; for the execrations of party confound all diſtinctions, and blacken with one promiſcuous touch, all the objects againſt whom their ungovernable fury happens to be directed. It is not wonderful indeed that the biography of a man, whom it was the faſhion of thoſe times to conſider as a vice even to *name*, ſhould be mutilated and imperfect; or that the direct traces of his family deſcent ſhould be inſcrutable to the inveſtigations of the herald or the antiquary. Thoſe, whoſe averſion held forth him as a ſanguinary regicide, were able to indulge, without danger of contradiction, in any reveries they thought proper, reſpecting his low birth and the impurity of his motives; for it may be ſuppoſed none of his family or friends would dare to oppoſe the current of popular odium, by attempting a vindication, to which, however conformable to truth, few would be prevailed on to attend. As no thinking perſon will call *juſt* or *expedient* the cataſtrophe in which Bradſhaw took ſo conſpicuous a ſhare, we leave the ſubject to thoſe who adhere to, or who impugn the political tenets of the Stuart race. The late Lord Gardenſtone raſhly ventured to ſtile it "a great act of national juſtice." But we ſhall content ourſelves with repelling a great calumny which one writer has copied from another, and which involves the preſident Bradſhaw in the common reproach of having been the tool of the uſurper Cromwell. Whether he was or not, will appear from the following extracts, taken from the memoirs of that honeſt *hiſtorian* of his *own times*, Ludlow, who, though implicated himſelf in the death of Charles, was never accuſed, even by his enemies, of having recorded a falſehood. Theſe are taken from the 4to edition publiſhed in 1771, and are as follows: P. 118. "On the 10th Jan. 1648, the High Court of Juſtice eſtabliſhed by an act of the parliament for the trial of king Charles I. choſe ſerjeant Bradſhaw to be the preſident, and Mr Liſle and Mr Spay to be his aſſiſtants." P. 211. "In England they better underſtood the deſign that was carrying on, inſomuch, that many perſons of known virtue and integrity were choſen to ſit in this aſſembly (the new parliament), in particular the lord preſident Bradſhaw, ſir Arthur Hazelrig, &c. &c. P. 240. "Cromwell ſummons him and others to council, and is obeyed. As ſoon as Cromwell ſaw the lord preſident, he required him to take out a new commiſſion for his office of chief juſtice of Cheſter, which he refuſed, alledging that he held that place by a grant from the parliament of England, to continue *quamdiu ſe bene geſſerit*. And whether he had carried himſelf with that integrity which his [illegible] exacted from him, he was willing to ſubmit to a trial by 12 Engliſhmen, to be choſen even by Cromwell himſelf." P. 244. "The preſident Bradſhaw, notwithſtanding what had paſſed, reſolved to go his circuit, as chief juſtice of Cheſter, unleſs he ſhould be prevented by force. But Cromwell thought it more adviſable to permit him to execute his office, than, by interrupting his circuit, to make a breach with thoſe of the long robe, whoſe aſſiſtance was ſo neceſſary to the carrying on his deſign. By the intrigues of Cromwell, he and other ſteady favourers of the commonwealth loſt their ſeats." P. 261. "In the parliament called by Richard Cromwell, the preſident Bradſhaw was returned for the county of Cheſter, by the ſheriff." P. 277. "And the better to ſhew the conſideration the parliament had for ſome eminent perſons who were not of their body, it was agreed that the lord preſident Bradſhaw, the lord Fairfax, and others, ſhould be members of the council of ſtate." P. 282. "The lord preſident Bradſhaw, ſerjeant Fountain, and ſerjeant Tyrell, were made commiſſioners of the broad ſeal." P. 307. "During thoſe diſorders, the council of ſtate ſtill aſſembled at the uſual place and at one of their meetings, colonel Sydenham, who was one of them, made a ſpeech, wherein he endeavoured to juſtify theſe proceedings of the army, undertaking to prove that they were neceſſitated to make uſe of this laſt remedy, by a particular call of the Divine Providence. But the lord preſient Bradſhaw, who was then preſident, though by long ſickneſs very weak and much extenuated, yet animated by his ardent zeal and conſtant affection to the common cauſe, upon hearing theſe words, ſtood up and interrupted him, declaring his abhorrence of that deteſtable action, and telling the council, that being now going to his God, he had not patience to ſit there to here his great name ſo openly blaſphemed; and thereupon departed, and withdrew himſelf, from public employment." Guthrie, ſpeaking of thoſe with whom Bradſhaw acted, makes the following remarks: "They who brought Charles to the block were men of different perſuaſions and principles, but many of them poſſeſſed moſt amazing abilities for government. They omitted no meaſure that could give perpetual excluſion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that, after they erected themſelves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things for retrieving the glory of England by ſea. They were joined by many of the preſbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in Europe." Bradſhaw's deſcendants are ſtill in exiſtence. There is a Bradſhaw of Pennington in Lancaſhire, who is of the preſident's family: and he has alſo lineal deſcendants, of another name, in London and Liverpool.

(3, 4.) BRADSHAW, two Engliſh villages; 1. in the High Peak of Derby, called alſo BRADSHAW-EDGE: 2. in Lincolnſhire, near Bury.

BRADSTONE, 3 villages; 1. in Devonſhire, near

near Launceſton: 2. in Glouceſterſhire, near Berkeley: 3. in Shropſhire, near Hungerford.

BRADWALL, in Staffordſhire, N. of Newcaſtle under Line.

BRADWARDIN, Thomas, Abp. of Canterbury, was born at Hartfield in Suſſex, about the cloſe of the 13th century. He was educated at Merton College, Oxford, where he took the degree of D. D. and was eſteemed a profound ſcholar, a ſkilful mathematician, and conſummate divine. Pitt ſays he was a profeſſor of divinity at Oxford. From being chancellor of the dioceſe of London, he became a courtier and confeſſor to Edward III. whom he conſtantly attended during his war with France, aſſiſting that victorious prince with his advice, animating the troops, and fervently praying for their ſucceſs. After his return he was made prebendary of Lincoln, and Abp. of Canterbury. He died at Lambeth in 1349, forty days after his conſecration. His works are, 1. *De Cauſa Dei*, printed, London, 1618, published by J. H. Savil. 2. *De geometria ſpeculativa*, &c. Paris, 1495, 1512, 1530. 3. *De arithmetica practica*, Paris, 1502, 1512. 4. *De proportionibus*, Paris, 1495. Venice, 1505, folio. 5. *De quadratura circuli*, Paris, 1495, folio.

BRADWAY, two Engliſh villages: 1. in Glouceſter, S. of Campden: 2. ten m. from Worceſter.

(1—6.) BRADWELL, 8 villages: viz. 1. in Bucks, 2 m. from Stony Stratford: 2. in Cheſhire, N. of Sandbach: 3. in the High Peak of Derby: 4. in Eſſex, near Coggeſhall; which has a fair, 24 June: 5. in Suffolk, between Layſtoff and Yarmouth: 6. in Warwickſhire, near Granborough:—

(7.) BRADWELL-GROVE, in Oxfordſhire: and

(8.) BRADWELL JUXTA MARE, [*i. e.* nigh the ſea,] in Eſſex, near Fillingham.

BRADWIN, N. of Towceſter, Northamptonſh.

(1.) BRADWOOD, in Durham, near Stanhope.

(2.) BRADWOOD, in Lanark, near Carluke.

BRADWORTHY, 5 m. NE. of Stratton, Devonſhire.

(1.) BRADY, Nicholas, an excellent divine and poet, born in Bandon, in Cork, in 1659. He ſtudied at Weſtminſter, and afterwards at Oxford and Dublin colleges. He was a zealous promoter of the revolution; and, in 1690, when the troubles broke out in Ireland, by his intereſt with M'Carty, king James's general, he thrice prevented the burning of the town of Bandon. Having quitted ſeveral preferments in Ireland, he ſettled in London, where he was ſucceſſively promoted to ſeveral livings; and at the time of his death was rector of Clapham, miniſter of Richmond, and chaplain to the D. of Ormond's troop of horſe guards. He wrote part of the new verſion of the Pſalms, now ſung in many churches in England and Ireland; the Æneids of Virgil, in 4 vols; and 3 vols of ſermons. He died May 20th, 1726.

(2.) BRADY, Robert, born in Norfolk in 1643, was maſter of Caius college, Cambridge, regius profeſſor, and twice repreſentative of that univerſity in parliament. In 1689, he was made keeper of the records in the Tower, and was phyſician in ordinary to James II. He wrote, An introduction to the Old Engliſh hiſtory; An hiſtory of England, from the time of the Romans to the end of the reign of Richard II. and, A treatiſe on Engliſh boroughs. He died in 1700.

BRADYPEPSIA, [from βραδὺς, ſlow, and πέψις, digeſtion,] ſlow of digeſtion.

BRADYPUS, the SLOTH, a ſpecies of quadrupeds, belonging to the order of bruta. The characters are theſe: They have no fore teeth in their jaw; the dog teeth are blunt, ſolitary, and longer than the grinders; they have 5 grinders on each ſide. The body is covered with hair. There are only two ſpecies, viz.

1. BRADYPUS DIDACTYLUS has only two toes on each foot, and no tail: The head is round; the ears are large; and it has no mammæ on the breaſt: The body is covered with aſh-coloured hair. It is a native of Ceylon. See *Plate* XLI. *Fig.* 5.

2. BRADYPUS TRIDACTYLUS, or American Sloth, has a ſhort tail, and 3 toes on each foot. It is about the ſize of a fox. The body is covered over with hair of a grey colour; the face is naked; the throat is yellowiſh; the fore feet are longer than the hind feet; the claws are compreſſed, and very ſtrong. It has no mammæ on the breaſt; nor any external ears, but only two winding holes. It is the moſt ſluggiſh of all animals, and ſeems to move with the utmoſt pain. Its food is fruit, or the leaves of trees. If it cannot find fruit on the ground, it looks out for a tree well loaded, and with great pain climbs up: to ſave the trouble of deſcending, it flings off the fruit, and, forming itſelf into a ball, drops from the branches, continues at the foot till it has devoured all, nor ever ſtirs till compelled by hunger. It never drinks, and is terrified at rain. The following wonderful account of this animal, from Kircher's *Muſurgia*, is quoted by Mr Stillingfleet in his miſcellaneous tracts. "The deſcription (ſays Kircher) I had from father Torus, who reſided in America, who had animals of this kind in his poſſeſſion, and made many experiments in relation to their nature and qualities. Its figure is extraordinary; it is about the bigneſs of a cat, of very ugly countenance, and has claws extended like fingers. The hinder part of the head and neck are covered with hair. It ſweeps the ground with its fat belly, never riſes upon its feet, and moves ſo ſlowly, that it would ſcarce go the length of a bow-ſhot in 15 days, though conſtantly moving, and it is therefore called the *ſloth*. It lives generally upon tops of trees, and employs two days to crawl up, and as many to get down again. Nature has doubly guarded this animal againſt its enemies. Firſt, by giving it ſuch ſtrength in its feet, that whatever it ſeizes, it holds ſo faſt, that it never can be freed from its claws, but muſt there die of hunger.—2dly, By giving it ſuch a moving aſpect, when it looks at any man who ſhould be tempted to hurt it, that it is impoſſible not to be touched with compaſſion; beſides, that at the ſame time it ſheds tears, and upon the whole perſuades one, that a creature ſo defenceleſs, and ſo unhappy a body, ought not to be tormented. To make an experiment of this, the above mentioned father procured one of theſe animals to be brought to our college at Carthagena. He put a long pole under its feet, which it ſeized upon very firmly, and would

would not let go again. The animal, therefore, thus voluntarily ſuſpended, was placed between two beams along with the pole, and there it remained without meat, drink, or ſleep, 40 days; its eyes being always fixed on people that looked at it, who were ſo touched, that they could not forbear pitying it. At laſt being taken down, they let looſe a dog on it, which after a little while the ſloth ſeized with his feet, and held him four days till he died of hunger. This was taken from the mouth of the father. They add (continues Kircher), that this creature makes no noiſe but at night, but that very extraordinary. For by interruptions, that laſt about the length of a ſigh or ſemipauſe, it goes through the ſix vulgar intervals of muſic, Ut, re, mi, fa, ſol, la, La, ſol, fa, mi, re, ut, aſcending and deſcending, and theſe perfectly in tune: So that the Spaniards, when they firſt got poſſeſſion of this coaſt, and heard theſe notes, imagined that ſome people brought up to our muſic were ſinging. This animal is called by the natives *haut*; certainly becauſe, going through theſe muſical intervals, it repeats, Ha, ha, ha, ha, ha, &c." To this account Linnæus ſeems, in his *Syſtema Naturæ*, to give credit: For he ſays, in his ſhort way of deſcription, among other things, " It utters an aſcending hexachord: its noiſe is horrible; its tears are pitcous." He quotes Muſgrave, Cluſius, Geſner, &c.

(1.) BRAE-MAR, or } a mountainous diſtrict
(1.) BRAE-MARR, } of Scotland, in Aberdeenſhire, ſituated in the middle of the Grampian hills, about 50 miles W. of Aberdeen, and one of the 3 diviſions of that extenſive territory called MARR. Geographers have ſtrangely miſtaken it, by repreſenting it as a valley. The Rev. Dr Ogilvy of Mid-Marr, ſtiles it the *bigheſt* part of the country; and the Rev. Mr M'Hardy gives a ſimilar deſcription of it. See N° 2. The miſtake ſeems to have ariſen from confounding it with MID-MARR.

(2.) BRAE-MARR, a pariſh of Scotland, in the above diſtrict, (N° 1.) anciently called CEAN-AN-DROCHAIT, and long united with that of Crathy. It is " more elevated," ſays Mr M'Hardy, " above the level of the ſea, and farther removed in every direction from the coaſt, than any other pariſh in Scotland." By that gentleman's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it contained 1227 inhabitants, 466 horſes, 9200 ſheep, and 930 black cattle, in 1793. For other particulars, ſee CRATHY.

(1.) BRAE-MORAY, a pariſh in Murrayſhire. See EDENKEILLIE.

(2.) BRAE-MORAY, KNOCK OF. See KNOCK.

(3.) BRAY-MORAY, or } a mountainous and
BRAE-MURRAY, } woody diſtrict of Scotland, in the counties of Elgin and Nairn.

BRAES, an eminence in Stirlingſhire, in the pariſh of Dunipace, on which there is an ancient Daniſh fort.

BRAESBRIDGE, a village S. of Lincoln.

BRAFFERTON, two villages; 1. in Durham, 3 m. N. of Darlington: 2. in Yorkſhire, NE. of Boroughbridge.

(1.) BRAG, a game at cards, wherein as many may partake as the cards will ſupply; the eldeſt hand dealing 3 to each perſon at one time, and turning up the laſt card all round. This done, the gameſter puts down 3 ſtakes, one for each card.—The firſt ſtake is won by the beſt card turned up in the dealing round; beginning from the ace, king, queen, knave, and ſo downwards. When cards of the ſame value are turned up to two or more of the gameſters, the eldeſt hand gains; but the ace of diamonds wins, to whatever hand it be turned up.—The ſecond ſtake is won by what is called the *brag*, which conſiſts in one of the gameſters challenging the reſt to produce cards equal to his. A pair of aces is the beſt brag, a pair of kings the next, and ſo on; and a pair of any ſort wins the ſtake from the moſt valuable ſingle card. In this part conſiſts the great diverſion of the game; for, by the artful management of the looks, geſture, and voice, it frequently happens, that a pair of fives, treys, or even deuces, out-brags a much higher pair, and even ſome pairs royal, to the no ſmall merriment of the company. The knave of clubs is a principal favourite, making a pair with any other card in hand, and with any other two cards a pair royal.—The third ſtake is won by the perſon who firſt makes up the cards in his hand 31; each dignified card going for ten, and drawing from the pack, as uſual in this game.

(2.) * BRAG. *n. ſ.* [from the verb] 1. A boaſt; a proud expreſſion.—

A kind of conqueſt
Cæſar made here; but made not here his *brag*
Of came, and ſaw, and overcame. *Shakeſp.*

—It was ſuch a new thing for the Spaniards to receive ſo little hurt, upon dealing with the Engliſh, as Avallaneda made great brags of it, for no greater matter than waiting upon the Engliſh afar off. *Bacon.*

2. The thing boaſted.—

Beauty is nature's *brag*, and muſt be ſhewn
In courts, at feaſts, and high ſolemnities,
Where moſt may wonder. *Milton.*

* *To* BRAG. *v. n.* [*braggeren*, Dutch.] 1. To boaſt; to diſplay oſtentatiouſly; to tell boaſtful ſtories.—

Thou coward! art thou *bragging* to the ſtars?
Telling the buſhes that thou look'ſt for wars,
And wilt not come? *Shakeſpeare.*

—Mark me, with what violence ſhe firſt loved the Moor, but for *bragging*, and telling her fantaſtical lies. *Shakeſpeare.*—In *bragging* out ſome of their private tenets, as if they were the eſtabliſhed doctrine of the church of England. *Sanderſon.*—They rebels were grown ſo ſtrong there, that they intended then, as they already *bragged*, to come over and make this the ſeat of war. *Clarendon.*—Mrs Bull's condition was looked upon as deſperate by all the men of art; but there were thoſe that *bragged* they had an infallible ointment. *Arbuthnot.* 2. It has *of* before the thing boaſted.—Knowledge being the only thing *whereof* we poor old men can *brag*, we cannot make it known but by utterance. *Sidney.*—

Verona *brags of* him,
To be a virtuous and well-govern'd youth. *Shakeſpeare.*

Ev'ry buſy little ſcribbler now
Swells with the praiſes which he gives himſelf,
And taking ſanctuary in the crowd,
Brags of his impudence, and ſcorns to mend. *Reſtoration.*

3. Of

3. *On* is uſed, but improperly.—

Yet lo! in me what authors have to *brag on!*
Reduc'd at laſt to hiſs in my own dragon.
Pope.

BRAGA, a city of Portugal, the capital of the province of Entre-duero-e-minho, ſituated on the river Cavado, 33 miles N. of Porto Port. Lon. 8. 29. W. Lat. 41. 42. N.

BRAGAN'S-TOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Louth, 35 m. from Dublin.

(1.) BRAGANZA, a duchy of Portugal.

(2.) BRAGANZA, the capital of the above duchy (N° 1.) ſeated on an eminence near the rivulet Fervenza; and divided into the old city and the new town. The former is upon an eminence, and fortified with a double wall. That part next the town has 5 baſtions, but no ditch; the citadel is on the oppoſite ſide joined to the wall. The town is in a plain, and defended by a fort with 4 baſtions. It is ſeated near the river Sabor, on the frontiers of Galicia; 55 miles NE. of Villa Real; and carries on a ſilk manufacture. Lon. 6. 15. W. Lat. 41. 27. N.

BRAGER-END, a village in Hertfordſhire, N. of Datchworth, and W. of Watton.

* BRAGGADOCIO. *n. ſ.* [from *brag.*] A puffing, ſwelling, boaſting fellow.—The world abounds in terrible fanfarons, in the maſque of men of honour; but theſe *braggadocios* are eaſy to be detected. *L'Eſtrange.*—By the plot, you may gueſs much of the characters of the perſons; a *braggadocia* captain, a parafite, and a lady of pleaſure. *Dryden.*

* BRAGGARDISM. *n. ſ.* [from *brag.*] Boaſtfulneſs; vain oſtentation.

(1.) * BRAGGART. *adj.* [from *brag.*] Boaſtful; vainly oſtentatious.—

Shall I, none's ſlave, of high born or rais'd men
Fear frowns; and my miſtreſs, truth, betray thee
To th' huffing, *braggart*, puft nobility? *Donne.*

(2.) * BRAGGART. *n. ſ.* [from *brag.*] A boaſter.

Who knows himſelf a *braggart*,
Let him fear this; for it will come to paſs,
That ever *braggart* ſhall be found an aſs.
Shakeſpeare.

* BRAGGER. *n. ſ.* [from *brag.*] A boaſter; an oſtentatious fellow.—Such as have had opportunity to ſound theſe *braggers*, thoroughly, by having ſometimes endured the penance of their tattiſh company, have found them, in converſe, empty and inſipid. *South.*

BRAGGOT, [from *brag*, malt, and *gots*, a honey-comb. Old Brit.] a kind of drink made of malt, honey, and ſpices, much uſed in Wales.

BRAGGS, a village in Dorſetſhire.

* BRAGLESS. *adj.* [from *brag.*] Without a boaſt; without oſtentation.—

The bruit is, Hector's ſlain, and by Achilles.
——If it is ſo, *bragleſs* let it be,
Great Hector was as good a man as he.
Shakeſpeare.

* BRAGLY. *adv.* [from *brag.*] Finely; ſo as it may be bragged.—

Seeſt not thilk hawthorn ſtud,
How *bragly* it begins to bud,
And utter his tender head?
Flora now calleth forth each flower,
And bids make ready Maia's bower. *Spenſer.*

BRAGWORT, a weak kind of MEAD.

BRAHAN CASTLE, the chief ſeat of Mr M'Kenzie of Seaforth, is ſituated in Roſſhire, in the pariſh of Urray.

BRAHE, Tycho, a celebrated aſtronomer, deſcended of an illuſtrious family originally of Sweden, but ſettled at Denmark, was born Dec. 14th 1546, at Knudſtorp in Schonen. He was taught Latin when ſeven years old, and ſtudied five years under private tutors. His father dying, his uncle ſent him, in April 1559, to ſtudy philoſophy and rhetoric at Copenhagen. The great eclipſe of the ſun on the 21ſt Aug. 1560, happening at the preciſe time the aſtronomers had foretold, he began to look upon aſtronomy as ſomething divine; and purchaſing the tables of Stadius, gained ſome notion of the theory of the planets. In 1562, he was ſent by his uncle to Leipſic to ſtudy law; but aſtronomy wholly engroſſed his thoughts, and in purchaſing books on that ſcience he employed all his pocket money. Having procured a ſmall celeſtial globe, he was wont to wait till his tutor was gone to bed, in order to examine the conſtellations and learn their names; and when the ſky was clear, he ſpent whole nights in viewing the ſtars. In 1565, Brahe having quarrelled with a Daniſh nobleman, they fought and he had part of his noſe cut off; which defect he ſo artfully ſupplied with one made of gold and ſilver, that it was not perceivable. About this time he began to apply to chemiſtry, propoſing nothing leſs than to obtain the philoſopher's ſtone. In 1571, he returned to Denmark; and was favoured by his mother's brother, Steno Belle, a lover of learning, with a convenient place at his caſtle of Herritzvad near Knudſtorp, for making his obſervations, and building a laboratory. But marrying a country girl, beneath his rank, ſuch a violent quarrel enſued between him and his relations, that Frederick II. king of Denmark, was obliged to interpoſe to reconcile them. In 1574, he read lectures upon the theory of the comets at Copenhagen.—In 1575, he began his travels through Germany, and proceeded as far as Venice: he then reſolved to remove his family, and ſettle at Baſil; but the king being informed of his deſign, and unwilling to loſe ſuch an ornament to his country, promiſed, (to enable him to purſue his ſtudies,) to beſtow upon him, for life, the iſland of Huen in the Sound, to erect an obſervatory and laboratory there, and to defray all the expences neceſſary for carrying on his deſigns. Tycho Brahe readily embraced this propoſal; and accordingly the firſt ſtone of the obſervatory was laid Auguſt 8, 1576. The king alſo gave him a penſion of 2000 crowns out of his treaſury, a fee in Norway, and a canonry of Roſhild, which brought him 1000 more. James VI. of Scotland, going to Denmark to marry the princeſs Anne, paid him a viſit at Uranibourg, made him ſeveral preſents, and with his own hand wrote a copy of verſes in his praiſe.—After the death of king Frederic, in 1588, he was deprived of his penſion, fee, and canonry; upon which, finding himſelf incapable of bearing the expences of his obſervatory, he went to Copenhagen, whither he brought ſome of his inſtruments.

and continued his aſtronomical obſervations in that city, till Valkendorf, chamberlain to Chriſtian IV. commanded him, by the king's order, to diſcontinue them. He then removed his family to Roſtock, and afterwards to Holſtein, to ſolicit Henry Ranzou to introduce him to the emperor, Rodolphus; and that gentleman complying, he was received by the emperor at Prague with the utmoſt civility and reſpect. That prince gave him a magnificent houſe, till he could procure one more fit for aſtronomical obſervations; aſſigned him a penſion of 300 crowns; and promiſed, upon the firſt opportunity, a fee for him and his deſcendants: but he did not long enjoy this happy ſituation; for, on the 24th Oct. 1601, he died of a retention of urine, in the 55th year of his age, and was interred very magnificently in the principal church at Prague, where a noble monument was erected to him.—His ſkill in aſtronomy is univerſally known, and he is famed for being the inventor of a new ſyſtem, which he endeavoured, though without ſucceſs, to eſtabliſh inſtead of the Copernican. He was very credulous with regard to judicial aſtrology and preſages. If he met an old woman when he went out of doors, or a hare upon the road on a journey, he uſed to turn back immediately, being perſuaded that it was a bad omen. When he lived at Uranibourg, he had at his houſe a madman, whom he placed at his feet at table, and fed himſelf. As he imagined that every thing ſpoken by mad perſons preſaged ſomething, he carefully obſerved all that this man ſaid; and becauſe it ſometimes proved true, he imagined it might always be depended on. A mere trifle put him in a paſſion; and againſt perſons of the firſt rank, with whom it was his intereſt to keep on good terms, he openly diſcovered his reſentment. He was very apt to rally others, but highly provoked if the ſame liberty was taken with himſelf. His principal works are, 1. *Progymnaſmata aſtronomiæ.* 2. *De mundi ætherei recentioribus phænomenis.* 3. *Epiſtolarum aſtronomicarum liber.* Of the reſt of his works Dr Hutton gives a liſt, in his *Math. and Phil. Dict.* Vol. 1. p. 225, 226.

BRAHMA. See BRAMA.

(1.) * BRAID. *adj.* [To *brede*, in *Chaucer*, is to *deceive*.] An old word, which ſeems to ſignify *deceitful*.—

Since Frenchmen are ſo *braid*,
Marry 'em that will. I'll live and die a maid.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) * BRAID. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A texture; knot, or complication of ſomething woven together.—

Liſten where thou art ſitting,
Under the gloſſy, cool, tranſlucent wave,
In twiſted *braids* of lilies knitting
The looſe train of thy amber-dropping. *Milton.*

No longer ſhall thy comely traces break
In flowing ringlets on thy ſnowy neck,
Or ſit behind thy head, an ample round,
In graceful *bruids*, with various ribbon bound.
Prior.

* *To* BRAID. *v. a.* [*brædan*, Saxon.] To wave together.—

Cloſe the ſerpent fly,
Inſinuating, wove with gordian twine
His braided train, and of his fatal guile
Gave proof unheeded. *Milton.*

—Oſier wands, lying looſely, may each of them be eaſily diſſociated from the reſt; but when *braided* into a baſket, they cohere ſtrongly. *Boyle.*—

A ribbon did the *braided* treſſes bind,
The reſt was looſe, and wanton'd in the wind.
Dryden.

Since in *braided* gold her feet is bound,
And a long trailing mantua ſweeps the ground.
Her ſhoe diſdains the ſtreet.

BRAIDALBIN, or BREADALBANE, a diſtrict of Perthſhire, extending 32 m. from E. to W. and 13 where broadeſt from S. to N. It is a mountainous country, lying among the Grampian hills, ſuppoſed to be the country anciently known by the name of ALBANIA; whence the Highlanders to this day call themſelves *Albinich*. The name, in Gaelic, *Braid Albainn*, ſignifies the higheſt part in Scotland, as an evidence of which the rivers run partly into the eaſtern and partly into the weſtern ocean. It is bounded on the W. by Lochaber, Lorn, and Knapdale; on the N. and E. by part of Lochaber and part of Athol; and on the S. by Strathern and Monteith. It produces plenty of game and black cattle; is inhabited by Highlanders ſaid to be the moſt civilized in all Scotland; and gives the title of earl to a branch of the Campbell family who have a magnificent ſeat in it, at Taymouth. Its ancient name ALBANY, too, affords a Scots title to the D. of York. Much flax is cultivated here. Some years ago, when premiums were given for the greateſt crops, from 70 to 120 hogſheads of lintſeed were annually ſown, each peck yielding two ſtones of dreſſed flax; and when the yarn ſold higheſt, L. 2000 worth has been ſold out of the country. Oats and potatoes are the other crops. Oats yield from 4 to 6 fold; bear, at an average, ſix; ſometimes from 8 to 10. The corn raiſed now fully ſuffices the inhabitants without importation. From their potatoes ſome have diſtilled a very ſtrong ſpirit, which has been found cheaper than what is diſtilled from grain. Starch and bread are alſo made from them. *Corcur*, or the lichen omphaloides, is an article of commerce; great quantities have been ſcraped from the rocks, and exported for the uſe of the dyers, at the price of 1s. or 16d. per ſtone. Many ſheep are reared here, and much wool is ſent out of the country. Few horſes are raiſed in this country: ſuch as feed on the tops of the higher hills are often afflicted with a diſtemper that commonly proves fatal, if a remedy is not applied within 24 hours. It attacks them in the month of July and Auguſt, uſually after a fall of rain, or before the dew riſes in the morning. An univerſal ſwelling ſpreads over the body; the remedy is exerciſe, chafing, and whatever promotes urine and perſpiration. The natives attribute this evil to a certain animal that ſcatters its poiſon over the graſs; but more probably, it ariſes from ſome noxious vegetable heretofore unobſerved. Before the year 1745, lord Braidalbin was obliged to keep a conſtant guard for the protection of his vaſſals cattle, or to retain ſpies among the thieviſh clans; having too much ſpirit to ſubmit to pay an infamous tax called BLACK MEAL, to the plundering chieftains as the price of their ſafety.

BRAIDE. *n. f. obſ.* a ſtart. *Chauc.*

To BRAIDE. *v. n. obſ.* to ariſe, to ſtart up. *Ch.*

BRAILA, a town of European Turkey, in Walachia, ſeated on the Danube. It has a caſtle fortified with 7 towers. It was taken by the Ruſſian Gen. Romne 1711, but reſtored afterwards.

BRAILES, a village in Warwickſhire, 3 miles from Shipton. It has a fair on Eaſter Tueſday.

BRAILESFORD, near Kedleſtone, Derbyſh.

BRAILOW, a town of Poland, in Podolia, ſeated on the river Bog, 40 miles N. of Bracklaw. Lon. 28. 0. E. Lat. 46. 12. N.

* BRAILS. *n. ſ.* [Sea term.] Small ropes reeved through blocks, which are ſeized on either ſide the ties, a little off upon the yard; ſo that they come down before the ſails of a ſhip, and are faſtened at the ſkirt of the ſail, to the orengles. Their uſe is when the ſail is furled acroſs, to hall up its bunt, that it may the more readily be taken up or let fall. *Harris.*

(1) *BRAIN. *n. ſ.* [*brægen*, Sax. *breyne*, Dutch.] 1. That collection of veſſels and organs in the head, from which ſenſe and motion ariſe.—The *brain* is divided into *cerebrum* and *cerebellum*. *Cerebrum* is that part of the *brain* which poſſeſſes all the upper and forepart of the *cranium*, being ſeparated from the *cerebellum* by the ſecond proceſs of the *dura mater*, under which the *cerebellum* is ſituated. The ſubſtance of the *brain* is diſtinguiſhed into outer and inner; the former is called *corticalis*, *cinerea*, or *glanduloſa*; the latter, *medullaris*, *alba*, or *nervea*. *Cheſelden.*—If I be ſerved ſuch another trick, I'll have my *brains* ta'en out and buttered, and give them to a dog for a new year's gift. *Shakeſpeare's Merry Wives of Windſor.*—That man proportionably hath the largeſt *brain*, I did, I confeſs, ſomewhat doubt, and conceive it might have failed in birds, eſpecially ſuch as having little bodies, have yet large cranies, and ſeem to contain much *brain*, as ſnipes and wood cocks; but, upon trial, I find it very true. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.* 2. That part in which the underſtanding is placed; therefore taken for the underſtanding.—The force they are under is a real force, and that of their fate but an imaginary conceived one; the one but in their *brains*, the other on their ſhoulders. *Hammond.*—A man is firſt a geometrician in his *brain*, before he be ſuch in his hand. *Hale.* 3. Sometimes the affections: this is not common, nor proper.—My ſon Edgar! had he a hand to write this! a heart and *brain* to breed it in! *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) BRAIN. See ANATOMY, INDEX.

* *To* BRAIN. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To daſh out the brains; to kill by beating out the brains.—Why, as I told thee, 'tis a cuſtom with him i' the afternoon to ſleep; there thou may'ſt *brain* him. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Outlaws of nature,
Fit to be ſhot and *brain'd* without a proceſs,
To ſtop infection; that's their proper death.
Dryden.

Next ſeiz'd two wretches more, and headlong caſt,
Brain'd on the rock, his ſecond dire repaſt.
Pope.

BRAINFIELD, a village in Northamptonſhire, near Houghton Magna and Parva.

* BRAINISH. *adj.* [from *brain.*] Hotheaded; furious; as *cerebroſus* in Latin.—

In his lawleſs fit,
Behind the arras hearing ſomething ſtir,
He whips his rapier out, and cries, a rat!
And, in his *brainiſh* apprehenſion, kills
The unſeen good old man. *Shakeſpeare's Haml.*

BRAIN LE COMPTE, or BRAIN LE COMTE, a town of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, and late province of Hainault; now included in one of the new departments into which Belgium is divided. It is 15 miles SW. of Bruſſels, and 9 NE. of Mons. Lon. 4. 11. E. Lat. 50. 35. N.

* BRAINLESS. *adj.* [from *brain.*] Silly; thoughtleſs; witleſs.—Some *brainleſs* man have by great travel and labour brought to paſs, that the church is now aſhamed of nothing more than ſaints. *Hooker.*—

If the dull *brainleſs* Ajax come ſafe off,
We dreſs him up in vices. *Shakeſpeare.*

The *brainleſs* ſtripling, who, expell'd the town,
Damn'd the ſtiff college, and pedantick gown,
Aw'd by thy name, is dumb. *Tickell.*

* BRAINPAN. *n. ſ.* [from *brain* and *pan.*] The ſkull containing the brains.—

With thoſe huge bellows in his hands, he blows
New fire into my head: my *brainpan* glows.
Dryden.

* BRAINSICK. *adj.* [from *brain* and *ſick.*] Diſeaſed in the underſtanding; addleheaded; giddy; thoughtleſs.—

Nor once deject the courage of our minds,
Becauſe Caſſandra's mad; her *brainſick* raptures
Cannot diſtaſte the goodneſs of a quarrel.
Shakeſpeare.

—They were *brainſick* men, who could neither endure the government of their king, nor yet thankfully receive the authors of their deliverance. *Knolles.*

* BRAINSICKLY. *adv.* [from *brainſick.*] Weakly; headily.—

Why worthy thane,
You do unbend your noble ſtrength to think
So *brainſickly* of things. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BRAINSICKNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brainſick.*] Indiſcretion; giddineſs.

BRAINTON, a village near Hereford.

BRAINTREE, a town in Eſſex, near Bocking, called RAINS, in Doomſday book. It carries on a great manufacture of baize; and has a market on Wed. and fairs May 8. and Oct. 22. It lies 12 miles N. of Chelmsford, and 42 NE. of London. Lon. 0. 40. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

BRAISTON, a village SE. of Derby.

* BRAST. *n. ſ.* Among jewellers for a rough diamond. *Dict.*

(1.) * BRAKE. *n. ſ.* [of uncertain etymology.] 1. A thicket of brambles, or of thorns.—A dog of the town uſed daily to fetch meat, and to carry the ſame unto a blind maſtiff, that lay in a *brake* without the town. *Carew.*—

If I'm traduc'd with tongues, which neither know
My faculties nor perſon; let me ſay,
'Tis but the fate of place, and the rough *brake*
That virtue muſt go through. *Shakeſpeare.*

In every bush and *brake*, where hap may find
The serpent sleeping.
Milton.

Full little thought of him the gentle knight,
Who, flying death, had there conceal'd his flight;
In *brakes* and brambles hid, and shunning mortal fight.
Dryden's Fables.

2. It is said originally to mean *fern*.

(2.) * BRAKE. *n. f.* 1. An instrument for dressing hemp or flax. 2. The handle of a ship's pump. 3. A baker's kneading trough. 4. A sharp bit or snaffle for horses. *Dict.*—A smith's *brake* is a machine in which horses, unwilling to be shod, are confined during that operation.

(3.) * BRAKE. The *preterite* of *break*.—He thought it sufficient to correct the multitude with sharp words, and *brake* out into this choleric speech. *Knolles.*

BRAKEL, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, 20 m. E. of Paderborn, seated on the rivulet Brught. Lon. 9. 12. E. Lat. 51. 46. N.

BRAKEN-ASH, a village in Norfolkshire, E. of Windham.

BRAKENBURGH, in Lincoln, N. of Louth.

BRAKENDALE, near Norwich.

BRAKEN-HILL, near Carlisle.

BRAKENTHWAITE, in Cumberland, near the river Croker, N. of Lowes Water.

BRAKIT, *n. f. obs.* Braggot. *Chaun.*

* BRAKY. *adj.* [from *brake*.] Thorny; prickly; rough.—Redeem arts from their rough and *braky* seats, where they lie hid and overgrown with thorns, to a pure open light, where they may take the eye, and may be taken by the hand. *B. Jonf.*

BRALIO, a lofty mountain of the Alps, in the country of the Grisons.

(1.) BRAMA, BRACHMA, or BRUMA, a pagan deity of the East Indies. He is the first person of a kind of trinity in their theology; is the great progenitor of mankind; and has created as many worlds as there are considerable parts of his body. See BRACHMANS, BRAMINS, and INDOSTAN.

(2.) BRAMA, in ichthyology, the trivial name of a species of CYPRINUS.

BRAMANT, a town of France, in the department of Mount Blanc, 35 m. NW. of Turin. It is seated on the Arck, in the valley of Maurich. Lon. 7. 5. E. Lat. 45. 25. N.

BRAMBAS, a name given by the natives of Guinea, and some other parts of Africa, to a peculiar species of lemon tree. The leaves are of a deep green, and very fragrant when rubbed between the hands. The fruit is very small, and has a remarkably thin skin. *Phil. Transf.* N° 108.

BRAMBER, a town of Suffex, near Steyning, 47 miles from London. It was formerly of some account, but has now neither market nor fair; though it sends two members to Parliament. Lon. 0. 15. W. Lat. 50. 50. N.

(1.) * BRAMBLE. *n. f.* [*bremlas*, Sax. *rubus*, Lat.] 1. The blackberry bush; the raspberry bush, or hind-berry. *Miller.* 2. It is taken, in popular language, for any rough prickly shrub.—

The bush my bed, the *bramble* was my bow'r,
The woods can witness many a woful store.
Spenser.

—There is a man hunts the forests that abuses
barks; hangs odes upon hawthorns, and elegies on *brambles*; all, forsooth, deifying the name of Rosalind. *Shakespeare.*—

Content with food, which nature freely bred,
On wildings and on strawberries they fed;
Cornels and *bramble* berries gave the rest,
And falling acorns furnish'd out a feast. *Dryd.*

Thy younglings, Cuddy, are but just awake;
No thruftles thrill the *bramble* bush forsake. *Gay.*

(2.) BRAMBLE, in botany. See RUBUS.

(3.) BRAMBLE, in geography, the name of a village in Suffex, near E. Grinstead.

BRAMBLE-LODGE, in the Foreft, Hampfhire.

BRAMBLE-NET, or HALLIER, is a net for catching birds of feveral fizes: the great mafhes muft be 4 inches fquare; thofe of the leaft fize are 3 inches fquare; and thofe of the biggeft, 5. In the depth they fhould not be above 3 or 4 inches; but in length they may be enlarged at pleafure. The fhorteft are 18 feet long.

(1.) * BRAMBLING. *n. f.* A bird, called alfo a *mountain chaffinch*. *Dict.*

(2.) BRAMBLING is a fpecies of FRINGILLA.

BRAMBY UPON LUN, a village in Yorkfhire, N. of Doncaſter.

BRAMCOT, or } three villages; viz. 1. in Not-
BRAMCOTT, } tinghamfhire, near Derbyfh. 2. in Warwickfhire, near Bulkington; and, 3. in ditto, near Polefworth.

BRAMCROFT CASTLE, in Shropfhire, NW. of Brown-Clee Hill.

BRAMDEAN, near Alresford, Hampfhire.

BRAME, in the ifle of Ely, Cambridgefhire.

BRAMER, Leonard, hiftory painter, born at Delft in 1598, learned painting under Rembrant, and imitated the manner of his maſter in fmall. In 1614, he went to Rome for improvement, but could never diveſt himſelf of the Flemiſh gout. Yet he had a fine taſte of deſign; his expreſſion is generally good, and in ſome of his compoſitions truly noble. His colouring is very peculiar in the tints, being remarkably thin in many parts, ſo as barely to cover the pannel; yet, by his ſkilful management of the chiaro-ſcuro, it appears bright, bold, and full of luſtre; particularly in the vaſes, which have a rich and fine relievo. He had accuſtomed himſelf to paint with a very thin body of colour, to give his pictures a greater tranſparence. His works are rarely to be met with out of Italy, where he painted moſt; but they draw conſiderable prices, when entire. Three of his moſt capital pictures are, the *Raiſing of Lazarus*, (in which there is a charming oppoſition of light and ſhadow;) the *Denial of St Peter*; both preſerved at Rome; and a ſmall picture on copper, repreſenting the ſtory of *Pyramus and Thiſbe*.

BRAMERTON, a town in Norfolkſhire, between Bixley and Claxton.

BRAMEW, a village in Hampſhire, NW. of Fordingbridge.

BRAMFIELD; three villages; viz. 1. in Hertfordſhire, near Stapleford: 2. three miles from Hertford; and, 3. in Suffolk, near Walpole.

(1, 2.) BRAMFORD; three villages; viz. 1. in the High Peak of Derby: 2. in Suffolk, near Ipſwich; and,

(3.) BRAMFORD-SPEKE, in Devonſhire, 4 miles

(1.) BRAMHALL, a town in Meath, Ireland.

(2.) BRAMHALL, Dr John, archbiſhop of Armagh, was born of an ancient family at Pontefract, about A. D. 1593. He was invited over to Ireland by the lord deputy Wentworth; and ſoon after obtained the arch-deaconry of Meath. In 1634, he was made biſhop of Londonderry, which ſee he improved very much; and ſeveral acts paſſed for aboliſhing fee farms, recovering impropriations, &c by which he regained to the church 30,000 or 40,000 a year. In the convocation he prevailed upon the church of Ireland to unite with the church of England, by adopting the 39 articles of that church; but could only prevail on them to accept of ſome of the canons. Articles of treaſon were exhibited againſt him in the Iriſh parliament; and at the treaty of Uxbridge in 1644, the Engliſh parliament made it a preliminary article, that Bp. Bramhall, with Abp. Laud, &c. ſhould be excepted from the general pardon. He went abroad; but on the reſtoration was appointed archbiſhop of Armagh, primate of Ireland, &c. and was choſen ſpeaker of the Houſe of Lords. He died in 1663; and was the author of ſeveral works, which have been collected in 1 vol. folio.

BRAMHAM MOOR, near Tadcaſter, Yorkſhire.

BRAMHOPE, a town two miles from Orley, Yorkſhire.

BRAMICIDE, *n. ſ.* the crime of killing a Bramin, reputed in the E. Indies, one of the five moſt heinous ſins.

BRAMINICAL, *adj.* belonging to a Bramin.

BRAMINS, the prieſts among the idolatrous Indians, the ſucceſſors of the ancient BRACHMANS. Their name is formed from BRAMA, their particular deity. They are found in Siam, Malaber, China, Coromandel, and moſt other eaſtern nations anywiſe civilized; but their chief ſeat is in INDOSTAN. They have a language peculiar to themſelves, which they call SHANSCHRIT; in which they have ſeveral ancient books, written, as is alledged, by their great prophet Brahma; as the SHASTRAM, which is their bible; and PORANE, a hiſtory which they eſteem ſacred, and pretend to have been dictated by God himſelf. There are ſeveral orders of Bramins. Thoſe who mix in ſociety are for the moſt part very corrupt in their morals: they believe that the water of the Ganges will waſh away all their crimes; and, as they are not ſubject to any civil juriſdiction, live without either reſtraint or virtue, excepting that character of compaſſion and charity which is ſo commonly found in the mild climate of India. The others, who live abſtracted from the world, are either weak-minded men or enthuſiaſts; and abandon themſelves to lazineſs, ſuperſtition, and the dreams of metaphyſics. We find in their diſputes the very ſame ideas that occur in the writings of our moſt celebrated metaphyſicians; ſuch as, ſubſtance, accident, priority, poſteriority, immutability, indiviſibility, &c. Their religion, which was anciently of the allegorical and moral kind, has degenerated into a heap of extravagant and obſcene ſuperſtitions, owing to their having realized thoſe fictions which were intended merely as ſo many ſymbols and emblems. Were it poſſible to obtain a ſight of their ſacred books, (the only remains of the Indian antiquities,) we might in ſome meaſure be enabled to remove the veil that envelopes thoſe numerous myſteries; but the following ſtory, related by Abbe Raynal, in his *Hiſt. of the Indies*, will ſhow how little reaſon there is to hope for ſuch a communication. The emperor Mahmoud Akbar had an inclination to make himſelf acquainted with the principles of all the religious ſects throughout his extenſive provinces. Having diſcarded the ſuperſtitious notions with which he had been prepoſſeſſed by his education in the Mahometan faith, he reſolved to judge for himſelf. It was eaſy for him to be acquainted with the nature of theſe ſyſtems that are formed upon the plan of making proſelytes; but he found himſelf diſappointed in his deſign when he came to treat with the Indians, who will not admit any perſon whatever to the participation of their myſteries. Neither the authority nor promiſes of Akbar could prevail with the Bramins to diſcloſe the tenets of their religion; he was therefore obliged to have recourſe to artifice. The ſtratagem he made uſe of was to cauſe a boy, of the name of Feizi, to be committed to the care of theſe prieſts, as a poor orphan of the ſacerdotal line, who alone could be initiated into the ſacred rites of their theology. Feizi, having received the proper inſtructions for the part he was to act, was conveyed privately to Benares, the ſeat of knowledge in Indoſtan; he was received into the houſe of a learned Bramin, who educated him with the ſame care as if he had been his own ſon. After the youth had ſpent ten years in ſtudy, Akbar was deſirous of recalling him: but he was ſtruck with the charms of the daughter of his preceptor. The women of the ſacerdotal tribe are looked upon as the greateſt beauties in Indoſtan. The old Bramin laid no reſtraint upon the growing paſſion of the two lovers: He was fond of Feizi, who had gained his affection by his addreſs and docility; and offered him his daughter in marriage. The young man, divided between love and gratitude, reſolved to conceal the fraud no longer; and falling at the feet of the Bramin, diſcovered the impoſture and aſked pardon for his offence. The prieſt, without reproaching him in the leaſt, ſeized a poinard which hung at his girdle, and was going to plunge it in his breaſt, if Feizi had not prevented him by taking hold of his arm. The young man uſed every means to pacify him, and declared himſelf ready to do any thing to expiate his treachery. The Bramin, burſting into tears, promiſed to pardon him on condition that he ſhould ſwear never to tranſlate the *Bedas* or ſacred volumes, or diſcloſe to any perſon whatever the ſymbol of the Bramin creed. Feizi readily promiſed all that the Bramin required: how far he kept his word is not known; but the ſacred books of the Indians have never been tranſlated by him, or any one elſe, to this day. As the Bramins are the only perſons who underſtand the language of the ſacred book, their comments on the text are the ſame as thoſe that have ever been made on religious books; all the maxims which fancy, intereſt, paſſion, or falſe zeal can ſuggeſt, are to be found in theſe volumes. See SHASTAH and VEDAM. Mr Thomas, an Indian miſſionary, gives a very different account of the Brahmins, from the above of Abbe Raynal, in a converſation he had with a number of them, at

a Hindoo college, near Calcutta, in Jan. 1792; which he publiſhed upon his return to England. From this, it would appear that the Brahmins are far from being bigots, and that they are equally ready to communicate and receive religious inſtruction from any ſtranger. He gives a very entertaining account, how in this converſation he led them on by his queſtions firſt to doubt of their own religious ſyſtem, and then to be ready to receive with anxiety and emotion the outlines which he gave them of the Chriſtian doctrines; along with a tranſlation of the Bible into their own language, which he put into their hands. They own a ſupreme God, who created Brama, and gave him power to create the world. They have alſo their ſubaltern deities, their pagods or temples, and idols, whom they fan to defend from flies, dancing before them. They alſo hold a feaſt in honour of the ſun, as the ſource of light and heat whereby all nature is fecundified. Their pagods conſiſt of 3 parts. The firſt is a vaulted roof, ſupported on ſtone columns; it lies open, and all perſons, without diſtinction, are allowed to enter into it. It is adorned with ſymbolical figures, made of wood, as elephants, oxen, and horſes. The 2d part is open in the day-time, and ſhut at night. It is filled with groteſque and monſtrous figures, as men with many heads and arms. The 3d, which is a kind of chancel, is kept always ſhut, with a very ſtrong gate. In this is placed the ſtatue of the deity to whom the pagod is dedicated. A great number of lamps burn day and night before the idol. The Bramins, before they go into the pagod, pull off their ſhoes, and leave them at the door. The Bramins of Siam and Coromandel maintain that the earth will be deſtroyed by fire. The former aſſert that another will riſe out of its aſhes, in which there ſhall be no ſea, nor any change of ſeaſons, but an eternal ſpring; and the latter maintain a plurality of worlds, which are alternately deſtroyed and renewed. For the aſtronomical knowledge of the Bramins, ſee OBSERVATORY.

BRAMLAW, a village in Shropſhire, between Wilmington and Hockſtow Foreſt.

(1—3.) BRAMLEY, four villages; viz. 1. in Hampſhire, near Stratfield: 2. in Surry, near Godalming: 3. in Yorkſhire, near Leeds: and,

(4.) BRAMLEY-GRANGE, in Yorkſhire, near Kirby-Maledale.

(1.) BRAMPORE, a town of India, in the province of Berar, ſubject to the Great Mogul, 220 miles E. of Surat. Lon. 77. 15. E. Lat. 21. 32. N.

(2.) BRAMPORE, or BRAMPOUR, a city of Aſia, in the dominions of the Great Mogul, and capital of Candiſh. It formerly ſtood on as much ground as London; but is now greatly decayed, and chiefly inhabited by Banians. The ſtreets are numerous, but narrow, with low thatched houſes built of earth. A few are covered with varniſhed tiles. In rainy weather many of the ſtreets are overflowed. In the market place is the ſtatue of an elephant in red ſtone, as big as the life. On the other ſide of the river, a new town is built in a better ſituation. A great trade is carried on in it, and throughout all the province, a prodigious quantity of cotton cloth is made; cotton is in greater plenty here than in any other place of the empire. Lon. 77. 25. E. Lat. 21. 10. N.

(1.) BRAMPTON, a town of Cumberland, 8 miles NE. of Carliſle, one mile below the Picts wall, on the river Irthin; near its junction with the Gelt. It is a very ancient place, but at preſent very ſmall. It lies 311½ miles NNW. of London. Lon. 2. 40. W. Lat. 54. 58. N.

(2—14.) BRAMPTON is alſo the name of 13 villages; viz. 1. in Derbyſhire, near Cheſterfield: 2. a mile from Huntingdon: 3. in Norfolk, near Aleſham: 4. in Northamptonſh. near Rothwell: 5. in Northumberland, NW. of Alnwick: 6. near Montgomery; 7. near Purſlow; and, 8. near Wroxeter, all in Shropſhire: 9. in Suffolk, near Beccles: 10. NE. of Barnſley; 11. SE. of Doncaſter; 12. N. of Northallerton, and, 13. near Richmond; all in Yorkſhire. BRAMPTON alſo makes part of the names of other 8 villages; viz.

(15.) BRAMPTON-ABBOTS, N. of Roſs, Hereford.

(16.) BRAMPTON-BANK, in Staffordſhire, near Newcaſtle under Line.

(17.) BRAMPTON-BIERLEY, in Yorkſhire, SE. of Rotheram.

(18.) BRAMPTON-BRION, in Herefordſhire, N. of Pembridge. It has a fair June 22.

(19.) BRAMPTON-CHAPEL, and (20.) BRAMPTON-CHURCH, in Northamptonſhire, between Althorp and Boughton.

(21.) BRAMPTON-HALL, in Northamptonſhire, near Dingley and Stoke Albany.

(22.) BRAMPTON IN MORTHING, SE. of Rotheram, Yorkſhire.

BRAMSHALL, near Hartford, Hampſhire.

BRAMSHOT, two villages in Hampſhire; 1. near Elvetham; and, 2. near Petersfield.

BRAMSTON, two villages; 1. in Suſſex, SE. of Dunmow: 2. in Northamtonſh. near Wilby.

BRAMTON, in Lincolnſhire, near Torkſey.

BRAMWITH, in Yorkſhire, near Fiſh-lake.

BRAMWITH-HALL, and BRAMWITH-KIRK, in Yorkſhire, 5 miles from Doncaſter.

BRAMYARD, a town in Herefordſhire, 125 miles from London. It has a market on Monday.

(1.) * BRAN. *n. ſ.* [*brenna*, Ital.] The huſks of corn ground; the refuſe of the ſieve.—

From me do back receive the flower of all,
And leave me but the *bran*. *Shakeſpear.*

—The citizens were driven to great diſtreſs for want of victuals; bread they made of the coarſeſt *bran*, moulded in cloths; for otherwiſe it would not cleave together. *Hayward.*—In the ſifting of fourteen years of power and favour, all that came out, could not be pure meal, but muſt have among it, a certain mixture of padar and *bran*, in this lower age of human fragility. *Wotton.*—

Then water, him, and drinking what he can,
Encourage him to thirſt again with *bran*. *Dryd.*

(2.) BRAN contains a portion of the farinaceous matter. It is leſs glutinous than the finer flour, and is ſuppoſed to have a detergent quality. Infuſions of bran are employed with this intention externally, and ſometimes likewiſe taken inwardly. Among the ancients, bran was uſed as an erotic, to excite love. Bran boiled, purges ſcurf, dandreff, and cleanſes the hands in lieu of ſoap. The dyers reckon it among the not-colouring drugs; and uſe it for making what they call the

ſcur-

fur waters, with which they prepare their ſeveral dyes. Bran is alſo uſed as a medicine for horſes. See FARRIERY, *Index*.

(3.) BRAN, a hill of Scotland, in Inverneſs-ſhire; ſo named, (ſays tradition,) from *Bran*, the famous dog of Fingal.

(4.) BRAN, a river. See BRAAN.

BRANCA, in writers of the middle age, the paw of a wild beaſt; a bird of prey.

BRANCASTER, a village in Norfolkſhire.

(1.) * BRANCH. *n. ſ.* [*branche*, Fr.] 1. The ſhoot of a tree from one of the main boughs.—

Why grow the *branches*, when the root is gone?
Why wither not the leaves that want their ſap?
Shakeſpeare.

2. Any member or part of the whole; any diſtinct article; any ſection or ſubdiviſion.—

Your oaths are paſt, and now ſubſcribe your names,
That his own hand may ſtrike his honour down,
That violates the ſmalleſt *branch* herein. *Shak.*

—The belief of this was of ſpecial importance, to confirm our hopes of another life, on which ſo many *branches* of chriſtian piety do immediately depend. *Hammond.*—In the ſeveral *branches* of juſtice and charity, comprehended in thoſe general rules, of loving our neighbour as ourſelves, and of doing to others as we would have them do to us, there is nothing but what is moſt fit and reaſonable. *Tillotſon.*—This precept will oblige us to perform our duty, according to the nature of the various *branches* of it. *Rogers.* 3. Any part that ſhoots out from the reſt.—And ſix *branches* ſhall come out of the ſides of it; three *branches* of the candleſtick out of the one ſide, and three *branches* of the candleſtick out of the other ſide. *Exodus.*—His blood, which diſperſeth itſelf by the *branches* of veins, may be reſembled to waters carried by brooks. *Raleigh.* 4. A ſmaller river running into, or proceeding from, a larger.—If, from a main river, any *branch* be ſeparated and divided, then, where that *branch* doth firſt bound itſelf with new banks, there is that part of the river where the *branch* forſaketh the main ſtream, called the head of the river. *Raleigh.* 5. Any part of a family deſcending in a collateral line.—His father, a younger *branch* of the ancient ſtock planted in Somerſetſhire, took to wife the widow. *Carew.* 6. The offspring; the deſcendant.—

Great Anthony! Spain's well-beſeeming pride,
Thou mighty *branch* of emperours and kings!
Craſhaw.

7. The antlers or ſhoots of a ſtag's horn. 8. The *branches* of a bridle are two pieces of bended iron, that bear the bit-mouth, the chains, and the curb, in the interval between one and the other. *Farrier's Dict.* 9. [In architecture.] The arches of Gothick vaults; which arches tranſverſing from one angle to another, diagonal wiſe, form a croſs between the other arches, which make the ſides of the ſquare, of which the arches are diagonals. *Harris.*

(2.) BRANCH, in botany, an arm of a tree, or a part which, ſprouting out from the trunk, helps to form the head or crown thereof. Branches do not ſpring out of the mere ſurface of the trunk, but are deeply rooted therein, ſo as not only to penetrate the cortical, but alſo the woody ſubſtance, and even the pith. The conſtitutent parts therefore of a *branch* are the ſame as of the trunk, viz. ſkin, bark, wood, and pith. See PLANTS.

(3.) BRANCHES OF A BRIDLE, (ſee § 1. *def.* 8.) on one end anſwer to the head-ſtall, and on the other to the reins, in order to keep the horſe's head in ſubjection. They are either in form of a piſtol, for young horſes to form their mouth; or after the faſhion of the ci-devant conſtable of France, proper for a horſe that carries his head well. Some are in form of a gigot, or leg, to prevent horſes from carrying too low: Some in that of a bent knee, for horſes that arm themſelves againſt the operation of the bit; and others after the French faſhion, which is hardly above ½ of an inch at the ſevile hole, and kneed 1¾ inch at the jarret or ham. It is to be obſerved, 1. That the farther the branch is from the horſe's neck, the more effect it will have. 2. That ſhort branches, *cæteris paribus*, are ruder, and their effects more ſudden, than thoſe of longer. 5. That the branch is to be proportioned to the length of a horſe's neck; and one may ſooner err in chooſing one too ſhort than too long.

(4.) BRANCHES OF OGIVES. See § 1. *def.* 9.

(1.) * *To* BRANCH. *v. a.* 1. To divide as into branches.—The ſpirit of things animate are all continued within themſelves, and are *branched* into canals, as blood is; and the ſpirits have not only branches, but certain cells or ſeats, where the principal ſpirits do reſide. *Bacon.* 2. To adorn with needlework, repreſenting flowers and ſprigs.

In robe of lily white ſhe was array'd,
That from her ſhoulder to her heel down raught,
The train whereof looſe far behind her ſtray'd,
Branch'd with gold and pearl, moſt richly wrought.
Spenſer.

(2.) * *To* BRANCH. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſpread in branches.—They were trained together in their childhoods, and there rooted betwixt them ſuch an affection, which cannot chooſe but *branch* now. *Shakeſpeare.*—The cauſe of ſcattering the boughs, is the haſty breaking forth of the ſap; and therefore thoſe trees riſe not in a body of any height, but *branch* near the ground. The cauſe of the pyramis, is the keeping in of the ſap, long before it *branch*, and the ſpending of it, when it beginneth to *branch*, by equal degrees. *Bacon.*—

Plant it round with ſhade
Of laurel, ever-green, and *branching* plane. *Milt.*
Straight as a line in beauteous order ſtood,
Of oaks unſhorn a venerable wood;
Freſh was the graſs beneath, and ev'ry tree
At diſtance planted, in a due degree,
Their *branching* arms in air, with equal ſpace,
Stretch'd to their neighbours with a long embrace.
Dryden.
One ſees her thighs transform'd, another views
Her arms ſhot out, and *branching* into boughs.
Addiſon.

2. To ſpread into ſeparate and diſtinct parts and ſubdiviſions.—The Alps at the one end, and the long range of the Appenines that paſſes through the body of it, *branch* out, on all ſides, into ſeveral different diviſions. *Addiſ.*—If we would weigh, and keep in our minds, what it is we are conſidering, that would beſt inſtruct us when we ſhould, or ſhould not, *branch* into further diſtinctions.

tions. *Locke.* 3. To ſpeak diffuſively, or with the diſtinction of the parts of a diſcourſe.—I have known a woman *branch* out into a long diſſertation upon the edging of a petticoat. *Spect.* 4. To have horns ſhooting out into antlers.—

The ſwift ſtag from under ground
Bore up his *branching* head. *Milton.*

BRANCHÆ, in medicine, glandular tumours in the fauces reſembling two almonds.

* BRANCHER. *n. ſ.* [from *branch.*] 1. One that ſhoots out into branches.—If their child be not ſuch a ſpeedy ſpreader and *brancher*, like the vine, yet he may yield, with a little longer expectation, as uſeful and more ſober fruit than the other. *Wotton.* 2. [*branchier*, Fr.] In falconry, a young hawk.—I enlarge my diſcourſe to the obſervation of the eires, the *brancher*, and the two ſorts of lentners. *Walton.*

BRANCHERY, in the anatomy of vegetables, the vaſcular parts of divers fruits, as apples, pears, plums, and berries.

BRANCHIÆ, [βραγχια,] in the anatomy of fiſhes, the GILLS, or parts correſponding to the lungs of land animals. All fiſhes except the cetaceous ones, and the pteromyzum, which have lungs, are furniſhed with theſe organs of reſpiration. See ZOOTOMY.

BRANCHIALE, in natural hiſtory, a name given by Mr Lhuyd to a peculiar ſpecies of FUNGITÆ, which being of a deeply ſtriated texture, is ſuppoſed to reſemble the gills of a fiſh.

(1.) BRANCHIDÆ, in antiquity, prieſts of the temple of Apollo, at Didymus in Ionia. They opened the temple of Apollo to Xerxes, who plundered it of its riches; after which, thinking themſelves not ſafe in Greece, they fled to Sogdiana, on the other ſide of the Caſpian ſea, where they built a city. (N° 2.) Alexander the Great having conquered Darius king of Perſia, and being informed of their treachery, put them all to the ſword, and razed their city; thus puniſhing the impiety of the fathers in their poſterity.

(2.) BRANCHIDÆ, in geography, a city on the frontiers of Perſia. See N° 1.

BRANCHIDES, an epithet of Apollo.

BRANCHILET, *n. ſ. obſ.* a little branch. *Ch.*

* BRANCHINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *branchy.*] Fullneſs of branches.

BRANCHING, the ramification of the horns of deer, &c. which bears an analogy with the vegetation of plants. *Phil. Tranſ.* N° 227.

BRANCHIOSTEGI, in ichthyology, one of the general claſſes of fiſhes; the characters of which are, that the rays of the fins are of a bony ſubſtance; but theſe fiſh have no bones or officula at the branchiæ, as the malacopterygious and acanthopterygious fiſhes all have.

BRANCHIOSTEGIOUS, *adj.* belonging to the branchioſtegi.

* BRANCHLESS. *adj.* [from *branch.*] 1. Without ſhoots or boughs. 2. Without any valuable product; naked.—

If I loſe mine honour,
I loſe myſelf; better I were not yours,
Than yours ſo *branchleſs*. *Shakeſpeare.*

BRANCHON, a town of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, 2 miles S. of Ramillies, and 8 W. of Namur, ſeated on the river Mehaigne. It is now included in the new department of Sambre and Meuſe. Lon. 4. 40. E. Lat. 50. 36. N.

To BRANCH-STAND, *v. a.* among falconers, a term uſed to ſignify the making a hawk leap from tree to tree, till the dog ſprings the game.

(1.) BRANCHUS, [βραγχος,] in medicine, a ſpecies of catarrh, affecting chiefly the jaws, throat, and *arteria aſpera.*

(2.) BRANCHUS, in the mythology, a Theſſalian youth, to whom Apollo is fabled to have given the ſpirit of divination.

*BRANCHY. *adj.* [from *branch.*] Full of branches; ſpreading.—

Trees on trees o'erthrown,
Fall cracking round him, and the forefts groan;
Sudden full twenty on the plain are ſtrow'd,
And lopp'd, and lighten'd of their *branchy* load.
Pope.

—What carriage can bear away all the various, rude, and unwieldy loppings of a *branchy* tree at once? *Watts.*

* BRAND. *n. ſ.* [*brand*, Sax.] 1. A ſtick lighted in the fire.—

Have I caught thee?
He that parts us ſhall bring a *brand* from heav'n,
And fire us hence. *Shakeſpeare.*
Take it, ſhe ſaid, and when your needs require,
This little *brand* will ſerve to light your fire.
Dryden.

—If, with double diligence they labour to retrieve the hours they have loſt, they ſhall be ſaved; though this is a ſervice of great difficulty, and like a *brand* plucked out of the fire. *Rogers.* 3. [*brandar*, Runick.] A ſword, in old language.

They looking back, all the eaſtern ſide beheld
Of paradiſe, ſo late their happy ſeat!
Wav'd o'er by that flaming *brand*; the gate
With dreadful faces throng'd, and fiery arms.
Milton.

3. A thunderbolt.—

The fire omnipotent prepares the *brand*,
By Vulcan wrought, and arms his potent hand.
Grenville.

4. A mark made by burning a criminal with a hot iron, to note him as infamous; a ſtigma.—Clerks convict ſhould be burned in the hand, both becauſe they might taſte of ſome corporeal puniſhment, and that they might carry a *brand* of infamy. *Bacon.*—The rules of good and evil are inverted, and a *brand* of infamy paſſes for a badge of honour. *L'Eſtrange.* 5. Any note of infamy.—

Where did his wit on learning fix a *brand*,
And rail at arts he did not underſtand? *Dryd.*

* *To* BRAND. *v. a.* [*branden*, Dutch.] To mark with a brand, or note of infamy.—

Have I liv'd thus long a wife, a true one,
Never yet *branded* with ſuſpicion? *Shakeſpeare.*

—The king was after *branded*, by Perkin's proclamation, for an execrable breaker of the rights of holy church. *Bacon.*—

Brand not their actions with ſo foul a name;
Pity, at leaſt, what we are forc'd to blame.
Dryden.

Ha! dare not for thy life, I charge thee, dare not
To *brand* the ſpotleſs virtue of my prince. *Rowe.*

Our Punick faith
Is infamous, and *branded* to a proverb. *Addiſon.*

—The

—The ſpreader of the pardons anſwered him an eaſier way, by *branding* him with hereſy. *Atterb.*

BRANDARIS, a ſpecies of STROMBUS.

BRANDEIS, a town of Bohemia, ſeated on the Elbe; 10 miles NE. of Prague. Lon. 14. 25. E. Lat. 50. 15. N.

BRANDEN, a town in Northumberland, ſeated on the Breamiſh, SE. of Cheviot hills.

(1.) BRANDENBURG, a city of Germany, and capital of the marquiſate (N° 2.) ſituated on the river Havel. It is divided into the old and new town, and was anciently the ſee of a biſhop. It has a ſmall colony of French Calviniſts, with a manufacture of cloth, fuſtian, and canvas; and a pretty good trade is carried on by the Havel. The fort looks like a ſuburb, and contains a riding-ſchool, with the cathedral church. The greateſt part alſo of the members of the chapter, which ſtill ſubſiſts, and is compoſed of a Lutheran provoſt, dean, ſenior, ſubſenior, and 3 other canons, reſide in it. They are diſtinguiſhed by a croſs of gold enamelled with violet, terminating in 8 points; and have a conſiderable eſtate. Near the town is a lake of ſome extent. Lon. 14. 5. E. Lat. 52. 45. N.

(2.) BRANDENBURG, an extenſive marquiſate of Germany, bounded by Mecklenburgh and Pomerania on the N. Poland, on the E. Sileſia, Lutitia, Saxony, Anhalt, and Magdebourg, on the S. and by part of the latter and Lunenburg, on the W. Its greateſt length is about 200 miles, and its greateſt breadth near 100. Its northern ſituation makes it very cold for 7 or 8 months in winter. The ſoil in general is far from being fruitful, a great part of it conſiſting of ſand: yet there are ſeveral fruitful ſpots in it; and the whole, under the laſt and preſent reign, has been greatly improved, and better peopled than formerly. In its different diſtricts, it produces wheat, millet, flax, tobacco, woad, and other herbs. Alum, ſal petre, amber, iron-ſtone, colour earths, and medicinal ſprings, are found in it. It abounds in cattle, and eſpecially ſheep; and the woods not only ſupply the inhabitants with fuel, but with timber, charcoal, tar, and wood-aſhes, both for domeſtic uſes and for exportation. The culture of ſilk alſo is carried on with great ſucceſs. The principal rivers are the Elbe, the Oder, the Prignitz, the Havel, the Warte, and the Spree. Some of the rivers and lakes abound in fiſh, and are united by canals. The marquiſate conſiſts of 120 towns, above 1500 villages, and contains about 800,000 inhabitants. The nobility and towns conſtitute the ſtates, whoſe aſſembly houſe is in the Spandau-ſtreet at Berlin, and who ſtill enjoy ſome ſmall remains of their ancient privileges. The hereditary offices of the marquiſate are a marſhal, chamberlain, cup-bearer, purveyor, ſewer, treaſurer, and ranger. The king of Pruſſia, (who is elector of Brandenburgh,) and his whole court, are Calviniſts; but the religion of moſt of the inhabitants is Lutheraniſm. The churches of both perſuaſions are well endowed, and the laity jointly employed by the government. The Roman catholics are all tolerated, and every inhabitant enjoys full liberty of conſcience. Various manufactures, moſt of which were introduced by the French refugees, are carried on in the marquiſate, eſpecially at Berlin and Potſdam; where are alſo excellent painters, ſtatuaries, and engravers. By theſe manufactures, fabrics, and arts, not only large ſums are kept in the country, but alſo imported from other parts, to which conſiderable quantities of the manufactures, and natural productions, are exported. For the education of youth, and the advancement of learning, beſides Latin ſchools in ſeveral places, and gymnaſia, there is an univerſity at Frankfort on the Oder, and an academy at Berlin. Brandenburg is of great antiquity. Some hiſtorians ſay it was founded by the Sclavonians, who give it the name of *Branber*, which ſignifies the Guards of the Foreſts; and the Germans called it *Branburgh*. The emperor Henry I. fortified it in 923, to ſerve as a rampart againſt the Huns, and beſtowed the government on Sifroi, Count of Ringelheim, with the title of *Margrave* or *Marquis*. It deſcended to Geron, Margrave of Luſatia; which paſſed into the families of Staden, Aſcania, Bellenſtadt, and that of Bavaria, till the Emperor Sigiſmund, with the conſent of the ſtates of the empire in 1416, gave perpetual inveſtiture to Frederick VI. of Nuremberg; who alſo, in 1417, received at the diet of Conſtance, the inveſtiture of the country of Brandenburg; having had previouſly conferred upon him the dignities of elector and arch-chamberlain of the holy Roman empire. Brandenburg remained long in ſubjection to Poland; and the inveſtiture of Pruſſia was granted by the Poliſh kings to each ſucceeding margrave. Frederick-William, having concluded a treaty with the king of Poland, was acknowledged to be ſovereign of Ducal Pruſſia by an aſſembly of the ſtates of Konigſberg, A. D. 1663. By the treaty of Vienna the Emperor confirmed this title; and Frederick, the ſon of Frederick-William, was proclaimed king of Pruſſia, Jan. 18, 1701. See PRUSSIA. This monarch poſſeſſes the ſeventh place among the electors. As arch-chamberlain, he carries the ſceptre before the emperor at his coronation, and brings him water in a ſilver baſon to waſh with. In the college of princes of the empire, he has 5 voices. His aſſeſſment, as elector, is 60 horſe and 227 foot, or 1828 florins in lieu of them. To the chamber of Wetzlaer his quota is 811 rix dollars, 58 kruitzers, each term. For the government of this country, and the adminiſtration of juſtice, there are ſeveral ſupreme colleges and tribunals; particularly diſtinct boards for the departments of war, foreign affairs, and the finances. There is a ſupreme eccleſiaſtical council and conſiſtory for the Lutherans; a ſupreme directory of the Calviniſt church; a ſupreme medicinal college; a ſupreme mine office; a board of trade, &c. Thoſe of the French nation, ſettled in this country, are allowed particular courts of their own. The amount of the yearly revenues of the Marche, ariſing from the domains, protection-money paid by the Jews, tolls, land tax, mines, foreſts, duties on ſtamp-paper, ſalt, and various other impoſts and exciſes, is computed at about 2,500,000 crowns, but the money is ſaid to be much inferior in goodneſs to that of Saxony and the domains of Hanover. During the continental war of 1756, it was extremely debaſed. Some eſtimate the whole number of the inhabitants of the royal and electoral domini-

ons

ons at 5,000,000, and the revenues at about 2,000,000 ſterling. Upwards of 100,000 men are kept on foot in time of peace, which are ſaid to coſt more than half of the royal revenue. Theſe troops are under ſtrict diſcipline, very expert at their exerciſe, always in readineſs to march, and always complete. Each regiment has a particular diſtrict allotted for its quarters and raiſing recruits. The infantry are clothed in blue, and the horſe and dragoons in white: and both are required to hear a ſermon twice a day when in quarters or garriſons. In time of peace they are allowed, for ſeveral months in the year, to hire themſelves out, or to follow their buſineſs, either as burghers or peaſants, in the canton where they are quartered; but they are not allowed *to marry*. A conſiderable part of theſe troops are ſtationed in the Marche, particularly at Berlin and Potſdam. The corps of huſſars alone amount to about 10,000 men. Brandenburg is divided, in general, into the electoral and new Marches. The former is again ſubdivided into the old Marche, the Pregnitz, the middle Marche, and the Ucker Marche. The old Marche, which lies on the weſt ſide of the Elbe, between the river and Lunenburg, is about 50 miles in length, and in breadth about 30.

(3.) BRANDENBURGH, NEW, the capital of the circle of Stargard, in the duchy of Mecklenburg, and the largeſt town in the dominions of the D. of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. The houſes are neat, the ſtreets remarkably clean. It carries on a good trade in hops. Lon. 13. 22. E. Lat. 53. 40. N.

BRANDESTON, a town in the county of Suffolk, near Glemham.

BRANDEUM, in eccleſiaſtical writers, a linen cloth put over the tombs of St Peter and St Paul, and left there for ſome time; by which it is ſuppoſed to acquire a degree of ſanctity, ſo as to be worſhipped as a relic; and for that purpoſe is frequently ſent by the pope as a preſent to ſome prince. In this ſenſe, Brandeum amounts to the ſame with *ſanctuarium*, *ſudarium*, *orarium*, and *velum*. The uſe of brandea was introduced as a means of diffuſing and propagating the virtues and influences of relics, without moving or any way impairing the ſubſtance of them; the tranſlation of relics in early days being interdicted.

* BRANDGOOSE. *n. ſ.* A kind of wild fowl, leſs than a common gooſe. having its breaſt and wings of a dark colour. *Dict.*

BRAND HERRING, a ſpecies of herring caught by the Dutch.

BRANDING, in the face or hand, a puniſhment inflicted by law on various offences, by burning with a hot iron, after the offender hath been once admitted to benefit of clergy.

BRAND IRON; 1. a hot iron to brand a criminal: 2. an iron to ſet a veſſel upon over a fire.

* *To* BRANDISH. *v. a.* [from *brand*, a ſword.] 1. To wave, or ſhake, or flouriſh, as a weapon.—

Brave Macbeth,
Diſdaining fortune, with his *brandiſh'd* ſteel,
Like valour's minion, carved out his paſſage.
Shakeſpeare.

He ſaid, and *brandiſhing* at once his blade,
With eager place purſued the flaming ſhade.
Dryden.

Let me march their leader, not their prince;
And, at the head of your renown'd Cydonians,
Brandiſh this ſword. *Smith.*

2. To play with; to flouriſh.—He, who ſhall employ all the force of his reaſon, only in *brandiſhing* of ſyllogiſms, will diſcover very little. *Locke.*

BRANDLESHAM, a village in Lancaſhire, N. of Bury.

* BRANDLING. *n. ſ.* The name of a particular worm.—The dew-worm, which ſome alſo call the lob-worm, and the *brandling*, are the chief. *Walton.*

BRANDOLINUS, Aurelius, ſirnamed LIPPUS, from his being bleer-eyed, was born at Florence in the 15th century, and was eſteemed a great orator, poet, and muſician. Matthias Corvinus, king of Hungary, invited him to teach oratory in his dominions; which he did many years at Buda and Strigonia with great ſucceſs. On his return to Florence, he took orders, and preached to the moſt crowded audiences. He died at Rome of the plague in 1498. He wrote ſeveral works which were eſteemed: particularly, 1. A commentary on St Paul's Epiſtles: 2. A Treatiſe *De Lege*: 3. Two Books of Chriſtian Paradoxes: 4. Three Books *De Ratione Scribendi*: 5. A Dialogue *De humanæ vitæ conditione, et tollenda corporum ægritudine*: dedicated to king Matthias: and, 6. The Scripture hiſtories in heroic verſe.

(1.) BRANDON, a town of Suffolk in England, ſeated on a little river Ouſe, over which it has a bridge, and a ferry at a mile's diſtance: whence it is divided into Brandon, and Brandon-ferry; which laſt has the moſt buſineſs, becauſe commodities are brought thither from the iſle of Ely. From this place the duke of Hamilton has his Britiſh title. Lon. 0. 55. E. Lat. 52. 30. N.

(2—7.) BRANDON, the name of 6 Engliſh villages, viz. 1. EAST, and 2. WEST, in Durham; 3. in Lincolnſhire, S. of Newark: 4. in Norfolkſhire, E. of Dereham: 5. in Shropſhire, E. of the river Temde: and 6. in Warwickſhire between Rugby and Coventry.

(8.) BRANDON HILL, in Kerry, Ireland.

BRANDRITH, 1. a trevet or other iron ſtand, whereon to ſet a veſſel over the fire: 2. a fence or rail about the mouth of a well.

BRANDSBURTON, a village in Yorkſhire near Fordlingham.

BRAND SUNDAY, *Dimanche des Brandons*, in French eccleſiaſtical writers, denotes the firſt Sunday in Lent; ſo called on account of an ancient practice in the Lionnois, where the peaſants, in the night of this day, walked about their orchards, gardens, &c. with lighted torches, or fire-brands in their hands; in which plight they viſited every tree, and addreſſing themſelves to them one after another, threatened that if they did not bear fruit well the enſuing ſeaſon, they ſhould be cut down to the ground and burnt. This is evidently a relict of Paganiſm; the like having been practiſed by the ancient Romans in February.

BRANDT, Gerard, a learned proteſtant divine born at Amſterdam in 1626, and ſucceſſively miniſter in ſeveral places of the Netherlands. He wrote ſome works which are eſteemed; particularly, The Hiſtory of the reformation of the Netherlands, 4 vols 4to; and the life of admiral Ruyter

ter; both written in the Flemiſh tongue. He died at Rotterdam in 1685.

(1.) * BRANDY. *n. ſ.* [contracted from *brande-wine*, or *burnt wine*.] A ſtrong liquor diſtilled from wine.—If your maſter lodgeth at inns, every dram of *brandy* extraordinary that you drink, raiſeth his character. *Swift's Footman.*

(2.) BRANDY is extracted from other liquors, as well as wine, by diſtillation. See DISTILLATION. It is ſpirituous and inflammable. Wine brandy, made in France, is eſteemed the beſt in Europe. It is made wherever wine is made; and wine that is pricked is preferred to good wine. The chief brandies for foreign trade, and thoſe accounted beſt, are the brandies of Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Cogniac, Charenton, Nantz, the iſle of Rhe, Orleans, and the ci-devant provinces of Blaſois, Poitou, Touraine, Anjou, Burgundy, and Champaign.

(3.) * BRANDY-WINE. The ſame with *brandy*.—It has been a common ſaying, A hair of the ſame dog; and thought, that *brandy-wine* is a common relief to ſuch. *Wiſeman.*

BRANE, the name of two rivers in S. Wales; 1. in Brecknockſhire; and, 2. in Caermarthenſhire.

BRANFORD, a town of the United States, in New-Haven county, Connecticut; ſeated on a ſmall ſtream that runs into Long-iſland ſound. It contains a church and above 40 houſes compactly built. It is about 8 m. S. E. by E. from New-Haven, and 191 from Philadelphia. Lon. 1. 52. E. Lat. 41. 18. N.

* BRANGLE. *n. ſ.* [uncertainly derived.] Squabble; wrangle; litigious conteſt.—The payment of tithes is ſubject to many frauds, *brangles*, and other difficulties, not only from papiſts and diſſenters, but even from thoſe who profeſs themſelves proteſtants. *Swift.*

* *To* BRANGLE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To wrangle; to ſquabble.—When polite converſing ſhall be improved, company will be no longer peſtered with dull ſtory-tellers, nor *brangling* diſputers. *Swift.*

* BRANGLEMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *brangle*.] The ſame with *brangle*.

BRANHAM, a town near Tadcaſter, Yorkſh.

(1.) BRANK, an inſtrument uſed in Staffordſhire, for correcting ſcolding women. It is a ſort of head-piece, which opens and incloſes the head of the ſcold, while an iron, ſharp as a chiſſel, enters the mouth, and ſubdues the more dreadful weapon within. Thus harneſſed, the offender is led in triumph through the ſtreets. Dr Plott, in his hiſtory of Staffordſhire, gives a minute deſcription and figure of the inſtrument, which is there called a *ſcolding bridle*; and tells us, he looks upon it "as much to be preferred to the ducking-ſtool, which not only endangers the health of the party, but alſo gives the tongue liberty betwixt every dip; to neither of which this is at all liable." But with all due deference to Dr Plott, we would equally diſapprove of both. The morals of the people will never be amended by hardening their feelings againſt the ſufferings of others, however guilty or worthleſs. A good education will do more to reform the inferior claſſes, than all the ducking ſtools and ſcolding bridles, (we might add *Bridewells* and halters,) that ever were invented.

(2.) * BRANK. *n. ſ.* Buckwheat, or *brank*, is a grain very uſeful and advantageous in barren lands. *Mortimer.*

BRANKER, or BRANCKER, Thomas, an eminent mathematician of the 17th century, was born in Devonſhire, in 1636, and ſtudied at Exeter College, Oxford, where he took his degree of M. A. in 1658. His ſkill in mathematics and chemiſtry recommended him to Lord Brereton, who gave him the rectory of Tilſton. He was afterwards appointed maſter of the well-endowed ſchool at Macclesfield; where he died in 1676, aged 40. He wrote a Latin work *De Sphæra*; printed at Oxford in 1662; and a tranſlation of Rhonius's Algebra: Lond. 4to, 1668.

BRANKESTON, a village in Northumberland, between Flodden and the Tweed.

BRANKSEY, or BROWNSEA, a ſmall iſland of Dorſetſhire in the harbour of Pool.

BRANK URSINE, in botany. See ACANTHUS.

BRANLIN, in ichthyology, a ſpecies of ſalmon, with ſeveral tranſverſe black ſtreaks, reſembling the impreſſion of ſo many fingers.

BRANNODUNUM, in ancient geography, a town of Britain, on the Sinus Metaris. Under the Romans it had a garriſon of the Equites Dalmatiæ. It is now called BRANCASTER.

* BRANNY. *adj.* [from *bran*.] Having the appearance of bran.—It became ſerpiginous, and was, when I ſaw it, covered with white *branny* ſcales. *Wiſeman.*

BRANOGENIUM, or BRANONIUM, a town of the Coritani, in the heart of Britain. From the diſtances in the Itinerary, Camden ſuppoſes it to be WORCESTER.

BRANSAUGH, a village in Northumberland, near Akelington.

BRANSBY, in Yorkſhire, S. of Hovingham.

BRANSCOMB, 3 m. S. of Culliton, Devonſh.

BRANSDALE, in Yorkſhire, near Baſedale.

BRANSELS, *n. ſ. obſ.* 1. brawls. *Spenſer. Bailey.* 2. a ſort of tune. *Aſh.*

BRANSFORD BRIDGE, on the Swift, Leiceſt.

BRANSKA, a town of Tranſilvania, ſituated on the river Mariſh; 25 m. S. of Weiſſenburgh. Lon. 23. 15. E. Lat. 46. 5. N.

BRANSPETH CASTLE, among the hills, S. W. of Durham, W. of the Wear.

BRANSTILL CASTLE, E. of Ledbury, Hereford.

BRANSTON, the name of 3 villages: viz. 1. near Lincoln: 2. in Norfolkſh. E. of Rapeham: 3. in Staffordſh. on the Trent, S. W. of Burton.

BRANSWELL, in Lincolnſh. near Temple.

BRANT, a river in Angleſea.

BRANT-BROUGHTON, a town in Lincolnſhire.

BRANTETH WELL, a mineral ſpring in Dumfries-ſhire, which, though ſituated ſeveral yards deep in an extenſive moſs, contains a very ſtrong ſulphureous water, more powerful than that of Moffat, and uſed with great ſucceſs in ſcorbutic and ſcrophulous caſes.

BRANTHAM, a town near Deadham, Suffolk.

BRANTHINGHAM, a village in Yorkſhire, between S. Cave and Hull.

BRANTHINGTHORP, in Leiceſterſhire.

BRANTHINGTHORP-WESTCOT, near Leiceſter.

BRANTOFT, in Durham, near Gretham.

BRANTON, 3 villages; 1. in Devonſh. near Raleigh: 2. in Northumberland, 6 m. W. of Alnwick: 3. in Weſtmoreland, N. E. of Appleby.

BRANTSNAP, W. of Cuckfield, Suſſex.

BRAON, a river of Scotland, in Roſs-ſhire.

(1.) BRASAVOLUS, Antonius Muſa, M. D. and profeſſor of natural philoſophy, at Ferrara, flouriſhed in the middle of the 16th century. He wrote, 1. Commentaries on Hippocrates' Aphoriſms: 2. *Examen omnium ſimplicium*, quorum uſus eſt in publicis officinis: printed at Rome, 1536, and Lyons, 1544, 8vo. 3. A treatiſe on Venereal Diſeaſe; and ſeveral other medical works. He uſed the form of a dialogue, between himſelf and an apothecary. His ſtile is clear and ſimple.

(2.) BRASAVOLUS, Jerom, the ſon of Antonius Muſa, (N. 1.) was alſo a phyſician and medical author. He wrote, An Expoſition of the firſt Book of Hippocrates: Ferrara, 4to, 1595: and A treatiſe *De officiis Medicis*.

BRASBOROUGH, a town in Lincolnſhire.

BRASCOT, a village in Leiceſterſhire.

BRASEM, in ichthyology, a name by which ſome have called an American fiſh of the SMARIS kind, more commonly known by its Braſilian name, ACARPEBA.

BRASEWELL, a village in Yorkſhire, 3 m. E. of Griſbone.

BRASIATOR, *n. ſ.* [old law Lat.] a brewer.

BRASIATRIX, *n. ſ. obſ.* a female brewer.

BRASIDAS, a celebrated general of the Lacedæmonians, who flouriſhed A. A. C. 424. He defeated the Athenians by land and ſea, took many places, and rendered his country formidable to all the neighbouring ſtates. He conquered the Athenians on their attempting to ſurpriſe Amphipolis, but died of the wounds he received in that battle. See ATTICA, § 13, and LACEDEMON.

BRASIDIA, an anniverſary ſolemnity at Sparta, in memory of BRASIDAS. It was celebrated with ſacrifices and games, wherein none were permitted to contend but free-born Spartans. Whoever neglected to be preſent at the ſolemnity was fined.

* BRASIER. *n. ſ.* [from *braſs*.] 1. A manufacturer that works in braſs.—There is a fellow ſomewhat near the door, he ſhould be a *braſier* by his face. *Shakeſpeare.*—*Braſiers* that turn andirons, pots, kettles, &c. have their lathe made different from the common turners lathe. *Moxon.* 2. A pan to hold coals. [probably from *embraſer*, Fr.] It is thought they had no chimneys, but were warmed with coals on *braſiers*. *Arbuthnot.*

(1. 1.) BRASIL, or BRAZIL, a large country of South America, being the eaſtermoſt part of that continent, lying between the equinoctial line and 35° Lat. S.; and between 35° and 60° Lon. W. It is about 1560 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth; but, meaſuring along the coaſt, it is 2000 miles long, and including its windings 3000. It is bordered with mountains that open at due diſtances, and form good harbours where veſſels may lie in ſafety. It is bounded on the W. by Paraguay and Amazonia; on the S. E. and N. by the Atlantic Ocean.

(1. 2.) BRASIL, APPEARANCE, CLIMATE, PRODUCTIONS, &c. OF. The firſt aſpect of Braſil from the ſea is rather unfavourable, as it appears high, rough, and unequal; but, on a more narrow inſpection, nothing can be more delightful, the eminences being covered with woods, and the valleys with the moſt refreſhing verdure. In ſo vaſt a tract of land, it cannot be imagined that the climate will be found at all equal, or the ſeaſons uniform. The northern provinces are ſubject to heavy rains, variable winds, tornadoes, ſtorms, and the utmoſt fury of the elements; while the ſoutherly regions are bleſſed with all the comforts which a fine fertile ſoil and temperate climate can afford. In ſome of the provinces the heat of the climate favours the generation of a great variety of poiſonous reptiles; ſome of which, as the LIBOYA, or *roebuck* ſnake, are ſaid to extend to the length of 30 feet, and to be 2 or 3 yards in circumference. The rattle ſnake and other reptiles of the ſame kind, grow likewiſe to an enormous ſize; and the ſerpent called IBIBABOKA is affirmed to be ſeven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, poſſeſſed too of a poiſon inſtantaneouſly fatal to the human race. There alſo are ſcorpions, ant-bears, tygers, porcupines, jaronveras, and an animal called TAPIRASSOU, which is the production of a bull and an aſs, having a great reſemblance to both. No country on earth affords a greater number of beautiful birds, or greater variety of the moſt exquiſite fruits; but the chief commodities are Braſil wood, ebony, dyeing woods, ambergris, roſin, balſams, indigo, ſweetmeats, ſugar, tobacco, gold, diamonds, beautiful pebbles, cryſtal, emeralds, jaſper, and other precious ſtones; in all which the Portugueſe carry on an amazing trade. The gold and diamond mines are but a recent diſcovery: they were firſt opened in 1681; and have ſince yielded above five millions Sterling annually, of which ſum a fifth belongs to the crown. So plentiful are diamonds in this country, that the court of Portugal hath found it neceſſary to reſtrain their importation, to prevent too great a diminution of their value. They are neither ſo hard nor ſo clear as thoſe of the Eaſt Indies, nor do they ſparkle ſo much, but they are whiter. The Braſilian diamonds are ſold 20 per cent. cheaper than the Oriental ones, ſuppoſing the weights to be equal. The largeſt diamond in the world was ſent from Braſil to the king of Portugal. It weighs 1680 carats, or 12¼ ounces; and has been valued at L. 56,787,500.

(3.) BRASIL, HISTORY OF. Braſil was accidentally diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1500.—Emanuel, king of Portugal, had equipped a ſquadron of 13 ſail, carrying 1200 ſoldiers and ſailors deſtined for the E. Indies, under the conduct of Peter Alvarez Cabral. This admiral quitting Liſbon on the 9th of March 1500, ſtruck out to ſea to avoid the coaſt of Guinea, and ſteered his courſe ſouthward, that he might the more eaſily turn the Cape of Good Hope, which projects a good way into the ocean. On the 24th of April, he got ſight of the continent of South America, which he judged to be a large iſland at ſome diſtance from the coaſt of Africa. Coaſting along for ſome time, he ventured to ſend a boat on ſhore; and was aſtoniſhed to obſerve the inhabitants entirely different from the Africans in features, hair, and

and complexion. It was found, however, impracticable to ſeize upon any of the Indians, who retired with great celerity to the mountains on the approach of the Portugueſe; yet, as the ſailors had diſcovered a good harbour, the admiral thought proper to come to an anchor, and called the bay *Puerto Seguro*. Next day he ſent another boat on ſhore, and had the good fortune to lay hold on two of the natives, whom he clothed and treated kindly, and then diſmiſſed, to make a proper report to their countrymen. The ſtratagem had the deſired effect. The Indians having heard the relation of the priſoners, immediately crowded to the ſhore, ſinging, dancing, and ſounding horns of different kinds; which induced Cabral to land, and take poſſeſſion in the name of his ſovereign. As ſoon as the court of Liſbon had ordered a ſurvey to be taken of the harbours, bays, rivers, and coaſts of Braſil, and was convinced that the country afforded neither gold nor ſilver, they held it in ſuch contempt, that they ſent thither none but condemned criminals and abandoned women. Two ſhips were ſent every year from Portugal, to carry the refuſe of the kingdom to this new world, and to bring home parrots and woods for the dyers and cabinet makers. Ginger was afterwards added; but ſoon after prohibited, leſt it ſhould interfere with the ſale of the ſame article from India. In 1548, the Jews many of whom had taken refuge in Portugal, beginning to be perſecuted by the inquiſition, were ſtripped of their poſſeſſions, and baniſhed to Braſil. Here, however, they were not entirely forſaken. Many of them found kind relations and faithful friends; others, who were known to be men of probity and underſtanding, obtained money in advance from merchants of different nations with whom they had formerly had tranſactions. By the aſſiſtance of ſome enterpriſing men, they were enabled to cultivate ſugar canes, which they firſt procured from the iſland of Madeira.—Sugar, which till then had been uſed only in medicine, became an article of luxury. Princes and great men were eager to procure this new luxury. This circumſtance proved favourable to Braſil, and enabled it to extend its ſugar plantations.—The court of Liſbon, notwithſtanding its prejudices, began to be ſenſible, that a colony might be beneficial to the mother country, without producing gold or ſilver; and this ſettlement, which had been wholly left to the care of the coloniſts, was now thought to deſerve ſome kind of attention; and accordingly Thomas de Souza was ſent thither, in 1549, to regulate and ſuperintend it. This able governor began by reducing theſe men, who had hitherto lived in a ſtate of anarchy, into proper ſubordination, and bringing their ſcattered plantations cloſer together; after which he applied himſelf to acquire ſome information reſpecting the natives, with whom he knew he muſt be inceſſantly engaged either in traffic or war. This was no eaſy matter. Braſil was full of ſmall nations, ſome of which inhabited the foreſts, and others lived in the plains and along the rivers. Some had fixed habitations; but the greater number of them led a roving life, and moſt of them had no intercourſe with each other. It is not to be ſuppoſed that ſuch a people would be at all diſpoſed to ſubmit to the yoke which the Portugueſe wanted to put upon them on their arrival. At firſt they only declined all intercourſe with theſe ſtrangers: but finding themſelves purſued in order to be made ſlaves, and to be employed in the labours of the field, they reſolved to murder and devour all the Europeans they could ſeize upon. The relations of the ſavages, that were taken priſoners, alſo frequently attempted to reſcue them, and were ſometimes ſucceſsful; ſo that the Portugueſe were forced to attend to the double employments of labour and war. Souza did not bring a ſufficient number of forces to change the ſituation of affairs. Indeed by building San Salvador, he gave a centre to the colony; but the honour of ſettling, extending, and making it really uſeful to the mother country, was reſerved for the Jeſuits who attended him. Theſe men, who for their arts of inſinuation and addreſs have been equalled by none, diſperſed themſelves among the Indians. When any of the miſſionaries were murdered, they were immediately replaced by others; and ſeeming to be inſpired only with ſentiments of peace and charity, the Indians, in proceſs of time, grew not only familiar with, but paſſionately fond of them. As the miſſionaries were too few in number to tranſact all the buſineſs themſelves, they frequently deputed ſome of the moſt intelligent Indians in their ſtead. Theſe men having diſtributed hatchets, knives, and looking-glaſſes, among the ſavages they met with, repreſented the Portugueſe as a harmleſs, humane, and good ſort of people. The proſperity of Braſil, which was viſible to all Europe, excited the envy of the French, Spaniards, and Dutch ſucceſſively. The latter attempted the conqueſt of the whole. Their admiral, Henry Lonk, arrived, in the beginning of the year 1630, with 46 men of war, on the coaſt of Fernambucca, one of the largeſt and beſt fortified captainſhips of theſe parts. He reduced it after ſeveral obſtinate engagements. The troops he left behind ſubdued Temaraca, Pareiba, and Rio Grande, in 1633, 1634, and 1635. Theſe, as well as Fernambucca, furniſhed annually a large quantity of ſugar, a great deal of wood for dyeing, and other commodities. The Dutch were ſo elated with the acquiſition of this wealth, that they determined to conquer all the Braſils, and entruſted Maurice of Naſſau with the conduct of this enterpriſe. That general reached the place of his deſtination in the beginning of 1637. He found the ſoldiers ſo well diſciplined, the commanders ſuch experienced men, and ſo much readineſs in all to engage, that he directly took the field. He was ſucceſſively oppoſed by Albuquerk, Banjola, Lewis Rocca de Borgia, and the Braſilian Cameron, the idol of his people, who was paſſionately fond of the Portugueſe, brave, active, cunning, and wanted no qualification neceſſary for a general, but to have learned the art of war under able commanders. Theſe ſeveral chiefs exerted their utmoſt efforts to defend the poſſeſſions that were under their protection; but their endeavours proved ineffectual. The Dutch ſeized upon Siara, Seregippe, and the greater part of Bahia. Seven of the 15 provinces which compoſed the colony had already ſubmitted to them, and they flattered themſelves that one or two cam-

paigns would make them maſters of the reſt; when they were ſuddenly checked by the revolution, which baniſhed Philip IV. and placed the duke of Braganza on the throne. After this, the Portugueſe recovering their ſpirits, drove the Dutch out of Braſil, and have continued maſters of it ever ſince.

(4.) BRASIL, ORIGINAL INHABITANTS OF. The Aborigines, or original natives of Braſil, chiefly inhabit the inland parts of the country; and are divided into different tribes, called Tapinamboes, Tobajaras, Petiguaras, Tapayas, &c. They ſpeak different languages, but they all agree in wearing no clothes. They are of a copper colour, with long coarſe black hair on their heads, but without any on the other parts of their bodies, like the reſt of the Americans. They are ſtrong, lively, and gay, and ſubject to few diſeaſes. They adorn themſelves with feathers, and are fond of feaſts, at which they dance immoderately. They have no temples, nor any other ſigns of religion; and they make no ſcruple to marry their neareſt relations. They have huts made of the branches of trees, and cover them with palm tree leaves. Their furniture conſiſts chiefly in their hammocks, and diſhes or cups, made of calibaſhes, painted without of a red colour, and black within. Their knives are made of a ſort of ſtone and ſplit canes; and they have baſkets of different ſizes, chiefly made of palm tree leaves. Their arms are bows, arrows, and wooden clubs. When they travel, they faſten their hammocks between two trees, and ſleep all night in them.

(5.) BRASIL, PROVINCES OF. Braſil is divided into the following provinces, viz. Paria, Maragnano, Siara, Rio Grande, Pareiba, Tamarica, Fernambucca, Seregippe, Bahia, Porto Seguro, Eſperito Santo, Rio de Janeiro, Angra, St Vincent, and Del Rey. See theſe articles.

(6.) BRASIL, REVENUE AND TRADE OF. The crown revenue ariſing from this colony is eſtimated at two millions Sterling in gold, beſides the duties on merchandiſe imported from that quarter. This indeed is more than a fifth of the produce by the mines; but, every other conſequent advantage conſidered, it probably does not much exceed the truth. The exceſſive confluence of the people to the Braſil colonies, not only enlarges the imports of gold, but, what is of infinitely more importance to Europe in general, the exportation of the manufactures of this hemiſphere. Great Britain ſends woollen manufactures; ſuch as fine broad medley cloths, fine Spaniſh cloths, ſcarlet and black cloths; ſerges, duroys, druggets, ſagathies, ſhalloons, camblets, and Norwich ſtuffs; black Colcheſter bays; ſays, and perpetuanus called *long ells*; hats, ſtockings, and gloves. Holland, Germany, and France, chiefly export fine hollands, bone-lace, and fine thread; ſilk manufacture, pepper, lead, block tin, and other articles, are alſo ſent from different countries. England likewiſe trades with Portugal, for the uſe of the Braſils, in copper and braſs, wrought and unwrought pewter, and all kinds of hardware: all which articles have ſo enlarged the Portugueſe trade, that, inſtead of 12 ſhips uſually employed in the Braſil commerce, there are now never fewer than 100 ſail of veſſels conſtantly going and returning to thoſe colonies. To all this may be added the vaſt ſlave trade carried on with the coaſt of Africa for the uſe of the Braſil colonies. Indeed the commerce of Braſil alone is ſufficient to raiſe Portugal to a conſiderable height of naval power, as it maintains a conſtant nurſery of ſeamen; yet a certain infatuation in the policy of the country has prevented that effect even amidſt all theſe extraordinary advantages. All the ſhips in this trade, being under the direction of the government, have their appointed ſeaſons for going and returning, under convoy of a certain number of men of war; nor can a ſingle ſhip clear out or go, except with the fleet, but by a ſpecial licence from the king, which is ſeldom granted. It is plain, that ſuch reſtriction muſt be prejudicial to the general commerce, though poſſibly the crown revenue may be guarded thereby. The fleets ſail at the following periods: That to Rio de Janeiro ſets ſail in January; the fleet to Bahia, or the bay of All Saints, in February; and the third fleet, to Fernambucca, in the month of March.

(II. 1.) * BRASIL. BRAZIL. *n. ſ.* An American wood, commonly ſuppoſed to have been thus denominated, becauſe firſt brought from Braſil: though Huet ſhews it had been known by that name many years before the diſcovery of that country; and the beſt ſort comes from Fernambuc. It is uſed by turners, and takes a good poliſh; but chiefly in dying, though it gives but a ſpurious red. *Chambers.*

(2.) BRASIL WOOD is of a red colour, and very heavy. It is denominated according to the places from whence it is brought; braſil of Fernambucca, Japan, Lamon, &c. For its deſcription, &c. ſee CÆSALPINIA.

BRASILETTO, the ſame with Braſil wood.

BRASILIANS, the inhabitants of Braſil. See BRASIL, § 4.

BRASILIAN STONE, a ſpecies of ſtone found in Braſil, which is flexible. "No quality, (ſays Dr James Hutton, in his deſcription of one of theſe ſtones,) is more inconſiſtent with the character of a ſtone than flexibility. A flexible ſtone, therefore, preſents an idea, which naturally ſtrikes us with ſurpriſe. For though, among mineral bodies, we find flexible ſubſtances of the ſtony kind, ſuch as mica, mountain leather, and amianthus, theſe minerals owe their flexibility, either to their thinneſs or to the fibrous ſtructure of their parts. Therefore, when a ſtone of any conſiderable thickneſs is ſaid to have reflexibility, we are led to think, that here is ſomething very extraordinary, and we wiſh to know, upon what depends that quality, ſo wiſe proper to a ſtone. Such, however, is the ſtone from Braſil, of which the Baron de Dietrich read a deſcription in the Royal Academy of Sciences, in Jan. 1784. There is a ſpecimen of a ſtone which correſponds with that deſcription, inſerted in the *Journal de Phyſique*, for 1784, (at preſent in the Muſæum of Mr Weir,) which belonged to the late Lord Gardenſtone. The length of the ſtone, which I have examined, is 12 inches, the breadth about 5, and the thickneſs half an inch. When this ſtone is ſupported by the two ends, in a horizontal poſition, the mid-

dle

dle part bends by its own weight, more than a quarter of an inch from the ſtraight line. This ſpecies of flexibility may certainly be made a proper object of ſcientifical inveſtigation." The Doctor adds, that this ſtone "has a certain flexibility to which neither the terms *ductile* nor *elaſtic*, will properly apply. The flexibility of this ſtone is ſo eaſy, compared with the rigidity of its ſubſtance, and its elaſticity ſo ſmall compared with its flexibility, that there muſt be in this body, ſome mechanical ſtructure, by which this unnatural degree of flexibility is produced, *i. e.* a flexibility, which is not inherited in the general ſubſtance of the body. Now the ſubſtance of this ſtone being chiefly quartz, the moſt rigid and inflexible of all materials, and the ſtone, at the ſame time, bending in ſuch an eaſy manner, there is reaſon to conclude, that this ariſes from no principle of flexibility in the general ſubſtance of the ſtone, but from ſome ſpecies of articulation in the ſtructure of, or among its conſtituent parts, which, while it preſerves the component particles in one entire maſs, ſuffers the parts to move a certain ſpace in relation to each other." Dr Hutton then gives an account of different examinations he made by the microſcope, by ſplitting and by the blow-pipe; from which he concludes, that the "particles of quartz, which have little coheſion, are bound together by thin plates of tranſparent mica; and theſe connecting plates being flexible, this allows a certain motion of the rigid particles among themſelves, without the fracture or general ſeparation of the ſtone."

BRASINA, *n. ſ.* in old records, a brewhouſe.

* BRASING. *adj.* [from *braſs.*] Made of *braſs.* It is now leſs properly written according to the pronunciation *brazen.*

BRASIUM, *n. ſ.* [old law Lat.] malt.

(1.) BRASLAU, a palatinate of Lithuania.

(2.) BRASLAU, or BRASLAW, } The capital of the Palatinate. (No. 1.) It is a large town, ſeated on a lake, 70 m. N. E. of Wilna. Lon. 26. 5. E. Lat. 56. 20. N.

BRASMA, a name given by Dioſcorides and other ancient botaniſts, to a decayed or light kind of black pepper.

To BRASQUE, *v. a.* in chemiſtry, to line or coat the interior of a crucible. (*Crell's Chemical Journal.*) This word is ſaid by Leonhardi, in his German tranſlation of Macquer's Dictionary, to be already adopted by Engliſh chemiſts.

BRASQUED, *part. adj.* Lined; coated.

(1.) * BRASS. *n. ſ.* [*bras*, Sax. *prés*, Welch.] 1. A yellow metal, made by mixing copper with lapis calaminaris. It is uſed, in popular language, for any kind of metal in which copper has a part. *Braſs* is made of copper and calaminaris. *Bacon.*

Mens evil manners live in *braſs*, their virtues
We write in water. *Shakeſpeare.*

Let others mold the running maſs
Of metals, and inform the breathing *braſs.*
Dryden.

2. Impudence.

(2.) BRASS, or as the French call it *yellow copper*, is alſo made of copper and zinc. See CHEMISTRY, INDEX. The firſt formation of braſs, as we are aſſured by ſcripture, was prior to the flood, and diſcovered in the 7th generation from Adam, (Gen. iv.) But the uſe of it was not, as is generally believed, and the Arundelian marbles aſſert, previous to the knowledge of iron. They were both firſt known in the ſame generation, and firſt wrought by the ſame diſcoverer. And the knowledge of them muſt have been equally carried over the world afterwards, with the ſpreading of the colonies of the Noachidæ. An acquaintance with the one or the other was abſolutely neceſſary to the coloniſts, in clearing away the wood about their ſettlements, and erecting houſes for their habitations. The ancient Britons, though acquainted from the remoteſt periods with the uſe of both theſe metals, remained long ignorant, that they were to be obtained in the iſland. Before this diſcovery, they imported all their iron and braſs from the continent. And when they had at length detected the former in their own hills, they continued to import the latter. In the earlieſt ages, whoſe manners have been delineated by hiſtory, the weapons of warriors were invariably framed of this factitious metal; and the moſt authentic of all the profane records of antiquity, the Arundelian marbles, for that reaſon, miſtakenly date the firſt diſcovery of iron a couple of centuries below the Trojan war. Every military nation is naturally ſtudious of brightneſs in its arms; and the Britons, particularly, gloried in that of theirs. For this reaſon the nations ſtill fabricated their arms of braſs, even long after the Arundelian era for the diſcovery of iron; and the Britons continued to import it from the continent, though they had found iron to be a native of the country, and could have ſupplied themſelves with a ſufficient quantity of it. Mr Whitaker, in his *Hiſtory of Mancheſter*, ſuppoſes, that when the Britons derived their iron and braſs from the continent, they purchaſed the latter at an eaſier expence than the former. The Gauls had many large braſs works in Britain, but ſeem to have had very few iron forges. And this would naturally induce the Belgæ to be leſs diligent in their inquiry after the veins of copper and calamine at home, than for the courſes of the iron ore; though the one was equally diſcoverable in the iſland as the other, and lay equally within the Belgic regions of it. Braſs being thus cheaper than iron, they neceſſarily formed with it ſome domeſtic as well as military implements. Such were common among the Gauls; and ſuch were familiar to the Britons, either imported into the iſland, as ſome actually were, or manufactured within it, as others alſo aſſuredly were. The Britons had certain braſs foundaries erected among them, and minted money, and fabricated weapons of braſs. In this condition of the works, the Romans entered the iſland. And ſeeing ſo great a demand among the natives for this article, they would ſpeedily inſtruct them to diſcover the materials of it among themſelves. This muſt unavoidably have reſulted from the conqueſt of the Romans. The power of ſurpriſing their new ſubjects with ſo unexpected a diſcovery would naturally ſtimulate the pride of the Roman intellect; and the deſire of obliging themſelves with ſo cheap a ſupply of that uſeful metal, ſtationary as they were in that kingdom, would alſo

alſo equally actuate the ſelfiſhneſs of the Romans. The veins of copper and calamine would be eaſily found out by an experienced inquirer after them; and the former metal is therefore diſtinguiſhed among the Welſh, only by the Roman appellation of *cyprium*, *koppr* or copper. And many founderies of braſs appear to have been eſtabliſhed in the iſland. Some had been erected before, one perhaps within the confines of every kingdom, and probably in the vicinity of every capital. One at leaſt would be neceſſary, in order to ſupply the armoury of the principality: and one perhaps was ſufficient for moſt of the Britiſh ſtates. But ſeveral appear now to have been ſettled in every kingdom, and one perhaps near every ſtationary town. Two have been diſcovered in the ſingle county of Eſſex, and within a narrow portion of it at Fifield and Danbury. And a third was placed upon Eaſterly Moor in Yorkſhire, 12 miles to the N. W. of York, and in the neighbourhood of Iſurium or Aldborough.

(3.) BRASS, or BRAZEN, *adj.* See BRAZEN.

(4.) BRASS COLOUR, a colour prepared by the braziers and colour-men to imitate braſs. There are two ſorts of it; the red braſs or bronze, and the yellow or gilt braſs: the latter is made only of copper filings, the ſmalleſt and brighteſt that can be found; with the former they mix ſome red ochre, finely pulverized; they are both uſed with varniſh.—To make a fine braſs that will not take any ruſt or verdigris, it muſt be dried with a chafing diſh of coals as ſoon as it is applied.—The fineſt braſs colour is made with powder braſs imported from Germany, diluted into a varniſh, made and uſed after the following manner: The varniſh is compoſed of 1 lb. 4 oz. of ſpirit of wine, 2 oz. of gum-lac, and 2 oz. of ſandarac; theſe two laſt drugs are pulverized ſeparately, and afterwards put to diſſolve in ſpirit of wine, taking care to fill the bottle but half full. The varniſh being made, mix the quantity to be uſed with the pulverized braſs, and apply it with a ſmall bruſh to what is to be coloured. But too much muſt not be mixed at once, becauſe the varniſh being very apt to dry, there would not be time to employ it all ſoon enough; it is therefore better to make the mixture at ſeveral times. In this manner figures of plaſter are coloured, and looks as well as if they were of caſt braſs.

(5.) BRASS, CORINTHIAN, famous in antiquity, is a mixture of gold, ſilver, and copper. L. Mummius having ſacked and burnt the city of Corinth, A. A. C. 146, it is ſaid this metal was formed from the immenſe quantities of gold, ſilver, and copper, wherewith that city abounded, thus melted and run together by the violence of the conflagration.

(6.) BRASS LEAF is made of copper, beaten out into very thin plates, and afterwards rendered yellow. The German artiſts, particularly thoſe of Nuremberg and Augſburg, are ſaid to poſſeſs the beſt method of giving to theſe thin plates of copper a fine yellow colour like gold, by ſimply expoſing them to the fumes of zinc, without any real mixture of it with the metal. Theſe plates ar[illegible]tle pieces, and then beaten out fine w[illegible]ld; after which they are put into [illegible]paper, and ſold at a low price for the vulgar kinds of gilding. The parings or ſhreds of theſe very thin yellow leaves being well ground on a marble plate, are reduced to a powder ſimilar to gold; which ſerves to cover, by means of gum water or ſome other glutinous fluid, the ſurface of various mouldings or pieces of curious workmanſhip, giving them the appearance of real bronze, and even of fine gold, at a very trifling expence, becauſe the gold colour of this metallic powder may be eaſily raiſed and improved by ſtirring it on a wide earthen baſon over a ſlow fire.

(7.) BRASS LUMPS, a common name given by miners to the globular pyrites. See PYRITES.

(8.) BRASS THRICE CALCINED, in the glaſs trade, is a preparation which ſerves the glaſſmen to give many very beautiful colours to their metal. To prepare it, place thin plates of braſs on tiles on the leet of the furnace near the occhis; let it ſtand to be calcined there for 4 days, and it will become a black powder ſticking together in lumps. Powder this, ſift it fine, and recalcine it 4 or 5 days more; it will not then ſtick together, but remain a looſe powder, of a ruſſet colour. This is to be calcined a 3d time in the ſame manner; but great care muſt be taken in the 3d calcination, that it be not overdone nor underdone; the way to be certain when it is right is, to try it ſeveral times in glaſs while melting. If it makes it, when well purified, to ſwell, boil, and riſe, it is properly calcined; if not, it requires longer time. This makes, according to the different proportions in which it is uſed, a ſea-green, an emerald-green, or a turcoiſe colour. Braſs, by long calcination alone, and without any mixture, affords a fine blue or green colour for glaſs; but they have a method of calcining it alſo with powdered brimſtone, ſo as to make it afford a red, a yellow, or a chalcedony colour, according to the quantity and other variations in the uſing it. The method of making the calcination is this: Cut thin plates of braſs into ſmall pieces with ſhears, and lay them ſtratum ſuper ſtratum, with alternate beds of powdered ſulphur, in a crucible; calcine this for 24 hours in a ſtrong fire; then powder and ſift the whole; and finally expoſe this powder upon tiles for 12 days to a reverberating furnace; at the end of this time, powder it fine, and keep it for uſe. The glaſs-makers have alſo a method of procuring a red powder from braſs, by a more ſimple calcination, which ſerves them for many colours. The method is this: They put ſmall and thin plates of braſs into the arches of the glaſs furnaces, and leave them there till they are ſufficiently calcined, which the heat in that place, not being enough to melt them, does in great perfection. The calcined matter powdered, is of a duſky red, and requires no farther preparation.

(1.) BRASSA, one of the Shetland iſles, lying in the Sound, (N° 2.) Lon. 0. 10. W. Lat. 60. 10. N.

(2.) BRASSA SOUND, an extenſive Sound, on the coaſt of Shetland, in which 1000 veſſels might be commodiouſly moored. It abounds with herrings. The Dutch have ſometimes had 2000 buſſes in it, in one ſummer.

BRASSADELLA, } or BRASSIDELLA, in bo-
BRASSATELLA, } tany, a name given by many authors to the ophioglosſum.

BRASSAW, or CRONSTAT, a ſtrong town of Tran-

Tranſilvania, in Burzland; ſeated on the river Birzl. Lon. 25. 55. E. Lat. 46. 30. N.

BRASSE, in ichthyology, a ſpecies of PERCA.

(I.) BRASSICA, CABBAGE: A genus of the filiquoſa order, and tetradynamia claſs of plants; ranking under the Siliquoſæ, in the natural method. The calyx is erect and converging; the ſeeds are globular; the gland between the ſhorter ſtamina and the piſtillum, and between the longer ones and the calyx. There are 12 ſpecies; viz.

1. BRASSICA ALPINA, with the radical leaves egg-ſhaped, and erect petals.

2. BRASSICA ARVENSIS, with ſpear-ſhaped leaves embracing the ſtem; the higheſt heart-ſhaped, and moſt entire.

3. BRASSICA CAMPESTRIS, with a ſlender root and ſtem, leaves uniform, heart-ſhaped, and ſeſſile.

4. BRASSICA CHINENSIS, with very entire oval leaves; the floral leaves lanceolated and embracing the ſtem; the calyxes longer than the claw of the petals.

5. BRASSICA ERUCA, with lyrated leaves, ſhaggy ſtem, and ſmooth capſules.

6. BRASSICA ERUCASTRUM, with runcinate leaves, a hiſpid ſtem, and poliſhed capſules. In theſe two ſpecies, and the VESICARIA, (N° 11.) the ſtyle is enſiform: In all the reſt it is obtuſe.

7. BRASSICA NAPUS, with the root ſtem ſpindle-ſhaped.

8. BRASSICA OLERACEA, with the radical ſtem growing columnar and fleſhy.

9. BRASSICA ORIENTALIS, with heart-ſhaped, ſmooth leaves embracing the ſtem, and four-cornered capſules.

10. BRASSICA RAPA, with the radical ſtem growing orbicular, depreſſed, and fleſhy.

11. BRASSICA VESICARIA, with runcinate leaves, and hiſpid capſules covered with a tumid calyx.

12. BRASSICA VIOLACEA, with lanceolated, egg-ſhaped, ſmooth, undivided, and dentated leaves.

II.) BRASSICÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The CAMPESTRIS, (N° 3.) never varies. It grows naturally on the ſea-ſhore near Dover. It has a perennial branching ſtalk, in which it differs from all the other ſpecies. In very ſevere winters, when the other ſorts are deſtroyed, this is a neceſſary plant, for the moſt ſevere froſts do not injure it. The flower-ſtalks grow from the end of the branches, and ſpread out horizontally; but thoſe which ariſe from the centre of the plants grow erect, and ſeldom put out branches. The cauliflower has been much more improved in Britain than in any other part of Europe. In France they rarely have cauliflowers till Michaelmas, and Holland is generally ſupplied with them from Britain. In many parts of Germany there were none of them cultivated till within a few years paſt, and moſt parts of Europe are ſupplied with ſeeds from Britain. The CHINENSIS, (N° 4.) which is generally known by the title of *rape* or *cole-ſeed*, is much cultivated in the iſle of Ely, and ſome other parts of England, for its ſeed, from which rape oil is drawn; and it hath alſo been cultivated of late years, in other places, for feeding cattle, to great advantage. The cole ſeed, when cultivated for feeding cattle, ſhould be ſown about the middle of June. The ground for this ſhould be prepared in the ſame manner as for turnips. The quantity of ſeeds for an acre of land is from 6 to 8 lb. and as the price of the ſeed is not great, ſo it is better to allow 8 lb. for if the plants are too cloſe in any part, they may be eaſily thinned when the ground is hoed, which muſt be performed in the ſame manner as is practiſed for turnips, with this difference only, of leaving theſe much nearer together; for as they have fibrous roots and ſlender ſtalks, they do not require near ſo much room. Theſe plants ſhould have a ſecond hoeing about 5 or 6 weeks after the firſt, which, if well performed in dry weather, will entirely deſtroy the weeds, ſo they will require no farther culture. Where there is not an immediate want of food, theſe plants had better be kept as a reſerve for hard weather, or ſpring ſeed, when there may be a ſcarcity of other green food. If the heads are cut off, and the ſtalks left in the ground, they will ſhoot again early in the ſpring, and produce a good ſecond crop in April; which may be either fed off, or permitted to run to ſeeds, as is the practice where this is cultivated for the ſeeds: but if the firſt is fed down, there ſhould be care taken that the cattle do not deſtroy their ſtems, or pull them out of the ground. As this plant is ſo hardy as not to be deſtroyed by froſt, ſo it is of great ſervice in hard winters for feeding ewes; for when the ground is ſo hard frozen that turnips cannot be taken up, theſe plants may be cut off for a conſtant ſupply. This will afford late food after the turnips are run to ſeed; and if it is afterwards permitted to ſtand for ſeed, one acre will produce as much as, at a moderate computation, will ſell for 5 l. clear of charges. Partridges, pheaſants, turkeys, and moſt other fowls, are very fond of this plant; ſo that wherever it is cultivated, if there are any birds in the neighbourhood, they will conſtantly lie among theſe plants. The ſeeds of this plant are ſown in gardens for winter and ſpring ſallads, this being one of the ſmall ſallad herbs. The common white, red, flat, and long-ſided cabbages, are chiefly cultivated for autumn and winter uſe; the ſeeds of theſe ſorts muſt be ſown the beginning or middle of April, in beds of good freſh earth; and when the young plants have about 8 leaves, they ſhould be pricked out into ſhady borders, about 3 or 4 inches ſquare, that they may acquire ſtrength, and to prevent their growing long ſhanked. About the middle of June they muſt be tranſplanted out, where they are to remain. If they are planted for a full crop in a clear ſpot of ground, the diſtance from row to row ſhould be 3½ feet, and in the rows 2½ aſunder: if the ſeaſon ſhould prove dry when they are tranſplanted out, they muſt be watered every other evening until they have taken freſh root. Afterwards, as the plants advance in height, the earth ſhould be drawn about the ſtems with a hoe, which will keep it moiſt about their roots, and greatly ſtrengthen the plants. Theſe cabbages will ſome of them be fit for uſe ſoon after Michaelmas, and will continue until the end of February, if they are not deſtroyed by bad weather; to prevent which, the gardeners near London pull up their cabbages in November, and trench their ground up in ridges, laying their cabbages againſt their ridges as cloſe as poſſible on one ſide, burying

ſing their ſtems in the ground: in this manner they let them remain till after Chriſtmas, when they cut them for the market; and although the outer part of the cabbage be decayed, (as is often the caſe in very wet or hard winters,) yet, if the cabbages were large and hard when laid, the inſide will remain ſound. The Ruſſian cabbage was formerly in much greater eſteem than at preſent, it being now only to be found in particular gentlemen's gardens, who cultivate it for their own uſe. This muſt be ſown late in the ſpring, and managed as thoſe before directed, only, that theſe muſt be ſooner planted out, and muſt have an open clear ſpot of ground, and require much leſs diſtance every way, as it is but a very ſmall hard cabbage. This ſort will not continue long before they will break and run up to ſeed. The early and ſugar-loaf cabbages are uſually ſown for ſummer uſe, and are what the gardeners about London commonly call *Michaelmas cabbages*. The ſeaſon for ſowing of theſe is about the end of July, or beginning of Auguſt, in an open ſpot of ground; and when the plants have got 8 leaves, they muſt be put into beds at about 3 or 4 inches diſtance every way, that they may grow ſtrong and ſhort ſhanked; and toward the end of October they ſhould be planted out: the diſtance that theſe require is, 3 feet row from row, and 2½ aſunder in the rows. The ground muſt be kept clean from weeds, and the earth drawn up about the plants. If they are of the early kind, they will turn in their leaves in May; when the gardeners near London, to obtain them a little ſooner, tie in their leaves cloſe with a ſlender oſier twig to blanch their middle; by which means, they have them at leaſt a fortnight ſooner than they could have if they were left untied. The EARLY CABBAGE being the firſt, we ſhould plant the fewer of them, and a greater quantity of the ſugar loaf kind, which comes after them; for the early kind will not ſupply the kitchen long, generally cabbaging apace, and ſoon growing hard and burſting open; but the ſugar-loaf kind is ſlow in cabbaging; and being hollow, continues long. It may be planted out in February, and will ſucceed as well as if planted earlier; with this difference only, that they will be later before they cabbage. Some plants of the early kind ſhould be reſerved in a well ſheltered ſpot of ground, to ſupply a defect; for in mild winters many of the plants are apt to run to ſeed, eſpecially when they are ſown too early, and in ſevere winters they are often deſtroyed. The SAVOY CABBAGES are propagated for winter uſe, being generally eſteemed the better when pinched by the froſt. They muſt be ſown about the end of April, and treated after the manner of the common white cabbage; only they may be planted cloſer; 2½ feet ſquare will be ſufficient. Theſe are always much better in an open ſituation, clear from trees and hedges; for in cloſe places they are apt to be eaten by caterpillars, &c. eſpecially if the autumn prove dry. The BROCCOLI may alſo be treated in the ſame manner, but need not be planted above one foot aſunder in rows of two feet wide; theſe are never eaten till the froſt has rendered them tender, being otherwiſe tough and bitter. The ſeeds of the broccoli (of which there are ſeveral varieties, viz. the Roman or purple, the Neapolitan or white, and the black broccoli, with ſome others, but the Roman is preferred to them all), ſhould be ſown about the end of May, or beginning of June; and when the plants are grown to have 8 leaves, tranſplant them into beds, like the common cabbage; and toward the end of July they will be fit to plant out; which ſhould be done into ſome well ſheltered ſpot of ground, but not under the drip of trees; about a foot and a half diſtant, in rows of two feet wide. The ſoil ought to be rather light than heavy: if they ſucceed well (as they doubtleſs will, unleſs the winter prove extremely hard), they will begin to ſhow their ſmall heads, of a purple colour, about the end of December, and will continue eatable till the middle of April. The brown or black broccoli is by many perſons greatly eſteemed, though it doth not deſerve a place in the kitchen garden where the Roman broccoli can be obtained, which is much ſweeter, and will continue longer in ſeaſon. But the brown ſort is much harder, ſo that it will thrive in the coldeſt ſituations, where the Roman broccoli is ſometimes deſtroyed. The brown ſort ſhould be ſown in the middle of May, and managed like the common cabbage, and ſhould be planted about 2½ feet aſunder. As they grow very tall, they ſhould have the earth drawn up to their ſtems as they advance in height. They do not form heads ſo perfect as the Roman broccoli; the ſtems and hearts of the plants are the parts which are eaten. The Roman broccoli (if well managed) will have large heads, which appear in the centre of the plants like cluſters of buds. Theſe heads ſhould be cut before they run up to ſeed, with about 4 or 5 inches of the ſtem; the ſkin of theſe ſtems ſhould be ſtripped off before they are boiled. After the firſt heads are cut off, there will be a great number of ſide-ſhoots produced from the ſtems, which will have ſmall heads to them, but are full as well flavoured as the large. The Naples broccoli hath white heads very like thoſe of the cauliflower, and eats ſo like it as not to be diſtinguiſhed from it.—Beſides this firſt crop of broccoli, (which is uſually ſown in the end of May,) it will be proper to ſow another crop the beginning of July, which will come in to ſupply the table the latter end of March and the beginning of April; and being very young, will be extremely tender and ſweet. To preſerve good ſeeds of this kind of broccoli, a few of the largeſt heads of the firſt crop ſhould be let remain to run up to ſeed, and all the under ſhoots ſhould be conſtantly ſtripped off, leaving only the main ſtem to flower and ſeed. If this be duly obſerved, and no other ſort of cabbage permitted to ſeed near them, the ſeeds will be as good as thoſe procured from abroad, and the ſort may be preſerved in perfection many years. The TURNIP-ROOTED CABBAGE was formerly more cultivated in Britain than at preſent; other ſorts having been introduced which are much better flavoured. It is ſeldom good but in hard winters, which render it tender. At the end of June the plants ſhould be tranſplanted out where they are to remain, allowing them two feet diſtance every way, obſerving to water them until they have taken root; and as their ſtems advance, the earth ſhould be drawn up to them with a hoe, which will preſerve a moiſ-

a moiſture about their roots, and prevent their ſtems from drying and growing woody, ſo that the plants will grow more freely; but it ſhould not be drawn very high, for as it is the globular part of the ſtalk which is eaten, ſo that ſhould not be covered. In winter they will be fit for uſe, when they ſhould be cut off, and the ſtalks pulled out of the ground, being good for nothing after the ſtems are cut off. As food for cattle, however, the cultivation of this ſpecies deſerves particular attention. See HUSBANDRY, INDEX. The CURLED COLEWORT, or Siberian broccoli, is now more generally eſteemed than the former, being extremely hardy, and always ſweeter in ſevere winters than in mild ſeaſons. This may be propagated by ſowing the ſeeds in the beginning of July; and when the plants are ſtrong enough they ſhould be planted in rows about a foot and a half aſunder, and ten inches diſtance in the rows. Theſe will be fit for uſe after Chriſtmas, and continue good until April. The MUSK CABBAGE may be propagated in the ſame manner as the common cabbage, and ſhould be allowed the ſame diſtance: it will be fit for uſe in October, November, and December; but if the winter proves hard, they will be deſtroyed much ſooner than the common ſort. The common COLEWORT, or Dorſetſhire kale, is now almoſt loſt near London, where their markets are uſually ſupplied with cabbage plants inſtead of them. The beſt method to cultivate this plant in the fields is, to ſow the ſeeds about the beginning of July, chooſing a moiſt ſeaſon, which will bring up the plants in about ten days or a fortnight; the quantity of ſeed for an acre of land is 9lb: when the plants have got 5 or 6 leaves they ſhould be hoed, as is practiſed for turnips, cutting down all the weeds from amongſt the plants, and alſo thinning the plants where they are too thick: but they ſhould be kept thicker than turnips, becauſe they are more in danger of being deſtroyed by the fly: this work ſhould be performed in dry weather, that the weeds may be killed. About ſix weeks after, the plants ſhould have a ſecond hoeing, which, if carefully performed in dry weather, will entirely deſtroy the weeds, and make the ground clean, ſo that they will require no farther culture. In ſpring they may be either drawn up and carried out to feed the cattle, or the cattle may be turned in to feed upon them: but the former method is to be preferred, becauſe there will be little waſte; whereas when the cattle are turned in amongſt the plants, they will tread down and deſtroy more than they eat, eſpecially if they are not fenced off by hurdles. The two laſt ſorts are varieties fit only for a botanic garden, being of no uſe. They are annual plants, and periſh when they have perfected their ſeeds. The beſt method to ſave the ſeeds of all the ſorts of cabbages is, about the end of November, to pull up ſome of the beſt cabbages, and carry them to ſome ſhed, where they ſhould be hung up 4 days by their ſtalks, that the water may drain from between their leaves. Then plant them in ſome border near a hedge or pale, quite down to the middle of the cabbage, leaving only the upper part of the cabbage above ground, obſerving to raiſe the earth above it, ſo that it may ſtand a little above the level of the ground; eſpecially if the ground is wet, they will require to be raiſed pretty much above the ſurface. If the winter ſhould prove very hard, lay a little ſtraw lightly upon them, to ſecure them from the froſt, taking it off as often as the weather proves mild, leaſt by keeping them too cloſe they ſhould rot. In ſpring they will ſhoot out ſtrongly, and divide into a great number of ſmall branches. Therefore ſupport their ſtems, to prevent their being broken off by the wind; and if the weather ſhould be very hot and dry when they are in flower, refreſh them with water once a-week all over the branches, which will greatly promote their ſeeding, and preſerve them from mildew. When the pods begin to turn brown, cut off the extreme part of every ſhoot with the pods, which will ſtrengthen the ſeeds; for thoſe ſeeds which grow near the top of the ſhoots, are very ſubject to run to ſeed before they cabbage. When the ſeeds begin to ripen, be particularly careful that the birds do not deſtroy it. The beſt method to prevent this, is to get a quantity of birdlime, and dawb over a parcel of ſlender twigs, which ſhould be faſtened at each end to ſtronger ſticks, and placed near the upper part of the ſeed in different places, ſo that the birds may alight upon them, and be faſtened thereto; where they ſhould be allowed to remain, to terrify the reſt. When the ſeed is fully ripe, cut it off; and after drying, threſh it out, and preſerve it in bags for uſe. In planting cabbages for ſeed, never plant more than one ſort in a place, or near one another: for example, never plant red and white cabbages near each other; nor Savoy with white or red cabbages; for they will, by the commixture of their farina, produce a mixture of kinds. See BOTANY, § 217. It is owing to this neglect, that the gardeners rarely ſave any good red cabbage ſeed in Britain, but are obliged to procure freſh ſeeds from abroad; whereas if they would plant red cabbages by themſelves for ſeeds, and not ſuffer any other to be near them, they might continue the kind as good in Britain as in any other part of the world. CAULIFLOWERS have of late years been ſo far improved in Britain, as to exceed in goodneſs and magnitude what are produced in moſt parts of Europe, and by the ſkill of the gardener are continued for ſeveral months together; but the moſt common ſeaſon for the great crop is in May, June, and July. Having procured a parcel of good ſeed, ſow it about the 21ſt of Auguſt, upon an old cucumber or melon bed, ſifting a little earth over the ſeeds, about a quarter of an inch thick; and if the weather ſhould prove extremely hot and dry, ſhade the beds with mats, to prevent the earth from drying too faſt, and give it gentle waterings occaſionally. In about a month after ſowing, the plants will be fit to prick out: therefore put ſome freſh earth upon the cucumber or melon beds; or where theſe are not to be had, ſome beds ſhould be made with a little new dung, but not hot, which ſhould be trodden down cloſe, to prevent the worms from getting through it.—Into this bed prick the young plants at about 2 inches ſquare, obſerving to ſhade and water them at firſt planting, but not too much after they are growing, nor ſuffer them to receive too much rain

If the ſeaſon ſhould prove wet, which would be apt to make them *black ſhanked*, as the gardeners term it, or rotten in their ſtems. In this bed they ſhould continue till about the 30th Oct. when they muſt be removed into the place where they are to remain during the winter: which, for the firſt ſowing, is commonly under bell or hand glaſſes, to have early cauliflowers, and theſe ſhould be of an early kind: but to have a ſucceſſion during the ſeaſon, there ſhould be provided another more late kind, which ſhould be ſown 4 or 5 days after the other. To have very early cauliflowers, make choice of a good rich ſpot that is well defended from the N. E. and W. winds, with hedges, pales, or walls; but the firſt are to be preferred, if made with reeds, becauſe the winds will not reverberate, as from pales or walls. This ground ſhould be well trenched, burying therein a good quantity of rotten dung; then level it, and if it be naturally a wet ſoil, raiſe it up in beds about 2½ or 3 feet broad, and 4 inches above the level of the ground; but if it is moderately dry, it need not be raiſed, then plant the plants, allowing about two feet ſix inches from glaſs to glaſs in the rows, always putting two good plants under each glaſs, which may be at about four inches from each other; and if they are deſigned for a full crop, they may be 3½ feet row from row. If ridges for cucumbers are to be made between the rows, (as is generally practiſed by the gardeners near London,) then make the rows about 8 feet aſunder; and the ground between them may be planted with cabbage plants, to be drawn off for coleworts in the ſpring. When they are planted, if the ground is very dry, give them a little water, and then ſet the glaſſes over them, which may remain quite cloſe over them till they have taken root, which will be in about a week or ten days, unleſs there ſhould be rain; in which caſe ſet off the glaſſes, that the plants may receive the benefit of it; and in about ten days after planting, provide a parcel of forked ſticks or bricks, to raiſe the glaſſes about 3 or 4 inches on the ſide towards the S. that the plants may have free air: in this manner the glaſſes ſhould remain over the plants night and day, unleſs in frofty weather, when they ſhould be ſet down as cloſe as poſſible; or if the weather ſhould prove very warm, the glaſſes may be kept off in the day-time, and put on only in the night, leſt, by keeping the glaſſes over them too much, they ſhould be drawn into flower at that ſeaſon; which is often the caſe in mild winters, eſpecially if unſkilfully managed. Toward the end of February, if the weather proves mild, prepare another good ſpot of ground, well dunged and trenched, to remove ſome of the plants into, from under the glaſſes; then allowing one of the moſt promiſing plants under each glaſs to remain, take away the other, by raiſing it up with a trowel, &c. ſo as to preſerve as much earth to the root as poſſible; but take care not to prejudice the roots of the plants which remain. Then plant theſe plants which are taken out at the diſtances before directed; and with a ſmall hoe, draw the earth up to the ſtems of the plants which were left under the glaſſes, taking great care not to let the earth fall into their hearts; and ſet the glaſſes over them again, [illegible] the props an inch or two higher than be-

fore, to give them more air, obſerving to take them off whenever there are any gentle ſhowers. If the plants grow ſo faſt as to fill the glaſſes with their leaves, raiſe the ground about them in a bed broad enough for the glaſſes to ſtand, about 4 inches high, which will give the plants a great deal of room, by raiſing the glaſſes ſo much higher when they are ſet over them. Thus they may be kept covered until April, which otherwiſe they could not, without prejudice to the leaves of the plants. After this, in mild ſoft weather ſet off the glaſſes, as well as in gentle ſhowers of rain; and begin to harden them by degrees to endure the open air. It is adviſable, however, to let the glaſſes remain over them as long as poſſible, if the nights be frofty; but the glaſſes muſt not remain in very hot ſun-ſhine, leſt the heat burn or ſcald them. Sometimes large quantities of plants have been ſo hurt by this, as never to be worth any thing after. If the plants have ſucceeded well, toward the end of April ſome of them will begin to fruit. They muſt therefore be examined carefully every other day, and when the flower plainly appears, break down ſome of the inner leaves over it to guard it from the ſun, which would make the flower yellow and unſightly; and when the flower is at its full bigneſs (which may be known by its outſide parting as if it would run,) draw it out of the ground. If they are deſigned for preſent uſe, cut them out of their leaves; but if for keeping, preſerve their leaves about them, and put them into a cool place. The beſt time for pulling them is a morning, before the ſun has exhaled the moiſture; for cauliflowers pulled in the heat of the day, loſe that firmneſs which they naturally have, and become tough. With regard to our ſecond crop, the plants being raiſed and managed as directed for the early crop, until the end of Oct. prepare ſome beds either to be covered with glaſs frames, or arched over with hoops, to be covered with mats, &c. Theſe beds ſhould have ſome dung laid at the bottom, about ſix inches or a foot thick, according to the ſize of the plants: for if they are ſmall, the bed ſhould be thicker of dung to bring them forward, and ſo *vice verſa*. This dung ſhould be beat down cloſe with a fork, in order to prevent the worms from finding their way through it; then lay ſome good freſh earth about 4 or 5 inches thick thereon, in which plant the plants about two inches and a half ſquare, obſerving to ſhade and water them until they have taken new root; but do not keep the coverings cloſe, for the warmth of the dung will occaſion a great damp in the bed, which, if pent in, will much injure the plants. When they have taken root, give them as much free air as poſſible, by keeping the glaſſes off in the day-time if the weather will permit; and in the night or at ſuch times as the glaſſes require to be kept on, raiſe them up with props to let in freſh air, unleſs in frofty weather; when the glaſſes ſhould be covered with mats, ſtraw, &c. but this is not to be done but in very hard froſts. Alſo obſerve to guard them againſt great rain, which in winter is very hurtful to them; but in mild weather, if the glaſſes are kept on, they ſhould be propped to admit freſh air; and if the under leaves grow yellow and decay, be ſure to pick them off; for

when the plants are kept close, these decayed leaves render the inclosed air very noxious; and the plants perspiring pretty much at that time, are often destroyed in vast quantities. In the beginning of February, if the weather be mild, begin to harden the plants by degrees, that they may be prepared for transplantation: the ground where the cauliflowers are to be planted out, (which should be quite open from trees, &c. and rather moist than dry,) having been well dunged and dug, should be sown with radishes a week or fortnight before planting out the cauliflowers. For if there are not some radishes amongst them, and the month of May should prove hot and dry, as it sometimes happens, the fly will seize the cauliflowers, and eat their leaves full of holes; whereas, if there are radishes upon the spot, the flies will take to them, and never meddle with the cauliflowers so long as they last. The gardeners near London mix spinach with their radish-seed, and thus have a double crop; which is an advantage where ground is dear, or where persons are straitened for room; otherwise it is as well to have only one crop amongst the cauliflowers, that they may be cleared in time. When the season is good, about the middle of February begin to plant out the cauliflowers; the distance generally allowed by the gardeners near London, (who plant cucumbers, &c. between their cauliflowers to succeed them,) is every other row 4½ feet, and the intermediate rows 2½ distant in the rows; so that in the latter end of May or beginning of June (when the radishes and spinach are cleared off,) they put in seeds of cucumbers for pickling, in the middle of the wide rows, at 3½ feet apart; and in the narrow rows plant cabbage for winter use, at 2 feet 2 inches distance, so that these stand each of them exactly in the middle of the square between 4 cauliflower plants; and these after the cauliflowers are gone off, will have full room to grow, and the crop be hereby continued in a succession through the whole season. Many people water cauliflower plants in summer; but the gardeners near London have almost wholly laid aside this practice, finding a deal of trouble and charge to little purpose; for if the ground be so very dry as not to produce tolerable good cauliflowers without water, it seldom happens that watering of them makes them much better; and when once they have been watered, if it is not constantly continued, it had been much better for them if they never had any; and if it be done in the middle of the day, it rather helps to scald them; so that, upon the whole, if care be taken to keep the earth drawn up to their stems, and clear them from every thing that grows near them, that they may have free open air, they will succeed better without than with water, where any of these cautions are not strictly observed. In order to have a 3d crop of cauliflowers, make a slender hot bed in February, in which you should sow the seeds, covering them a quarter of an inch thick with light mould, and covering the bed with glass frames. When the plants are come up, and have got 4 or 5 leaves, prepare another hot-bed to prick them into, which may be about two inches square; and in the beginning of April harden them by degrees, to fit them for transplanting, which should be done the middle of that month, at the distance directed for the 2d crop, and must be managed accordingly: these (if the soil is moist where they are planted, or the season cool and moist) will produce good cauliflowers about a month after the 2d crop is gone, whereby their season will be greatly prolonged. A 4th crop of cauliflowers may also be raised by sowing the seed about the 23d of May; and being transplanted, as before directed, will produce good cauliflowers in a kindly season and good soil after Michaelmas, and continue through October and November, and if the season permit often a great part of December.

(III.) BRASSICÆ, QUALITIES, &c. OF THE. All the species of cabbage are said to be hard of digestion, to afford little nourishment, and to produce flatulencies, though probably on no very good foundation. They tend strongly to putrefaction, and run into this state sooner than almost any other vegetable; when putrefied, their smell is likewise the most offensive, greatly resembling that of putrefied animal substances. A decoction of them is said to loosen the belly. Of all these plants cauliflower is reckoned the easiest of digestion. The white is the most fetid, and the red most emollient and laxative; a decoction of this last is recommended for softening acrimonious humours in some disorders of the breast, and in hoarseness. The red cabbage is chiefly used for pickling. In some countries they bury the white cabbage when full grown in the autumn, and thus preserve it all winter. The Germans cut them to pieces, and, along with some aromatic herbs and salt, press them close down in a tub where they soon ferment, and are eaten under the name of SOUR-CROUT. See that article.

BRASSICAVIT, } or BRACHICAVIT, in the
BRASSICOURT, } manege, is a horse whose fore-legs are naturally bended archwise: so called by way of distinction from an arched horse whose legs are bowed by hard labour.

BRASSIDELIC ART, a term used by Paracelsus, for a method of curing wounds by the application of the herb BRASSIDELLA, on the fresh wound.

BRASSIDELLA. See BRASSADELLA.

* BRASSINESS. *n. f.* [from *brassy*.] An appearance like brass; some quality of brass.

* BRASSY. *adj.* [from *brass*.] 1. Partaking of brass.—The part in which they lie, is near black, with some sparks of a *brassy* pyrites in it. *Woodward*. 2. Hard as brass.—

Losses,
Enough to press a royal merchant down,
And pluck commiseration of his state
From *brassy* bosoms, and rough hearts of flint.
Shakespeare.

3. Impudent.

* BRAST. *particip. adj.* [from *burst*.] Burst; broken. Obsolete.—

There creature never past,
That back returned without heavenly grace,
But dreadful furies which their chains have *brast*,
And damned sprights sent forth to make ill men agast.
Spenser.

To BRAST, *v. n. obs.* to break. *Chaucer*.

BRASTED, a village in Kent, N. E. of Westram. It has fairs, May 23d and Ascension day.

(1.) * BRAT. *n. f.* [its etymology is uncertain;

brat, in Saxon, ſignifies a blanket; from which, perhaps, the modern ſignification may have come.] 1. A child, ſo called in contempt.—

He leads them like a thing
Made by ſome other deity than nature,
That ſhapes men better; and they follow him,
Againſt us *brats*, with no leſs confidence,
Than boys purſuing ſummer butterflies. *Shakeſ.*

This *brat* is none of mine:
Hence with it, and, together with the dam,
Commit them to the fire. *Shakeſ.*

The friends, that got the *brats*, were poiſon'd too;
In this ſad caſe what could our vermin do? *Roſcommon.*

—Jupiter ſummoned all the birds and beaſts before him, with their *brats* and little ones, to ſee which of them had the prettieſt children. *L'Eſtrange.*—I ſhall live to ſee the inviſible lady, to whom I was obliged, and whom I never beheld, ſince ſhe was a *brat* in hanging-ſleeves. *Swift.*—

I give command to kill or ſave,
Can grant ten thouſand pounds a year,
And make a beggar's *brat* a peer. *Swift.*

2. The progeny; the offſpring.—The two late conſpiracies were the *brats* and offſpring of two contrary factions. *South.*

(2.) BRAT, *n. ſ. obſ.* a coarſe apron. *Chaue.*

BRATAG, the name of a ſmall reptile in the pariſh of Kirkmichael, in Banffſhire, mentioned by the rev. Mr Grant, in his account of that pariſh, as "covered with a downy hair, alternately ſpotted into black and white."—"If cattle, (he adds,) happen to eat it, they generally ſwell, and ſometimes die. It has the ſame effect upon ſheep." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Vol.* XII. *p.* 450.

BRATPORTON, a village in Worceſterſhire, E. of Eveſham.

BRATHWAITE, or BRAITHWAITE, two Engliſh villages; 1. in Cumberland, E. of Inglewood Foreſt; 2. in Keſwick, at the foot of the mountain road to Cockermouth.

BRATHWELL, in Yorkſhire, near Ticking.

BRATLEY, in Lancaſh. near Weſtmoreland.

BRATOFT, in Lincolnſhire, N. E. of Spilſby.

BRATTLEBOROUGH, a poſt town of the United States, in Windham county, Vermont, agreeably ſituated on the S. W. ſide of Weſt river; about 5 m. above its confluence with the Connecticut. It contains about 20 dwellings compactly built, and a congregational church. It is 37 m. E. of Bennington, and 312 from Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 29. E. Lat. 42. 52. N.

BRATTLEBY, near Scampton, Lincolnſh.

BRATTON, 3 villages; viz. 1. in Shropſhire, E. of Little Wenlock: 2. in ditto, S. of Apley-Caſtle: and 3. in Somerſetſh. near Wincaunton.

BRATTON CASTLE, E. of Weſtbury, Wiltſhire.

BRATTON-CLOVELLY, in Devonſhire, W. of Okehampton.

BRATTON-FLEMING, in ditto, near Chumley.

BRAVA, a ſea port of Abyſſinia.

* BRAVADO. *n. ſ.* [from *bravada*, Span.] A boaſt; a brag.—

Spain, to make good the *bravando*,
...es it the invincible Armado. *Anonymous.*

BRACH, a town of Germany, in Weteravia.

BRAVE. *adj.* [*brave*, Fr.] 1. Courageous; daring; bold; generous; high-ſpirited.—An Egyptian foothſayer made Antonius believe, that his genius, which otherways was *brave* and confident, was, in the preſence of Octavius Cæſar, poor and cowardly. *Bacon.*—

From armed foes to bring a royal bribe,
Shows your *brave* heart victorious as your eyes. *Waller.*

2. Gallant; having a noble mein; lofty; graceful.—

I'll prove the prettier fellow of the two,
And wear my dagger with a *braver* grace. *Shakeſ.*

3. Magnificent; grand.—

Rings put upon his fingers,
And *brave* attendants near him, when he wakes;
Would not the beggar then forget himſelf? *Shakeſpeare.*

But whoſoe'er it was nature deſign'd
Firſt a *brave* place, and then as *brave* a mind. *Denham.*

4. Excellent; noble: it is an indeterminate word, uſed to expreſs the ſuperabundance of any valuable quality in men or things.—

Let not old age diſgrace my high deſire,
O heavenly ſoul, in human ſhape contain'd;
Old wood inflam'd doth yield the *braveſt* fire,
When younger doth in ſmoke his virtue ſpend. *Sidney.*

—If there be iron ore, and mills, iron is a *brave* commodity where wood aboundeth. *Bacon.*—If a ſtateſman has not this ſcience, he muſt be ſubject to a *braver* man than himſelf, whoſe province it is to direct all his actions to this end. *Digby.*

(2.) * BRAVE. *n. ſ.* [*brave*, Fr.] 1. A hector; a man daring beyond decency or diſcretion.—

Hot *braves*, like thee, may fight, but know not well
To manage this, the laſt great ſtake. *Dryden.*

Morat's too inſolent, too much a *brave*,
His courage to his envy is a ſlave. *Dryden.*

2. A boaſt; a challenge; a defiance.—

There end thy *brave*, and turn thy face in peace;
We grant thou canſt outſcold us. *Shakeſ.*

* *To* BRAVE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To defy; to challenge; to ſet at defiance.—

He upbraids Iago, that he made him
Brave me upon the watch. *Shakeſ.*

My nobles leave me, and my ſtate is *brav'd*,
Ev'n at my gates, with ranks of foreign powers. *Shakeſpear.*

The ills of love, not thoſe of fate I fear;
Theſe I can *brave*, but thoſe I cannot bear. *Dryden.*

Like a rock unmov'd, a rock that *braves*
The raging tempeſt, and the riſing waves. *Dryd.*

2. To carry a boaſting appearance of.—Both particular perſons and factions are apt enough to flatter themſelves, or, at leaſt, to *brave* that which they believe not. *Bacon.*

* BRAVELY. *adv.* [from *brave*.] In a brave manner; courageouſly; gallantly; ſplendidly.—Martin Swart, with his Germans, performed *bravely*. *Bacon.*—

No fire, nor foe, nor fate, nor night,
The Trojan hero did affright,
Who *bravely* twice renew'd the fight. *Denham.*

Your valour *bravely* did th' aſſault ſuſtain,
And fill'd the motes and ditches with the ſlain.
Dryden.

* BRAVERY. *n. ſ.* [from *brave.*] 1. Courage; magnanimity; generoſity; gallantry.—It denotes the great *bravery* of mind, to do that out of a deſire of fame, which we could not be prompted to do by a generous paſſion for the glory of him that made us. *Spectator.*—

Juba, to all the *bravery* of a hero,
Adds ſofteſt love, and more than female ſweetneſs. *Addiſon.*

2. Splendour; magnificence.—

Where all the *bravery* that eye may ſee,
And all the happineſs that heart deſire,
Is to be found. *Spenſer.*

3. Show; oſtentation.—Let princes chooſe miniſters more ſenſible of duty than of riſing, and men as love buſineſs rather upon conſcience than upon *bravery*. *Bacon.* 4. Bravado; boaſt.—Never could man, with more unmanlike *bravery*, ſet his tongue to her diſgrace, which lately had ſung ſonnets of her praiſes. *Sidney.*—For a *bravery* upon this occaſion of power, they crowned their new king in the cathedral church of Dublin. *Bacon.*—There are thoſe that make it a point of *bravery*, to bid defiance to the oracles of divine revelation. *L'Eſtrange.*

BRAUGHING, a town in Hertfordſhire, on the E. ſide of the Roman road, called *Ermine ſtreet*, which leads to Cambridge. It is 2 m. N. of Puckeridge, and 31 from London. It has a fair on Whit Monday.

BRAULIO, one of the Alpine mountains, in the country of the Griſons.

BRAULS, Indian cloths with blue and white ſtripes. They are otherwiſe called *turbants*, becauſe they ſerve to cover thoſe ornaments of the head, particularly on the coaſt of Africa.

BRAUN, or BRAUNIUS, George, archdeacon of Dortmund, and dean of Notre Dame in Gradibus, at Cologne. He publiſhed a Latin oration againſt the prieſts guilty of fornication; he alſo wrote the life of Jeſus Chriſt, that of the Holy Virgin, and a controverſial treatiſe againſt the Proteſtants: but his chief work is the *Theatrum Urbium*, in ſeveral volumes folio.

BRAUNA, } or BRANAU, a town of Ger-
BRAUNAU, } many, in Bavaria, ſeated on
BRAUNAW, } the river Inn. It has a ſtrong fortreſs: notwithſtanding which, it was taken by the Auſtrians in 1743. Lon. 13. 3. E. Lat. 48. 12. N.

(1.) BRAUNSBURG, a town of Poland, in Regal Pruſſia, with a very commodious harbour, belonging to the king of Pruſſia. It is ſeated near the Baltic ſea. Lon. 20. 0. E. Lat. 54. 15. N.

(2.) BRAUNSBURG, a trading town of Poliſh Pruſſia, in Ermeland. It is populous, and ſubject to its own biſhop.

BRAUNSFELD, or } a town of Germany, in
BRAUNSFIELD, } the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Solmes, with a handſome palace. Lon. 8. 32. E. Lat. 50. 22. N.

BRAUNSFORD, a town 3 m. from Worceſter.

BRAUNSTON, 3 villages, 1. near Leiceſter: 2. in Leiceſterſhire, between Waltham on the Would and Belvoir Caſtle: and, 3. in Rutlandſhire, near Okeham-Soke.

(1.) BRAVO, a town of Africa, on the coaſt of Ajan, with a pretty good harbour. It is independent, and lies about 80 miles from Magadoxo. Lon. 41. 35. E. Lat. 1. 0. N.

(2.) BRAVO, one of the Cape de Verd iſlands, on the coaſt of Africa, remarkable for its excellent wines, and inhabited by Portugueſe. The land is very high, and conſiſts of mountains which look like pyramids. It abounds in Indian corn, gourds, water melons, potatoes, horſes, aſſes, and hogs. There is alſo plenty of fiſh on the coaſt, and the iſland produces ſalt-petre. Lon. 25. 35. W. Lat. 14. 10. N.

(3.) * BRAVO. *n. ſ.* [*bravo*, Ital.] A man who murders for hire.—For boldneſs, like the *bravoes* and banditti, is ſeldom employed but on deſperate ſervices. *Government of the Tongue.*—

No *bravoes* here profeſs the bloody trade,
Nor is the church the murd'rer's refuge made.
Gay.

BRAURON, in ancient geography, a town of Attica, near Athens, where the famous ſtatue of Diana, brought from Scythia Taurica, was preſerved.

(1.) BRAURONIA, an epithet of Diana, from the above place, where her feſtival was held. See laſt and next articles.

(2.) BRAURONIA, in Grecian antiquity, a feſtival in honour of Diana. Brauronia was celebrated once in 5 years, and managed by ten men, called ἀρκτοι. The victim ſacrificed was a goat, and it was cuſtomary for certain men to ſing one of Homer's Iliads. The moſt remarkable perſons at this ſolemnity were young virgins, in yellow gowns, conſecrated to Diana. It was unlawful for any of them to be above 10 or under 5 years of age.

* BRAWL. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Quarrel; noiſe; ſcurrility.—He findeth, that controverſies thereby are made but *brawls*; and therefore wiſheth, that, in ſome lawful aſſembly of churches, all theſe ſtrifes may be decided. *Hooker.*—

Never ſince that middle ſummer's ſpring
Met we on hill, in dale, foreſt, or mead,
But with thy *brawls* thou haſt diſturb'd our ſport. *Shakeſpeare.*

That bonum is an animal,
Made good with ſtout polemick *brawl*.
Hudibras.

* *To* BRAWL. *v. n.* [*broüiller*, or *brauler*, Fr.] 1. To quarrel noiſily and indecently.—

She troubled was, alas! that it might be,
With tedious *brawlings* of her parents dear.
Sidney.

Here comes a man of comfort, whoſe advice
Hath often ſtill'd my *brawling* diſcontent.
Shakeſpeare.

How now, Sir John! what, are you *brawling* here?
Does this become your place, your time, your buſineſs. *Shakeſpeare's Henry IV.*

Their batt'ring cannon charged to the mouths,
Till their ſoul-fearing clamours have *brawl'd* down
The flinty ribs of this contemptuous city.
Shakeſpeare.

In

In council ſhe gives licence to her tongue
Loquacious, *brawling*, ever in the wrong.
Dryden.

—Leave all noiſy conteſts, all immodeſt clamours, *brawling* language, and eſpecially all perſonal ſcandal and ſcurrility, to the meaneſt part of the vulgar world. *Watts.* 2. To ſpeak loud and indecently.—

His diviſions, as the times do *brawl*,
Are in three heads; one pow'r againſt the French,
And one againſt Glendower. *Shakſpeare.*

3. To make a noiſe. This is little uſed.—

As he lay along
Under an oak, whoſe antique root peeps out
Upon the brook that *brawls* along this wood.
Shakeſpeare.

* BRAWLER. *n. ſ.* [from *brawl.*] A wrangler; a quarrelſome noiſy fellow.—An advocate may incur the cenſure of the court, for being a *brawler* in court, on purpoſe to lengthen out the cauſe. *Ayliffe.*

(1.) * BRAWN. *n. ſ.* [of uncertain etymology.] 1. The fleſhy or muſculous part of the body.—The *brawn* of the arm muſt appear full, ſhadowed on one ſide, then ſhew the wriſt-bone thereof. *Peacham.*—

But moſt their looks on the black monarch bend,
His riſing muſcles and his *brawn* commend;
His double biting ax, and beamy ſpear,
Each aſking a gigantick force to tear. *Dryden.*

2. The arm, ſo called from its being muſculous.—

I'll hide my ſilver beard in a gold beaver,
And in my vantbrace put this wither'd *brawn*.
Shakeſpeare.

I had purpoſe
Once more to hew thy target from thy *brawn*.
Shakeſpeare.

3. Bulk; muſcular ſtrength.—

The boiſt'rous hands are then of uſe, when I,
With this directing head, thoſe hands apply;
Brawn without brain is thine. *Dryden.*

4. The fleſh of a boar.—The beſt age for the boar is from two to five years old, at which time it is beſt to geld him, or ſell him for *brawn*. *Mortimer.* 5. A boar.

(2.) BRAWN is applied to the fleſh of a boar when ſouced or pickled; for which end the boar ſhould be old; becauſe the older he is, the more horny will the brawn be. The method of preparing brawn is as follows: The boar being killed, it is the fliches only, without the legs, that are made brawn; the bones of which are to be taken out, and then the fleſh ſprinkled with ſalt, and laid in a tray, that the blood may drain off: Then it is to be ſalted a little, and rolled up as hard as poſſible. The length of the collar of brawn ſhould be as much as one ſide of the boar will bear, ſo that when rolled up it will be nine or ten inches diameter. The collar thus rolled up, is boiled in a copper, or large kettle, till it is ſo tender, that a ſtraw can be run through it; then it is ſet aſide, till it is thoroughly cold, and put it into the following pickle: To every gallon of water, put a handful or two of ſalt, and as much wheat-bran: [illegible] ether, then drain the bran as clear the liquor; and when the liquor the brawn into it.

* BRAWNER. *n. ſ.* [from *brawn.*] A boar killed for the table.—

At Chriſtmas time be careful of your fame,
See the old tenant's table be the ſame;
Then if you would ſend up the *brawner* head,
Sweet roſemary and bays around it ſpread.
King.

* BRAWNINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brawny.*] Strength; hardneſs.—This *brawnineſs* and inſenſibility of mind, is the beſt armour againſt the common evils and accidents of life. *Locke.*

BRAWNSTON, a town near Lincoln.

* BRAWNY. *adj.* [from *brawn.*] Muſculous; fleſhy; bulky; of great muſcles and ſtrength.—

The *brawny* fool, who did his vigour boaſt,
In that preſuming confidence was loſt. *Dryden.*

The native energy
Turns all into the ſubſtance of the tree,
Starves and deſtroys the fruit, is only made
For *brawny* bulk, and for a barren ſhade.
Dryden.

BRAXFIELD, a diſtrict in Lanarkſhire, belonging to the Lord Juſtice Clerk, ornamented with his Lordſhip's ſeat, as well as with many romantic rocks and woods; near the fall of Dundaff Lin, and Mr David Dale's cotton works.

(1.) BRAXTED MAGNA, and (2.) BRAXTED PARVA, Two villages in Eſſex, N. E. of Witham.

BRAXY, or BRACKS, a diſeaſe incident to ſheep, ſuppoſed to ariſe from exceſs of blood. It attacks them in autumn, and the moſt luſty and vigorous of the flock fall a prey to it. It kills in two hours from the time it is firſt obſerved. It is computed that one fourth die of it. Dr Anderſon's preſcription, tobacco oil, has been applied with ſucceſs as a remedy; and bleeding in ſummer has been found an effectual preventive.

(1.) BRAY, a port town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow, and province of Leinſter, ſeated on St George's channel, 10 miles S. of Dublin, and 13 N. of Wicklow. Lon. 6. 1. W. Lat. 53. 11. N.

(2.) BRAY, a river in Devonſhire.

(3.) BRAY, a town in Berkſhire, on the Thames, a mile from Maidenhead; famous in ſong for its changeable Vicar, who, having been twice a papiſt and twice a proteſtant in the reigns of Henry VIII. Edward VI. Mary and Elizabeth, was accuſed of being a *turn-coat*; but replied, that he always ſtuck faſt to his principle, which was, to *live and die Vicar of Bray.*

(4.) * BRAY. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Voice of an aſs. 2. Harſh ſound.—

Boiſt'rous untun'd drums,
And harſh reſounding trumpets dreadful *bray*.
Shakeſpeare.

(5.) BRAY, Sir Reginald, a celebrated architect and politician, was the 2d ſon of Sir Richard Bray, one of the privy council to K. Henry VI. Sir Reginald was inſtrumental in the advancement of K. Henry VII. to the throne of England; and was greatly in favour with him. His ſkill in architecture appears from Henry VII's chapel at Weſtminſter, and the chapel of St George at Windſor, as he had a principal concern in building the former, and finiſhing the latter, to which he was alſo a liberal benefactor. In the middle of the S. aile is a ſpa-

a ſpacious chapel built by him, and ſtill called by his name. He died in 1501; and was interred in the above chapel, probably under the ſtone where Dr Waterland lies; for, on opening the vault of that gentleman, who died in 1740, a leaden coffin of ancient form was found, which, by other appearances, was judged to be that of Sir Reginald, and was, by order of the dean, immediately arched over.

(6.) BRAY, Thomas, D. D. an eminent, learned, and pious divine, born at Marton, in Shropſhire, in 1656, and educated at Oxford. He was vicar of Over-Whitacre, in Warwickſhire; and in 1690, rector of Sheldon, where he compoſed his *Catechetical Lectures*; which procured him ſuch reputation, that Dr Compton biſhop of London, pitched upon him as a proper perſon to model the infant church of Maryland, and eſtabliſh it upon a ſolid foundation; and for that purpoſe he was inveſted with the office of commiſſary. He now engaged in ſeveral noble undertakings. He procured ſums to be raiſed for purchaſing ſmall libraries for the uſe of the poor miniſters in ſeveral parts of the plantations; and to promote this deſign, publiſhed two books: one intitled *Bibliotheca parochialis*, or a ſcheme of ſuch theological and other heads as ſeem requiſite to be peruſed or occaſionally conſulted by the clergy, together with a catalogue of books which may be profitably read on each of thoſe points; the other, *Apoſtolical charity, its nature and excellency conſidered*. He endeavoured to get a fund eſtabliſhed for the propagation of the goſpel, eſpecially among the Indians; and by his means a patent was obtained for erecting the corporation called *The ſociety for propagating the goſpel*. He procured relief for priſoners; and formed the plan of the ſociety for the reformation of manners, charity ſchools, &c. He wrote, 1. Martyrology, or papal uſurpation, in one vol. fol.; 2. *Directorium miſſionarium*; and other works. He died in 1730, aged 73.

(7.) BRAY SUR SEINE, a town of France, in the department of Aube, and ci-devant province of Champagne. It is ſeated on the Seine, 16 m. N. of Sens. Lon. 3. 26. E. Lat. 48. 25. N.

(8.) BRAY SUR SOMME, a town of France, in the department of Somme, the ci-devant province of Picardy, ſeated on the Somme.

(1.) * *To* BRAY. *v. a.* [*bracan*, Sax. *braier*, Fr.] To pound, or grind ſmall.—

I'll burſt him; I will bray
His bones as in a mortar. *Chapman.*

—Except you would *bray* Chriſtendom in a mortar, and mould it into a new paſte, there is no poſſibility of a holy war. *Bacon.*

(2.) * *To* BRAY. *v. n.* [*broire*, Fr. *barrio*, Lat.] To make a noiſe as an aſs.—

Laugh, and they
Return it louder than an aſs can *bray*. *Dryden.*

—'Agad if he ſhould hear the lion roar, he'd cudgel him into an aſs, and to his primitive *braying*. *Congreve.* 2. To make an offenſive, harſh or diſagreeable noiſe.—

What, ſhall our feaſt be kept with ſlaughter'd men?
Shall *braying* trumpets, and loud churliſh drums,
Clamours of hell, be meaſures to our pomp? *Shakeſpeare.*

Arms on armour claſhing, *bray'd*
Horrible diſcord. *Milton.*

BRAYAN, a river in Pembrokeſhire.

* BRAYER. *n. ſ.* [from *bray.*] 1. One that brays like an aſs.—

Hold! cry'd the queen; a cat-call each ſhall win;
Equal your merits, equal is your din!
But that this well-diſputed game may end,
Sound forth my *brayers!* and the welkin rend. *Pope.*

2. [With printers; from *To bray*, or *beat.*] An inſtrument to temper the ink.

BRAYFIELD-COULD, a village in Buckinghamſhire, near Oulney.

BRAY-HIGH, in Devonſhire, 4 m. E. of Barnſtaple.

BRAYLE, among ſportſmen, a piece of leather ſlit to put upon a hawk's wing, to tie it up.

BRAYNE, a village in Somerſetſhire on the coaſt, S. of the river Axe.

BRAYNSFORD, a hamlet in Worceſterſhire.

BRAYTON, two villages: 1. in Cumberland, near Aſpatria: 2 in Yorkſhire S. of Selby.

BRAYWICK, in Berks, near Maidenhead.

* *To* BRAZE. *v. a.* [from *braſs.*] 1. To ſolder with braſs.—If the nut be not caſt in braſs, but only hath a worm *brazed* into it, this niceneſs is not ſo abſolutely neceſſary, becauſe that worm is firſt turned up, and bowed into the grooves of the ſpindle, and you may try that before it is *brazed* in the nut. *Moxon.* 2. To harden to impudence.—I have ſo often bluſhed to acknowledge him, that now I am *braz'd* to it. *Shakeſpeare's King Lear.*—

If damned cuſtom hath not *braz'd* it ſo,
That it is proof and bulwark againſt ſenſe. *Shak.*

BRAZED, in heraldry, a term for 3 cheverons, one claſping another.

* BRAZEN. *adj.* [from *braſs.*] 1. Made of braſs. It was anciently and properly written *braſen.*—Get alſo a ſmall pair of *brazen* compaſſes, and a fine ruler; for taking the diſtance. *Peacham.*

A bough his *brazen* helmet did ſuſtain;
His heavier arms lay ſcatter'd on the plain. *Dryd.*

2. Proceeding from braſs: a poetical uſe.—

Trumpeters
With *brazen* din blaſt you the city's ear,
Make mingle with your rattling tabourines. *Shak.*

3. Impudent.

* *To* BRAZEN. *v. n.* To be impudent; to bully.—When I reprimanded him for his tricks, he would talk ſaucily, lye, and *brazen* it out, as if he had done nothing amiſs. *Arbuthnot.*

BRAZEN AGE. See AGE, § 2.

BRAZEN DISH, among miners, is the ſtandard by which the other diſhes are gauged, and is kept in the king's hall.

* BRAZENFACE. *n. ſ.* [from *brazen* and *face.*] An impudent wench: in low language.—You do, if you ſuſpect me in any diſhoneſty.—Well ſaid, *brazenface*; hold it out. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BRAZENFACED. *adj.* [from *brazenface.*] Impudent; ſhameleſs.—What a *brazenfaced* varlet art thou, to deny thou knoweſt me? Is it two days

days ago, ſince I tript up thy heels, and beat thee before the king? *Shakeſpeare.*

Quick-witted, *brazen-fac'd*, with fluent tongues,
Patient of labours, and diſſembling wrongs. *Dryd.*

* BRAZENNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brazen.*] 1. Appearing like braſs. 2. Impudence.

BRAZEN SEA, in Jewiſh antiquity, one of the ſacred utenſils in the temple of Solomon. See *Plate* XLVI. *fig.* 7. It was caſt in the plain of Jordan, and removed from thence into the inner court of the temple; where it was placed upon 12 oxen, 3 of which looked towards each quarter of the world. It was 10 cubits from the one brim to the other, 5 cubits in height, and 30 cubits in circumference; and contained 3000 baths. The brim was perfectly round, and ſo it continued in the two upper cubits; but below the brim, in the 3 lower cubits, it was ſquare. It was a hand-breadth thick, and the brim was wrought like the brim of a cup, with flowers of lilies. About the body of this huge veſſel there were two borders of engravings, being the heads of oxen in demi-relief; out of which ſome ſuppoſe the water iſſued, and that they were made as cocks and conveyances for that purpoſe. This brazen ſea, was deſigned for the prieſts to waſh in, before they performed the ſervice of the temple. The ſupply of water was through a pipe out of the well Etam; though ſome are of opinion, that it was conſtantly ſupplied with water by the Gibeonites.

(1.) * BRAZIER. *n. ſ.* See BRASIER.—The halfpence and farthings in England, if you ſhould ſell them to the *brazier*, you would not loſe above a penny in a ſhilling. *Swift.*

(2.) BRAZIER, an artificer who makes and deals in all kinds of braſs ware. This trade, as exerciſed in Britain, may be reckoned a branch of the ſmithery, though braziers ſeldom keep forges, except for brazing or ſoldering, and tinning the inſides of their veſſels, which they work up chiefly out of copper and braſs prepared rough to their hands. Many carry on the ſale trade to a great extent, dealing in all ſorts of iron and ſteel, as well as in copper and braſs goods. Of late they have dealt much in what is called *French plate*, a ſort of white metal, ſilvered and poliſhed to ſuch a degree, that it is not eaſily diſtinguiſhed from real ſilver.

BRAZIL. See BRASIL.

BRAZILIAN STONE. See BRASILIAN STONE.

(1.) BRAZING, the ſoldering two pieces of iron together by melting thin plates of braſs between the pieces that are to be joined. If the work be very fine, as when two leaves of a broken ſaw are to be brazed together, they cover it with pulverized borax, melted with water, that it may incorporate with the braſs powder, which is added to it: The piece is then expoſed to the fire without touching the coals, and heated till the braſs runs.

(2.) BRAZING is alſo the joining two pieces of iron together by beating them hot, the one upon the other, which is uſed for large pieces by farriers, &c.

BRAZRA, ZZA, or RAZZO, an iſland on the coaſt of Dalmatia, in the gulph of Venice, oppoſite to Spalatro, and ſubject to Venice. Lon. 18. 15. E. Lat. 43. 6. N.

(2.) BRAZZO, a town in the above iſland.

BREACAN, GULF OF, lies on the W. coaſt of Argyllſhire, between the iſlands Jura and Scarba. "The ſound between theſe two iſlands (ſays the rev. Mr Francis Stewart,) is narrow, and, forming a communication between the Atlantic and the internal ſea on the coaſt of Argyll, the rapidity and violence of the tides are tremendous. The gulf is moſt awful with the flowing tide; in ſtormy weather, it exhibits an aſpect in which a great deal of the terrible is blended. Vaſt openings are formed in which one would think the bottom might be ſeen: Immenſe bodies of water tumble headlong, as over a precipice; then rebounding from the abyſs meet the torrents from above; they daſh together with inconceivable impetuoſity, and riſe foaming to a prodigious height above their ſurface. The noiſe of their conflict is heard through the ſurrounding iſlands. This gulf is an object of as great terror to the modern, as Scylla and Charybdis were to the ancient mariners. It is induſtrioufly avoided by all who navigate theſe ſounds. There are inſtances however of veſſels being drawn into it." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* xii. 326.

(1.) * BREACH. *n. ſ.* [from *break; breche*, Fr.] 1. The act of breaking any thing.—

This tempeſt
Daſhing the garment of this peace, aboded
The ſudden *breach* on't. *Shakeſpeare.*

2. The ſtate of being broken.—

O you kind gods!
Cure this great *breach* in his abuſed nature.
Shakeſpeare.

3. A gap in a fortification made by a battery.—The wall was blown up in two places; by which *breach* the Turks ſeeking to have entered, made bloody fight. *Knolles.*—

Till mad with rage upon the *breach* he fir'd,
Slew friends and foes, and in the ſmoke retir'd.
Dryden.

4. The violation of a law or contract.—That oath would ſure contain them greatly, or the *breach* of it bring them to ſhorter vengeance. *Spenſer.*—What are thoſe *breaches* of the law of nature and nations, which do forfeit all right in a nation to govern? *Bacon.*—*Breach* of duty towards our neighbours, ſtill involves in it a *breach* of duty towards God. *South.*—The laws of the goſpel are the only ſtanding rules of morality; and the penalties affixed by God to the *breach* of thoſe laws, the only guards that can effectually reſtrain men within the true bounds of decency and virtue. *Rogers.* 5. The opening in a coaſt.—

But th' heedful boatman ſtrongly forth did ſtretch
His brawny arms, and all his body ſtrain,
That th' utmoſt ſandy *breach* they ſhortly fetch,
While the dread danger does behind remain.
Spenſer.

6. Difference; quarrel; ſeparation of kindneſs.—It would have been long before the jealouſies and *breaches* between the armies would have been compoſed. *Clarendon.* 7. Infraction; injury.—This *breach* upon kingly power was without precedent. *Clarendon.*

(2.) BREACH, in fortification, (§ 1. *def.* 3.) is made by the cannon or mines of the beſiegers, in order to make an attack upon the place. To make the

the attack more difficult, the beſieged ſow the breach with crow-feet, or ſtop it with *chevaux de frize*.—A practicable breach, is that where the men may mount and make a lodgment, and ought to be 15 or 20 fathoms wide. The beſiegers make their way to it, by covering themſelves with gabions, earth-bags, &c.

(3.) BREACH, in lands. (See § 1. *def.* 5.) Inundations, or overflowings of lands, are frequently owing to breaches in the dikes or ſea-banks. Dagenham breach is famous; it was made in 1707, by a failure of the Thames wall in a very high tide. The force wherewith it burſt in upon the neighbouring level tore up a large channel or paſſage for water 100 yards wide, and in ſome places 20 feet deep, by which a multitude of ſubterraneous trees that had been buried many ages before were laid bare.

(4.) BREACH, in law. (See § 1. *def.* 4.) In an action, the breach muſt be aſſigned: And this aſſignment muſt not be general, but particular, as, in an action of covenant for not repairing houſes, it ought to be aſſigned particularly what is the want of reparation: and in ſuch certain manner, that the defendant may take an iſſue.

(1.)* BREAD. *n. ſ.* [*bread*, Sax.] 1. Food made of ground corn.—Mankind have found the means to make grain into *bread*, the lighteſt and propereſt aliment for human bodies. *Arbuthnot.*—

Bread, that decaying man with ſtrength ſupplies,
And gen'rous wine, which thoughtful ſorrow flies. *Pope.*

1. Food in general, ſuch as nature requires: to *get bread*, implies, to get ſufficient for ſupport without luxury.—In the ſweat of thy face thou ſhalt eat *bread*. *Geneſis.*—If pretenders were not ſupported by the ſimplicity of the inquiſitive fools, the trade would not find them *bread*. *L'Eſtrange.*

Thus dowager on whom my tale I found,
A ſimple ſober life in patience led,
And had but juſt enough to buy her *bread*.
Dryden.

When I ſubmit to ſuch indignities,
Make me a citizen, a ſenator of Rome;
To ſell my country, with my voice, for *bread*.
Philips.

—I neither have been bred a ſcholar, a ſoldier, nor to any kind of buſineſs; this creates uneaſineſs in my mind, fearing I ſhall in time want *bread*. *Spectator.* 3. Support of life at large.—God is pleaſed to try our patience by the ingratitude of thoſe who, having eaten of our *bread*, have lift up themſelves againſt us. *K. Charles.*—

But ſometimes virtue ſtarves, while vice is fed;
What then? is the reward of virtue *bread*? *Pope.*

(2.) BREAD may be farther defined, a maſs of dough kneaded and baked in an oven. See BAKER, BAKING, and BARM. The grains of all vegetables are almoſt entirely compoſed of ſubſtances very proper for the nouriſhment of animals; and amongſt the different grains, thoſe which contain a farinaceous matter are the moſt agreeable and moſt nutritive.

(2.) BREAD, ANCIENT AND MODERN METHODS OF MAKING. Man, who appears to be deſigned by nature to eat of all ſubſtances which are capable of nouriſhing him, and ſtill more of vegetables than animals, has, from time immemorial, and in all parts of the earth, uſed farinaceous grains as the principal baſis of his food: but as theſe grains cannot be without difficulty eaten by men in their natural ſtate, they have gradually found means not only to extract the farinaceous part, the only nutritive part of theſe grains, but alſo to prepare it ſo that it becomes a very agreeable and wholeſome aliment, ſuch as the bread we now generally eat. Nothing appears ſo eaſy at firſt ſight as to grind corn, to make a paſte with the flour and water, and to bake this paſte in an oven. Moſt people who enjoy the advantages of the fineſt human inventions, without reflecting on the labour it has coſt to complete them, think all theſe operations common and trivial. It appears certain, however, that for a long time men no otherwiſe prepared their corn than by boiling and forming compact viſcous cakes, not very agreeable to the taſte, and of difficult digeſtion, before they were able to make bread of good taſte and quality, as we have now. It was neceſſary to invent ingenious machines for grinding corn, and ſeparating the pure flour with little trouble and labour; and that inquiries, or rather ſome happy chance, which ſome obſerving perſon availed himſelf of, ſhould diſcover, that flour, mixed with a certain quantity of water, is ſuſceptible of a fermentation which almoſt entirely deſtroys its viſcidity, heightens its taſte, and renders it proper to make a light bread, very agreeable to the taſte, and of eaſy digeſtion. This eſſential operation, on which the good quality of bread depends, is entirely a chemical proceſs. It would redound to the honour of the ancient chemiſts, could we attribute to them ſo important a diſcovery; but, it is too probable that they had no ſhare in it. They were ſo much engaged in other purſuits that bread and other common objects, ſeemed to them of little importance. They hoped to make gold; but what is gold in compariſon with bread? However that be, to the fortunate invention of raiſing the paſte before baking we owe the perfection of the art of making bread. This operation conſiſts in keeping ſome paſte or dough, till by a peculiar ſpirituous fermentation it ſwells, rarefies, and acquires a ſmell and taſte quick, pungent, ſpirituous, ſomewhat ſour, and rather diſagreeable. This fermented dough is well worked with ſome freſh dough, which is by that mixture and moderate heat diſpoſed to a ſimilar but leſs advanced fermentation than that above mentioned. By this fermentation the dough is attenuated, and divided; air is introduced, which being incapable of diſengaging itſelf from the tenacious and ſolid paſte, forms in it ſmall cavities, raiſes and ſwells it. Hence the ſmall quantity of fermented paſte which diſpoſes the reſt to ferment, is called LEAVEN, from the French, *lever*, to raiſe. When the dough is thus raiſed, it is in a proper ſtate to be put into the oven; where, while it is baked, it dilates itſelf ſtill more by the rarefaction of the air, and of the ſpirituous ſubſtance it contains, and it forms a bread full of eyes or cavities; conſequently light, and entirely different from the heavy, compact, viſcous, and indigeſted maſſes made by baking unfermented dough. The invention of beer, or wine of grains, furniſhes a new matter uſeful in the

making of bread. This matter is the froth which forms upon the ſurface of theſe liquors during fermentation. When it is mixed with dough, it raiſes it better and more quickly than ordinary leaven. It is called YEST or BARM. By means of this, the fineſt lighteſt bread is made. It often happens, that bread made with leaven dough has a ſourith and not agreeable taſte; which may proceed from too great a quantity of leaven, or from leaven in which the fermentation has advanced too far. This inconvenience does not happen to bread made with yeſt; becauſe the fermentation of this ſubſtance is not too far advanced, or becauſe more attention is given to that finer bread. It may be aſked, Why, ſince dough is capable of fermenting ſpontaneouſly and ſingly, as we ſee from the leaven, a ſubſtance is added to diſpoſe it to ferment? The reaſon is, That all the parts of a fermenting ſubſtance do not ferment at once, nor to the ſame degree; ſo that ſome parts of this ſubſtance have finiſhed their fermentation, while others have not yet begun. The fermentable liquors which contain much ſugar, as hydromel, and muſt of wines, give proofs of this; for after they have become very vinous, they have ſtill a diſtinct ſaccharine taſte: But all ſaccharine matter is ſtill ſuſceptible of fermentation: and, in fact, if vinous hydromel, or muſt, or even new beer, be diſtilled, ſo that all their ardent ſpirit ſhall be ſeparated, and the reſiduums diluted with water, a ſecond fermentation will take place, and a new quantity of ardent ſpirit will be formed. The ſame thing happens to dough, and ſtill more ſenſibly, from its viſcoſity and want of fluidity; ſo that if it be left to ferment alone, without the help of leaven, as the fermentation proceeds very ſlowly and ſucceſſively, the parts which ferment firſt will have become ſour and vapid before all the reſt be ſufficiently attenuated and changed, by which the bread will acquire a diſagreeable taſte. A mixture of a ſmall quantity of leaven with dough effectually prevents this inconvenience; becauſe the effect of this leaven, and of all fermenting ſubſtances, is to diſpoſe to a ſimilar fermentation all matters capable of it, with which they mixed; or rather, by means of leaven, the fermentation of all the parts of ſuch ſubſtances is effected more nearly at the ſame time. Bread well raiſed and baked differs from unfermented bread, not only in being leſs compact, lighter, and of a more agreeable taſte, but alſo in being more eaſily miſcible with water, with which it does not form a viſcous maſs, which circumſtance is of great importance in digeſtion.

(4.) BREAD, ANCIENT VARIETIES OF. Among the ancients we meet with various denominations of bread; as, 1. *Panis furfureus*, called alſo, *mundus*, *athleticus*, *ſiligia*, *colyphius*, and *robys*, anſwering to our white bread; being made of the pureſt flour of the beſt wheat, and only uſed by the richer ſort. 2. *Panis ſecundus* or *ſecundarius*, called alſo *ſimilaceus* or *ſimiligineus*, the next in purity; being made of fine flour, only all the bran not ſifted out. 3. *Autopyrus*, called alſo *ſyncomiſtus* and *confarreus*, made of the whole ſubſtance of the wheat, without either retrenching the finer flour or coarſer bran anſwering to our houſehold bread. 4. *Cacabaceus*, apparently the ſame with what was otherwiſe denominated *ſordidus*, as being given to dogs; *furfuraceus*, *furfureus*, or *furfurativus*, becauſe made in great part of bran; and, in the middle age, *biſſus*, on account of its brownneſs; ſometimes alſo *leibo*. There were other ſorts of bread, denominated from the manner in which they were made, or the uſes they were applied to; as, 1. The *militaris*, which was prepared by the ſoldiers and officers in camp with their own hands; for which purpoſe ſome had hand-mills, others pounded the corn in a mortar, and baked it on the coals. 2. *Clibanites*, bread baked in an oven, by way of contradiſtinction from that baked on the hearth or under the embers. 3. *Panis ſubcineritius*, or *ſub cinere coctus*: ſometimes alſo *reverſatus*, becauſe it was to be turned in the baking. 4. *Nauticus*, anſwering to our ſea-biſcuit, and denominated accordingly *bis coctus*, becauſe baked ſeveral times over to make it keep the longer. Other kinds of bread were denominated from their qualities and accidents; as, 1. The *panis ficcus*, that which had been long baked; ſuch as were the *bis coctus*, naval and buccellated bread. 2. *Madidus*, a ſort made of rye or bear, ſometimes alſo made of fine flour, wherewith they ſmeared their faces, by way of a coſmetic, to render them ſmooth. 3. *Acidus*, or ſour bread, which was acidulated with vinegar. 4. *Azymus*, unleavened or unfermented bread.

(5.) BREAD, ASSIZE OF. See ASSIZE, § 1. *def.* 6. The price and weight of bread is regulated by the magiſtrates according to the price of wheat. We have divers tables of the weights of the loaves both of wheat, wheaten, and houſehold bread, at every price of wheat. If bread want one ounce in 36, the baker formerly was to ſuffer the pillory; now to forfeit 5s. for every ounce wanting; and for every defect leſs than an ounce, 2s. 6d. ſuch bread being complained of and weighed before a magiſtrate within 24 hours after it is baked or expoſed to ſale within the bills of mortality, or within 3 days in any other place. Bread loſes weight by keeping: in ſome experiments recited by Bartholine, the diminution was near $\frac{1}{5}$ in 6 months.

(6.) BREAD, CASSADA. See JATROPHA.

(7.) BREAD, EARTH. In the German Ephemerides, for 1764, we have the following account of a kind of bread made in earth. "In the lordſhip of Moſcaw in the Upper Luſatia, a ſort of white earth is found, of which the poor, urged by the calamities of the wars which raged in thoſe parts, make bread. It is taken out of a hill where they formerly worked at ſaltpetre. When the ſun has ſomewhat warmed this earth, it cracks, and ſmall white globules proceed from it as meal; it does not ferment alone, but only when mixed with meal. Mr. Sarlitz, a Saxon gentleman, informed us, that he has ſeen perſons who in a great meaſure lived upon it for ſome time. He aſſures us that he procured bread to be made of this earth alone, and of different mixtures of earth and meal; and that he even kept ſome of this bread by him upwards of ſix years: he further ſays, a Spaniard told him, that this earth is alſo found near Gerone in Catalonia."

(8.) BREAD, GENERAL USE OF, ACCOUNTED FOR. The late learned Dr Cullen obſerves, that without

without bread, or ſomewhat of a ſimilar nature, no nation is known to live. Thus the Laplanders, having no corn of their own, make a ſort of bread of dried fiſhes, and of the inner rind of the pine, which ſeems to be uſed, not ſo much for their nouriſhment as for ſupplying a dry food.—For this mankind ſeem to have an univerſal appetite, rejecting bland, ſlippery, and mucilaginous foods. This is not commonly accounted for, but ſeems to depend on very ſimple principles. The preparation of our food depends on the mixture of the animal fluids in every ſtage. Among others the ſaliva is neceſſary, which requires dry food as a neceſſary ſtimulus to draw it forth, as bland, ſlippery, fluid aliments are too inert, and make too ſhort ſtay in the mouth, to produce this effect, or to cauſe a ſufficient degree of manducation to emulge that liquor. For this reaſon we commonly uſe dry bread along with animal food, which otherwiſe would be too quickly ſwallowed. For blending the oil and water of our food, nothing is ſo fit as bread, aſſiſted by a previous manducation. For which purpoſe, bread is of like neceſſity in the ſtomach, as it is proper that a ſubſtance of ſolid conſiſtence ſhould be long retained there. Now the animal fluids muſt be mixed with our aliments, in order to change the aceſcency it undergoes. But liquid foods would not attain this end, whereas the ſolid ſtimulates and emulges the glands of the ſtomach. The bread then appears to be exceedingly proper, being bulky without too much ſolidity, and firm without difficulty of ſolution.

(9.) BREAD, HORSE, is made of wheat, oats, and beans; to which ſometimes are added aniſeed, gentian, liquorice, fenugreek, eggs, and ale; and ſometimes rye and white wine are uſed. For race horſes 3 ſorts of bread are uſually given with ſucceſs, for the 2d, 3d, and 4th nights feeding: they are all made of beans and wheat worked with barm; the difference conſiſting chiefly in the proportion of the two former. In the firſt kind, 3 times the quantity of beans is uſed to 1 of wheat; in the 2d equal quantities of both; in the 3d, 3 times the quantity of wheat to one of beans.

(10.) BREAD, MEDICAL QUALITIES OF. Beſides the alimentary, bread has alſo medical qualities.—Decoctions, creams, and jellies of bread, are directed in ſome diſpenſaries. Bread carefully toaſted, and infuſed or lightly boiled in water, imparts a deep colour, and a ſufficiently agreeable aſtringent taſte. This liquor, taken as common drink, has done good ſervice in a weak and lax ſtate of the ſtomach and inteſtines; and in bilious vomiting and purging, or the cholero morbus: examples are related in the Edinburgh eſſays of ſeveral caſes of this kind cured by it, without the uſe of any other medicine.—In Weſtphalia there is a very coarſe bread eaten, which ſtill retains the opprobrious name given it by a French traveller of BONPOURNICKEL, *i. e.* good for his horſe *Nickel*. It is the ſame with what the Romans called *panis furfuraceus*, or *panis impurus*, from its not being cleanſed from the huſk; and *panis ater*, from the blackneſs of its colour: though we learn from Pliny, that the Romans for 300 years knew no other bread. The Germans make two ſorts of waters by diſtillation from this bread; the one with, the other without, the addition of a ſpirituous liquor; to both which great virtues are aſcribed. That without any thing ſpirituous, is made out of the juice of craw-fiſh, may-dew, roſe-water, nutmegs, and ſaffron, diſtilled from a large quantity of this bread. This is eſteemed a great reſtorative, and given in hectic habits. The other is diſtilled from this bread and Rheniſh wine, with nutmegs and cinnamon. This is given in all the diſorders of the ſtomach, vomiting, loſs of appetite, and other complaints of the ſame kind: and beſides theſe, there is a ſpirit diſtilled from it by the retort in the dry way, which, when ſeparated from its fetid oil, is eſteemed a powerful ſudorific, and very valuable medicine in removing impurities of the blood. Bread is alſo medicinal, applied *externally*, as is commonly known. Mr Boyle aſſures us he drew a menſtruum from bread ſtronger than aquafortis, and which would act even upon glaſs itſelf. *Boyle's Phil. Works abridged*, vol. I. p. 34. 40. and vol. III. p. 572.

(11.) BREAD, MODERN VARIETIES OF. The French have a great variety of bread, as queens bread, alamode bread, bread de Segovie, de Gentillay, quality bread, &c. all prepared in peculiar manners by the bakers of Paris, though ſome of theſe names are now doubtleſs changed. The bread of Goneſſe excels all others, on account of the waters at Goneſſe. It is light and full of eyes, which are the marks of its goodneſs. *Pain de menage*, is that which each family bakes for itſelf. *Pain d' epice*, ſpice bread, denotes bread baked and iced over with the ſcum taken off ſugar in refining houſes; it is ſometimes alſo made with honey and other ſorts of ſeaſoning, and anſwers to what the ancients called *panis mellitus*. Among us, bread is chiefly divided into *white*, *wheaten*, and *houſehold*; differing only in degrees of purity. In the firſt, all the bran is ſeparated; in the 2d only the coarſer; in the 3d none at all: ſo that fine bread is made only of flour: wheaten bread, of flour and a mixture of the finer bran; and houſehold, of the whole ſubſtance of the grain, without taking out either the coarſe bran or fine flour. We alſo meet with SYMNEL bread, MANCHET, or roll bread, and French bread: which are only ſo many denominations of the fineſt and whiteſt bread, made of the pureſt flour; except that in *ill-roll* bread there is an addition of milk: and in French bread, of eggs and butter alſo. In Lancaſhire, and ſeveral of the northern counties of England, they have ſeveral ſorts of oaten bread; as, 1. The BANNOCK, which is an oat cake, kneaded only with water, and baked on the embers. 2. *Clap* bread, which is made into thin hard cakes. 3. *Bitchineſs* bread, which is made of thin batter, and made into thin ſoft oat cakes. 4. *Riddle* cakes, which are thick and four, have but little leaven, and are kneaded ſtiff. And 5. *Jannock*, which is oaten bread made up into loaves. 6. *Peaſe bread*, is alſo much uſed in many parts of Scotland; conſiſting either wholly of the flour of peaſe, or of this and oat-meal mixed: the dough, ſometimes leavened, ſometimes only made with water, is formed either in bannocks or cakes, and baked over the embers; or baked into what they call *baps*, i. e. a kind of flattiſh rolls, baked in the

oven. In the ſtatute of aſſize of bread and ale, 51 Hen. III. mention is made of waſtel-bread, cocket-bread, and bread of treet; which anſwer to the three kinds of bread now in uſe, called *white*, *wheaten*, and *houſhold* bread. In religious houſes, they formerly diſtinguiſhed bread by the names *panis armigerorum*, Eſquires bread; *panis conventualis*, monks bread; *panis puerorum*, boys bread; and *panis famulorum*, or *panis ſervientalis*, ſervants bread. A like diſtribution obtained in the houſeholds of nobles and princes; where, however, we find ſome other denominations; as *panis nuncius*, meſſengers bread; that given to meſſengers as a reward of their labour; *panis curialis*, court bread; that allowed by the lord for the maintenance of his houſehold; *eleemoſynary* bread, that diſtributed to the poor by way of alms.

(12.) BREAD, NUTRITIVE PART OF, INVESTIGATED. M. Beccari of the Bolognian academy has diſcovered in the flour of wheat two diſtinct ſubſtances. The one he terms an *animal* or GLUTINOUS matter; the other an AMYLACEOUS matter or *vegetable paſte*. The GLUTEN has been ſuppoſed to be the nutritive part of corn, from its not diſſolving unleſs in vegetable acids; from its aſſuming a ſpongy form in boiling water; from its ſuppoſed analogy to the animal lymph; and, laſtly, from the ſimilitude which the products it affords, on a chemical analyſis, bear to thoſe obtained from animal ſubſtances. M. Parmentier, however, from various experiments, was led to conclude, with the celebrated Model of Peterſburg, that the gluten or animal matter of Beccari exiſts in the bran, and is not the nutritive part of the wheat. Having made experiments with four different kinds of flour, it appeared that the quantity of animal matter was always proportioned to the coarſeneſs of the flour. Hence, were this gluten the nutritive part, the coarſeſt bread, or that which contained moſt bran, would afford the greateſt quantity of nouriſhment. The contrary of this, however, is now known to be the fact. The amylaceous part, or, as ſome have termed it, the FECULA, of wheat and other vegetables, is a peculiar gum, not ſoluble in ſpirit of wine, vinegar, or cold water. It contains more acid, and leſs water, than the ordinary gums. It is found in many of thoſe plants that make the nouriſhment of men and other animals. Hence M. Parmentier concludes it to be the nutritive matter.—Though we are not to conſider the glutinous matter as the nutritious part of vegetables, yet it is a very neceſſary ingredient. It is that which preſerves the coheſion of the paſte in fermenting bread; it is that which forms the viſcid pellicle, and ſtops the air in fermentation; gives the ſavoury taſte to bread; occaſions it to be light, to ferment, and which forms the ſmall cells ſeen in it. It is found eſpecially near the cortical part of the grain; and this accounts for its being found in the greateſt quantity in coarſe brown meal. It is this gluten which renders wheat a ſuperior aliment to the other grains and roots.

(13.) BREAD, SACRAMENTAL, in the proteſtant churches, is common leavened bread, in conformity to the ancient practice. In the Romiſh maſs, azymous, or unleavened bread, is uſed, particularly in the Gallican church, where a ſort is provided for this porpoſe called *pain a chanter*, made of the pureſt wheaten flour preſſed between two iron plates graven like wafer-moulds, being firſt rubbed with white wax to prevent the paſte from ſticking. The Greeks obſerve divers ceremonies in their making the euchariſt bread. It is neceſſary the perſon who bakes it have not lain with his wife the day before; or, if it be a woman, that ſhe have not converſed with her huſband.—The Abyſſinians have an apartment in their churches for this ſervice, being a kind of ſacriſty. F. Sirmond, in his diſquiſition on azymous bread, ſhows from the council of Toledo, that anciently there were as many ceremonies uſed in the Latin church, in the preparation of their unleavened bread, as are ſtill retained in the eaſtern churches. He cites the example of queen Radegonda, who diſtributed with her own hands in the church, the bread which ſhe herſelf had made. It appears alſo from the diſpute of cardinal Humbert againſt the Greeks, that in the Latin church no bread was uſed for the eucharift, but what was taken out of the ſacriſty, and had been made by the deacons, ſubdeacons, and even prieſts, who rehearſed ſeveral pſalms during the proceſs. Eccleſiaſtical writers enumerate other ſpecies of bread allotted for purpoſes of religion; as, 1. *Calendarius*, that anciently offered to the prieſt at the kalends. 2. *Prebendarius*, the ſame with *capitularis*, that diſtributed daily to each prebendary or canon. 3. *Benedictus*, that uſually given to catechumens before baptiſm, in lieu of the euchariſtic bread, which they were incapable of partaking of. The *panis benedictus*, was called alſo *panagium* and *eulogium*, being a ſort of bread bleſſed and conſecrated by the prieſt, whereby to prepare the catechumens for the reception of the body of Chriſt. The ſame was uſed afterwards not only by catechumens, but by believers themſelves, as a token of their mutual communion and friendſhip. Its origin is dated from the 7th century, at the council at Nantz. In the Gallican church we ſtill find *panis benedictus*, *pain benit*, uſed for that offered for benediction, and afterwards diſtributed to pious perſons who attend divine ſervice in chapels. 4. Conſecrated bread is a piece of wax, paſte, or even earth, over which ſeveral ceremonies have been performed with benedictions, &c. to be ſent in an *Agnus Dei*, or relic-box, and preſented for veneration. 5. Unleavened bread, *panis azymus*. The Jews eat no other bread during their paſſover; and exact ſearch was made in every houſe, to ſee that no leavened bread was left. The uſage was introduced in memory of their haſty departure from Egypt, when they had not leiſure to bake leavened. 6. Shew-bread was that offered to God every Sabbath-day, being placed on the golden table in the holy of holies.

(14.) BREAD SAGO. See SAGO.

(15.) BREAD, SUBSTITUTES FOR. It is for the intereſt of the community that the food of the poor ſhould be as various as poſſible, that, in time of dearth and ſcarcity of the ordinary kinds, they may not be without ready and cheap reſources. To the diſcovery of ſuch reſources ſeveral benevolent philoſophers having ſucceſsfully turned their inquiries, we ſhall lay before the reader the reſult of their experiments.

toes, ſkinned, n paper, will of Reaumur's ried, they will his proceſs they right, and they wder. A little fire ſends out a ſmell reſembling received from all ated in the ſame it may be conſi- he preſence of an ll does not, how- e amylaceous or fi- n both taken toge- es, obtained as de- and taſte of wheat; ats and mice: but, ered, it has not the of wheat; although, yields the ſame pro- , and keeps well for a it a ſimilarity between of potatoes, M. Par- to make bread of them proportions. His trials nd ¼ of the potato-meal, ir from wheat. Theſe dition of a little ſalt and ch was well taſted, but tle, was brown, and co- cruſts. Bread made from one, with the addition of le, but very heavy, unfer- igly brown. This bread, tatoes alone, was apt to To give it more adheſion, al a decoction of bran, or a d water; either of which nore fermented: it obtained len colour, became well taſ- adheſive. M. Parmentier ob- ell fermented, and of a good om a mixture of raw potato wheat, or potato meal, with t and ſalt. Potatoes, when u- ead, are not readily diſpoſed to which, bread is very inſipid, digeſted. But M. Parmentier ariety of experiments, that good made from equal quantities of meal. He concludes, therefore, ding the mixture of potatoes, in y, with the flour of wheat, inſtead rye, barley, or oats, as has frequent- When grain is altogether wanting, the uſe of bread made from a mix- mylaceous powder of potatoes and of this mixture being fermented with h honey. The meal of this root, when hot water, acquires a tenaceous and ſtence. However fair the meal of pota- e, it always gives a grey colour to the le by mixing it with the flour of wheat: ure of the pulp of potatoes with the flour loes not produce brown coloured bread, ther made bread, very much like that of wheat, by a mixture of the following 4 ſubſtances, viz. 4 ounces of amylaceous powder of potatoes, one dram of mucilage extracted from barley, one dram of the bran of rye, and a dram and a half of glutinous matter dried and powdered.

II. Bread of several other vegetables. Although horſe chefnut has not hitherto been employed, yet it is certain that wholeſome bread, without any bitterneſs, may be obtained from it. M. Parmentier adviſes, that the fruit, after the ſkin is taken off, and the juice preſſed from it, be made into a paſte. This maſs muſt be diluted in water, and then ſtrained through a ſieve. A milky-coloured liquor is thus ſeparated, which, on ſtanding, depoſites a fine powder. This, being dried, is without either ſmell or taſte, and very fit for aliment; the maſs from which it is procured retaining the bitterneſs of the fruit. The roots of the bryona, treated in the ſame manner, yielded a ſimilar white powder. By the ſame treatment alſo, fine, white, inſipid, inodorous powders may be procured from the roots of the iris, gladiolus, ranunculus, fumaria, arum, dracunculus, mandragora, colchicum, filipendula, and helleborus; plants which grow ſpontaneouſly, and in great abundance. Bread has frequently been made of acorns and to this day, in ſome countries, they are in common uſe. The method of preparation, which M. Parmentier recommends, is, that they be deprived of their cover by boiling, then dried and powdered, and afterwards baked in the ſame manner as the flour of wheat. When fully ripe, and made into a paſte, they were deprived of their aſtringency by merely preſſing their juice from them. The maſs remaining after the preſſure, when dried, was eaſily reduced to a fine powder by no means diſagreeable. The gramen canimum arvenſe, in its appearance approaches to corn; and ſome naturaliſts have conſidered it as the original ſpecies from which all our grain is produced. Its roots are ſweet-taſted, and have long been employed in making ptiſans. In the preparation of them for bread, it is only neceſſary that the roots ſhould be cleanſed, cut ſmall, dried, and pounded. This powder, M. Parmentier obſerves, does not diſſolve in cold water or ſpirits; but it does in boiling water, which it renders thick and cloudy, and, upon cooling, the whole maſs obtains a gelatinous conſiſtence. Upon a chemical analyſis, it yields an acid empyreumatic oil, which poſſeſſes a ſingular odour, reſembling that which is perceived on burning the plant. The ſpongy reſiduum, calcined in the air gives a fixed alkali. Theſe properties inconteſtably prove, that it contains an amylaceous matter ſimilar to that of grain, which appears to be the nutritive part of vegetables. This amylaceous matter, formed into a jelly and diffuſed in water, keeps for a long time without ſuffering any change; it then turns acid, and at length putrefies. The amylaceous matter of acrid and poiſonous plants, although innocent and nutritive, cannot be converted into bread without the addition of ſome mucilaginous ſubſtance. In times of great ſcarcity, common bran will anſwer the purpoſe; but when potatoes are to be had, the addition of a proper proportion of theſe is to be preferred. M. Parmentier gives an account of the bread which he obtained from the amylaceous

amylaceous powders of the different vegetables mentioned above, with the addition of potatoes and a ſmall quantity of common leaven of grain. This bread appeared in general to be well fermented; it was of a good white colour, and free from any diſagreeable odour: but to the taſte, it was ſomewhat inſipid; which, however, he imagines, might have been corrected by the addition of a proper quantity of ſalt. As the reſources againſt ſcarcity here pointed out can be procured only at particular ſeaſons, the author propoſes a method for preſerving the matter thus obtained. For this purpoſe, he adviſes, that bread prepared in the manner mentioned above ſhould be carefully dried, reduced to powder, and then kept in a cloſe caſk. By this means, he is of opinion that it may be preſerved for a very long time, and will always be ready to make an agreeable and wholeſome panada by the addition of a little butter and ſalt. M. Parmentier, in order to diſcover the degree of power wherewith this alimentary powder nouriſhed, made himſelf the ſubject of experiment; and found, that 3 ounces of it for dinner, and as much for ſupper, made into panada with water, was a ſufficient quantity of aliment for a day. From his diſcharge by ſtool while he uſed it, he had reaſon to believe that it is almoſt totally alimentary. He concludes with recommending it not only as uſeful in times of ſcarcity, but as a proper ſubſtitute for ſea-biſcuit, and as a ſpecies of food well adapted for armies and hoſpitals.

III. BREAD OF TURNIPS. The following cheap method of making wholeſome bread is recommended in a letter in the *Muſæum Ruſticum et Commerciale*. "At the time I tried this method, bread was very dear, inſomuch that the poor people, in the country where I live, can hardly afford themſelves half a meal a-day. This put me upon conſulting whether ſome cheaper method might not be found than making it of wheat-meal. Turnips were at that time very plentiful. I had a number of them pulled, waſhed clean, pared, and boiled; when they were become ſoft enough to maſh, I had the greateſt part of the water preſſed out of them, and afterwards had them mixed with an equal quantity in weight of coarſe wheat meal; the dough was then made in the uſual manner, with yeſt or barm, ſalt, water, &c. It roſe very well in the trough; and after being well kneaded, was formed into loaves, and put into the oven to be baked. I had at the ſame time ſome other bread made with common meal in the ordinary way. I baked my turnip-bread rather longer than the other. When they were drawn from the oven, I cauſed a loaf of each ſort to be cut; and found, on examination, the turnip-bread was ſweeter than the other, to the full as light and as white, but had a little taſte (though nowiſe diſagreeable) of the turnip. Twelve hours afterwards I taſted my turnip-bread again, when I found the taſte of the turnip in it ſcarce perceivable, and the ſmell quite gone off. On examining it when it had been baked 24 hours, had I not known there were turnips in its compoſition, I ſhould not have imagined it: it had, it is true, a peculiar ſweetiſh taſte, but by no means diſagreeable; on the contrary, I rather preferred to the bread made of wheat-meal alone. After it had been baked 48 hours, it underwent another examination, when it appeared to me to be rather ſuperior to the other; it eat freſher and moiſter, and had not at all abated in its good qualities: to be ſhort, it was ſtill very good after a week; and, as far as I could ſee, kept as well as the bread made of common wheat-meal. In my trials of this bread by the taſte, I was not ſatisfied with eating it by itſelf; I had ſome of it ſpread with butter; I taſted it with cheeſe; I ate of it toaſted and buttered, and finally in boiled milk and in ſoup: in all theſe forms it was very palatable and good."

(16.) BREAD VALUED FOR ITS AGE. Bartholinus aſſures us, that in Norway they make bread which keeps 30 or 40 years; and that they are there fonder of their old hard bread, than elſewhere of new or ſoft; ſince the older it is, the more agreeable it grows. For their great feaſts, particular care is taken to have the oldeſt bread; ſo that, at the chriſtening of a child, they have uſually bread which had been baked perhaps at the chriſtening of his grandfather! It is made of barley and oat-meal baked between two hollow ſtones.

BREADALBANE. See BRAIDALBIN.

BREAD, BEE'S. See BEE-BREAD.

* BREAD-CHIPPER. *n. ſ.* [from *bread* and *chip*.] One that chips bread; a baker's ſervant; an under-butler.—No abuſe, Hal, on my honour; no abuſe.——Not to diſpraiſe me, and call me pantler, and *bread-chipper*, and I know not what? *Shakeſpeare.*

* BREAD-CORN. *n. ſ.* [from *bread* and *corn*.] Corn of which bread is made.—There was not one drop of beer in the town, the bread, and *bread-corn*, ſufficed not for ſix days. *Hayward.*—When it is ripe, they gather it, and, bruiſing it among *bread-corn*, they put it into a veſſel, and keep it as food for their ſlaves. *Broome.*

To BREADE. *v. n. obſ.* to ſpread.

(1.) * BREAD-ROOM. *n. ſ.* [In a ſhip.] A part of the hold ſeparated by a bulk-head from the reſt, where the bread and biſket for the men are kept.

(2.) *A* BREAD-ROOM ſhould be jointed and caulked in the boards, and even lined with tin plates or mats. It ſhould alſo be well warmed with charcoal for ſeveral days before the biſket is put into it; for nothing is more injurious to the bread than moiſture.

(1.) * BREADTH. *n. ſ.* [from *brad*, broad, Saxon.] The meaſure of any plain ſuperficies from ſide to ſide.—There is in Ticinum, a church that hath windows only from above: it is in length an hundred feet, in *breadth* twenty, and in height near fifty; having a door in the midſt. *Bacon.*—The river Ganges, according unto later relations, if not in length, yet in *breadth* and depth, may excell it. *Brown.*—

Then all approach the ſlain with vaſt ſurprize,
Admire on what a *breadth* of earth he lies. *Dryd.*

—In our Gothic cathedrals, the narrowneſs of the arch makes it riſe in height; the lowneſs opens it in *breadth*. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BREADTH, in geometry, one of three dimenſions of bodies, which multiplied into their length conſtitutes a ſolidity.

BREAD TREE. See ARTOCARPUS, § 1—6.

BREAGE,

BREAGE, a village in Cornwall, 3 m. N. W. of Helſton.

* BREAK. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. State of being broken; opening.—From the *break* of day until noon, the roaring of the cannon never ceaſed. *Knolles.*—

For now, and ſince firſt *break* of day, the fiend,
Mere ſerpent in appearance, forth was come. *Milton.*

—They muſt be drawn from far, and without *breaks*, to avoid the multiplicity of lines. *Dryden.*—The ſight of it would be quite loſt, did it not ſometimes diſcover itſelf through the *breaks* and openings of the woods that grow about it. *Addiſon.* 2. A pauſe; an interruption. 3. A line drawn, noting that the ſenſe is ſuſpended.—

All modern traſh is
Set forth with num'rous *breaks* and daſhes. *Swift.*

(1.) * *To* BREAK. *v. a.* pret. I *broke*, or *brake*; part. paſſ. *broke*, or *broken*. [*breccan*, Saxon.] 1. To part by violence.—When I *brake* the five loaves among five thouſand, how many baſkets of fragments took ye up? *Mark.*—Let us *break* their bands aſunder, and caſt away their cords from us. *Pſalms.*—A bruiſed reed ſhall he not *break*. *Iſaiah.*

See, ſaid the fire, how ſoon its done;
The ſticks he then *brake* one by one:
So ſtrong you'll be in friendſhip ty'd;
So quickly *broke*, if you divide. *Swift.*

2. To burſt, or open by force.—

O could we *break* our way by force. *Milton.*—Moſes tells us, that the fountains of the earth were *broke* open, or clove aſunder. *Burnet's Theory.*

Into my hands he forc'd the tempting gold,
While I with modeſt ſtruggling *broke* his hold. *Gay.*

3. To pierce; to divide, as light divides darkneſs.

By a dim winking lamp which feebly *broke*
The gloomy vapour, he lay ſtretch'd along. *Dryden.*

4. To deſtroy by violence.—This is the fabrick, which, when God *breaketh* down, none can build up again. *Burnet's Theory.* 5. To batter; to make breaches or gaps in.—

I'd give bay Curtal and his furniture,
My mouth no more were *broken* than theſe boys,
And writ as little beard. *Shakeſpeare.*

6. To cruſh or deſtroy the ſtrength of the body.—

O father abbot!
An old man, *broken* with the ſtorms of ſtate,
Is come to lay his weary bones among ye;
Give him a little earth for charity. *Shakeſpeare.*

The breaking of that parliament
Broke him; as that diſtioneſt victory
At Chæronea, fatal to liberty,
Kill'd with report that old man eloquent. *Milt.*—Have not ſome of his voices weaken'd his body, or *broke* his health? have not others diſſipated his eſtate and reduced him to want? *Tillotſon.* 7. To ſink or appal the ſpirit.—The defeat of that day was much greater than it then appeared to be; and it even *broke* the heart of his army. *Clarend.*

I'll brave her to her face;
I'll give my anger its free courſe againſt her:
Thou ſhalt ſee, Phœnix, how I'll *break* her pride. *Philips.*

8. To cruſh; to ſhatter.—

Your hopes without are vaniſh'd into ſmoke;
Your captains taken, and your armies *broke*. *Dryden.*

9. To weaken mental faculties.—

Oppreſt nature ſleeps:
This reſt might yet have balm'd thy *broken* ſenſes,
Which, if conveniency will not allow,
Stand in hard cure. *Shakeſpeare.*

—If any dabbler in poetry dares venture upon the experiment, he will only *break* his brains. *Felton.* 10. To tame; to train to obedience; to enure to docility.—What boots it to *break* a colt, and to let him ſtraight run looſe at random? *Spenſer.*—

Why, then, thou can'ſt not *break* her to the lute.—
—Why, no; for ſhe hath broke the lute to me. *Shakeſpeare.*

So fed before he's *broke*, he'll bear
Too great a ſtomach patiently to feel
The laſhing whip, or chew the curbing ſteel. *May.*

That hot-mouth'd beaſt that bears againſt the curb,
Hard to be *broken* even by lawful kings. *Dryd.*

No ſports but what belong to war they know,
To *break* the ſtubborn colt, to bend the bow. *Dryden.*

Virtues like theſe,
Make human nature ſhine, reform the ſoul,
And *break* our fierce barbarians into men. *Add.*

Behold young Juba, the Numidian prince,
With how much care he forms himſelf to glory,
And *breaks* the fierceneſs of his native temper. *Addiſon.*

11. To make bankrupt.—

The king's grown bankrupt, like a *broken* man. *Shakeſpeare.*

For this few know themſelves: for merchants *broke*,
View their eſtate with diſcontent and pain. *Davies.*

With arts like theſe, rich Matho, when he ſpeaks,
Attracts all fees, and little lawyers *breaks*. *Dryden.*

—A command or call to be liberal, all of a ſudden impoveriſhes the rich, *breaks* the merchant, and ſhuts up every private man's exchequer. *South.* 12. To diſcard; to diſmiſs.—I ſee a great officer *broken*. *Swift.* 13. To crack or open the ſkin, ſo as that the blood comes.—She could have run and waddled all about, even the day before ſhe *broke* her brow; and then my huſband took up the child. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Weak ſoul! and blindly to deſtruction led:
She break her heart! ſhe'll ſooner *break* your head. *Dryden.*

14. To make a ſwelling or impoſthume open. 15. To violate a contract or promiſe.—

Lovers *break* not hours,
Unleſs it be to come before their time. *Shakeſp.*

Pardon this fault, and, by my ſoul I ſwear,
I never more will *break* an oath with thee. *Shakeſpeare.*

Did not our worthies of the houſe,
Before they *broke* the peace, *break* vows? *Hud.*

10. To

16. To infringe a law.—

Unhappy man! to *break* the pious laws
Of nature, pleading in his children's cauſe.
Dryden.

17. To ſtop; to make ceaſe.—*Break* their talk, miſtreſs Quickly; my kinſman ſhall ſpeak for himſelf. *Shakeſpeare.* 18. To intercept.—Spirit of wine, mingled with common water, yet ſo as if the firſt fall be *broken*, by means of a ſop, or otherwiſe, it ſtayeth above. *Bacon.*—

Think not my ſenſe of virtue is ſo ſmall;
I'll rather leap down firſt, and *break* your fall.
Dryden.

As one condemn'd to leap a precipice,
Who ſees before his eyes the depth below,
Stops ſhort, and looks about for ſome kind ſhrub,
To *break* his dreadful fall. *Dryden.*

She held my hand, the deſtin'd blow to *break*,
Then from her roſy lips began to ſpeak. *Dryd.*

19. To interrupt.—

Some ſolitary cloiſter will I chooſe,
Coarſe my attire, and ſhort ſhall be my ſleep.
Broke by the melancholy midnight bell. *Dryd.*

—The father was ſo moved, that he could only command his voice, *broke* with ſighs and ſobbings, ſo far as to bid her proceed. *Addiſon.*—

The poor ſhade, ſhiv'ring ſtands, and muſt not *break*
His painful ſilence, till the mortal ſpeak. *Tickell.*

Sometimes in *broken* words he ſighed his care,
Look'd pale and trembled when he view'd the fair. *Gay.*

20. To ſeparate company.—Did not Paul and Barnabas diſpute with that vehemence, that they were forced to *break* company? *Atterbury.* 21. To diſſolve any union.—It is great folly, as well as injuſtice, to *break* off ſo noble a relation. *Collier.* 22. To reform: with *of*.—The French were not quite *broken of* it, until ſome time after they became chriſtians. *Grew.* 23. To open ſomething new; to propound ſomething by an overture; as if a ſeal were opened.—When any new thing ſhall be propounded, no counſellor ſhould ſuddenly deliver any poſitive opinion, but only hear it, and, at the moſt, but to *break* it, at firſt, that it may be the better underſtood at the next meeting. *Bacon.*—

I, who much deſir'd to know
Of whence ſhe was, yet fearful how to *break*
My mind, adventur'd humbly thus to ſpeak.
Dryden.

24. *To break the back.* To ſtrain or diſlocate the vertebræ with too heavy burdens.—

I'd rather crack my ſinews, *break my back*,
Than you ſhould ſuch diſhonour undergo.
Shakeſpeare.

25. *To break the back.* To diſable one's fortune.—

O, many,
Have *broke their backs*, with laying manors on 'em,
For this great journey. *Shakeſpeare.*

26. *To break a deer.* To cut it up at table. 27. *To break faſt.* To eat the firſt time in the day. 28. *To break ground.* To plow.—When price of corn falleth, men generally give over ſurplus tillage, and *break* no more *ground* than will ſerve to ſupply their own turn. *Carew.*—The huſbandman muſt firſt *break the land*, before it be made capable of good ſeed. *Davies.* 29. *To break ground.* To open trenches. 30. *To break the heart.* To deſtroy with grief.—

Good my lord, enter here.———
—Will't *break my heart?*———
I'd rather *break mine own.* *Shakeſpeare.*

Should not all relations bear a part?
It were enough to *break a ſingle heart.* *Dryden.*

31. *To break a jeſt.* To utter a jeſt unexpected. 32. *To break the neck.* To lux, or put out the neck joints.—I had as lief thou didſt *break his neck*, as his fingers. *Shakeſpeare.* 33. *To break off.* To put a ſudden ſtop; to interrupt. 34. *To break off.* To preclude by ſome obſtacle ſuddenly interpoſed.

To check the ſtarts and ſallies of the ſoul,
And *break off* all its commerce with the tongue.
Addiſon.

35. *To break up.* To diſſolve; to put a ſudden end to.—

Who cannot reſt till he good fellows find;
He *breaks up* houſe, turns out of doors his mind.
Herbert.

—He threatened, that the tradeſmen would beat out his teeth, if he did not retire, and *break up* the meeting. *Arbuthnot.* 36. *To break up.* To open; to lay open.—Shells being lodged among mineral matter, when this comes to be *broke up*, it exhibits impreſſions of the ſhells. *Woodward.* 37. *To break up.* To ſeparate or diſband.—After taking the ſtrong city of Belgrade, Solyman returning to Conſtantinople, *broke up* his army, and there lay ſtill the whole year following. *Knolles.* 38. *To break upon the wheel.* To puniſh by ſtretching a criminal upon the wheel, and breaking his bones with bats. 39. *To break wind.* To give vent to wind in the body.

(2.) * *To* BREAK. *v. n.* 1. To part in two.—

Give ſorrow words, the grief that does not ſpeak,
Whiſpers the o'erfraught heart, and bids it *break*.
Shakeſpeare.

2. To burſt.—

The clouds are ſtill above; and, while I ſpeak,
A ſecond deluge o'er our heads may *break*. *Dryd.*

The Roman camp
Hangs o'er us black and threatning, like a ſtorm
Juſt *breaking* on our heads. *Dryden.*

3. To ſpread by daſhing, as waves on a rock.—

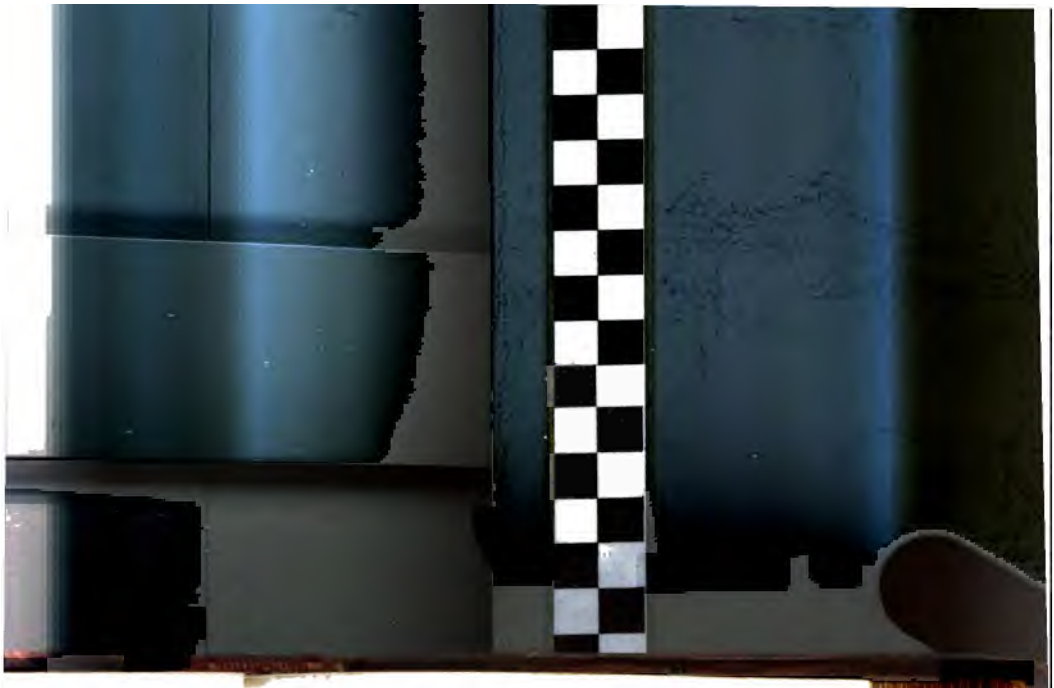
At laſt a falling billow ſtops his breath,
Breaks o'er his head, and whelms him underneath. *Dryden.*

—He could compare the confuſion of a multitude to that tumult in the Icarian ſea, daſhing and *breaking* among its crowd of iſlands. *Pope.* 4. To break as a ſwelling; to open, and diſcharge matter.—Some hidden abſceſs in the meſentery, *breaking* ſome few days after, was diſcovered to be an apoſteme. *Harvey.*—Aſk one who hath ſubdued his natural rage, how he likes the change, and undoubtedly he will tell you, that it is no leſs happy than the eaſe of a *broken* impoſtume, as the painful gathering and filling of it. *Decay of Piety.*

5. To open as the morning.—

The day *breaks* not, it is my heart,
Becauſe that I and you muſt part.
Stay, or elſe my joys will die,
And periſh in their infancy. *Donne.*

—When



—They ſmother and keep down the flame of the miſchief, ſo as it may not *break out* in their time of government; what comes afterwards, they care not. *Spenſer.*—Such a deal of wonder is *broken out* within this hour, that ballad makers cannot be able to expreſs it. *Shakeſp.*—As fire *breaks out* of flint by percuſſion, ſo wiſdom and truth iſſueth out by the agitation of argument. *Howel.*—

Fully ripe, his ſwelling fate *breaks out*,
And hurries him to mighty miſchiefs on. *Dryd.*

All turn'd their ſides, and to each other ſpoke;
I ſaw their words *break out* in fire and ſmoke.
Dryden.

Like a ball of fire, the further thrown,
Still with a greater blaze ſhe ſhone,
And her bright ſoul *broke out* on ev'ry ſide. *Milt.*

—There can be no greater labour, than to be always diſſembling; there being ſo many ways by which a ſmothered truth is apt to blaze, and *break out*. *South.*—They are men of concealed fire, that doth not *break out* in the ordinary circumſtances of life. *Addiſon.*—A violent fever *broke out* in the place, which ſwept away great multitudes. *Addiſ.* 20. *To break out.* To have eruptions from the body, as puſtules or ſores. 21. *To break out.* To become diſſolute.—He *broke* not *out* into his great exceſſes, while he was reſtrained by the councils and authority of Seneca. *Dryd.* 22. *To break up.* To ceaſe; to intermit.—It is credibly affirmed, that, upon that very day when the river firſt riſeth, great plagues in Cairo uſe ſuddenly to *break up*. *Bacon's Natural Hiſt.* 23. *To break up.* To diſſolve itſelf.—Theſe, and the like conceits, when men have cleared their underſtanding, by the light of experience, will ſcatter and *break up*, like miſt. *Bacon.*—The ſpeedy depredation of air upon watery moiſture, and verſion of the ſame into air, appeareth in nothing more viſible than the ſudden diſcharge or vaniſhing of a little cloud of breath, or vapour, from glaſs, or any poliſhed body; for the miſtineſs ſcattereth, and *breaketh up* ſuddenly. *Bacon.*—But, ere he came near it, the pillar and croſs of light *brake up*, and caſt itſelf abroad, as it were, into a firmament of many ſtars. *Bacon.*—What we obtain by converſation, is oftentimes loſt again, as ſoon as the company *breaks up*, or, at leaſt, when the day vaniſhes. *Watts.* 24. *To break up.* To begin holidays; to be diſmiſſed from buſineſs.—

Our army is diſpers'd already:
Like youthful ſteers unyok'd, they took their courſe
Eaſt, weſt, north, ſouth: or, like a ſchool *broke up*,
Each hurries tow'rds his home and ſporting-place. *Shakeſpeare.*

25. *To break with.* To part friendſhip with any.—

There is a ſlave whom we have put in priſon,
Reports, the Volſcians, with two ſeveral powers,
Are entered in the Roman territories.—
—Go ſee this rumourer whipt. It cannot be,
The Volſcians dare *break with* us. *Shakeſp.*
—Can there be any thing of friendſhip in ſnares, hooks, and trapans? Whoſoever *breaks with* his friend upon ſuch terms, has enough to warrant him in ſo doing, both before God and man. *South.*

Invent ſome apt pretence,
To *break with* Bertran. *Dryden.*

[illegible] be obſerved of this extenſive and perplexed *verb*, that in all its ſignifications, whether *active* or *neutral*, it has ſome reference to its primitive meaning, by implying either detriment, ſuddenneſs, violence, or ſeparation. It is uſed often with additional particles, *up*, *out*, *in*, &c. *forth*, to modify its ſignification.

(3.) *To* BREAK A HORSE, among ſportſmen, is to make him light upon the hand in trotting, in order to make him fit for a gallop. To break a horſe for hunting, is to ſupple him, to make him take the habit of running.

(1.) * BREAKER. *n. ſ.* [from *break*.] 1. He that breaks any thing.—

Cardinal, I'll be no *breaker* of the law. *Shak.*—If the churches were not employed to be places to hear God's law, there would be need of them, to be priſons for the *breakers* of the laws of men. *South.* 2. A wave broken by rocks or ſand banks: a term of navigation.

(2.) BREAKERS, (§ 3. *def.* 2.) are diſtinguiſhed both by their appearance and ſound, as they cover that part of the ſea with a perpetual foam, and produce a hoarſe and terrible roaring, very different from what the waves uſually have in a deeper bottom. When a ſhip is unhappily driven among breakers, it is hardly poſſible to ſave her, as every billow that heaves her upwards ſerves to daſh her down with additional force when it breaks over the rocks or ſands beneath it.

* BREAKFAST. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The firſt meal in the day.—The duke was at *breakfaſt*, the laſt of his repaſts in this world. *Wotton.* 2. The thing eaten at the firſt meal.—Hope is a good *breakfaſt*, but it is a bad ſupper. *Bacon.*—A good piece of bread would be often the beſt *breakfaſt* for my young maſter. *Locke.* 3. A meal, or food in general.—

Had I been ſeized by a hungry lion,
I would have been a *breakfaſt* to the beaſt.
Shakeſpeare.

I lay me down to gaſp my lateſt breath,
The wolves will get a *breakfaſt* by my death,
Yet ſcarce enough their hunger to ſupply. *Dryd.*

* *To* BREAKFAST. *v. n.* [from *break* and *faſt*.] To eat the firſt meal in the day.—

As ſoon as Phœbus's rays inſpect us,
Firſt, Sir, I read, and then I *breakfaſt*. *Prior.*

(1.) BREAKING. See BANKRUPT.

(2.) BREAKING BULK, in ſea language, means unlading part of the cargo.

* BREAKNECK. *n. ſ.* [from *break* and *neck*.] A fall in which the neck is broken; a ſteep place endangering the neck.—

I muſt
Forſake the court; to do't or no, is certain
To me a *breakneck*. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BREAKPROMISE. *n. ſ.* [from *break* and *promiſe*.] One that makes a practice of breaking his promiſe.—I will think you the moſt atheiſtical *breakpromiſe*, and the moſt hollow lover. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) BREAKSPEAR, a village in Middleſex, near Uxbridge.

(2.) BREAKSPEAR, Nicholas. See ADRIAN IV.

* BREAKVOW. *n. ſ.* [from *break* and *vow*.] He that practiſeth the breach of vows.—

That daily *breakvow*, he that wins of all,
Of kings, of beggars, old men, young men, maids.
Shakeſpeare.

BREAK-

BREAK-WATER, *n. ſ.* The hulk of an old veſſel ſunk at the entrance of a harbour to break the force of the ſea. *Aſh.*

(1.) BREAM, a village in Glouceſterſhire, in the pariſh of Newland.

(2.) * BREAM. *n. ſ.* [*brame*, Fr. *cyprinus latus*, Lat.] The name of a fiſh.—The *bream* being at full growth, is a large fiſh; he will breed both in rivers and ponds, but loves beſt to live in ponds. He is, by *Geſner*, taken to be more elegant than wholeſome. He is long in growing, but breeds exceedingly in a water that pleaſes him, and in many ponds, ſo faſt as to overſtock them, and ſtarve the other fiſh. He is very broad, with a forked tail, and his ſcales ſet in excellent order. He hath large eyes, and a narrow ſucking mouth, two ſets of teeth, and a long bone, to help his grinders. The male is obſerved to have two large milts, and the female two large bags of eggs or ſpawn. *Walton's Angler.*—

A broad *bream*, to pleaſe ſome curious taſte,
While yet alive in boiling water caſt,
Vex'd with unwonted heat, boils, flings about.
Waller.

(1.) BREAM, in ichthyology. See CYPRINUS.

To BREAM, *v. a.* to burn of the filth, ſuch as grass, ooze, ſhells, or ſea-weed, from a ſhip's bottom, that has gathered to it in a voyage, or by lying long in a harbour. It is performed by holding kindled furze, faggots, or the like, to the bottom, ſo that the flame incorporating with the pitch, ſulphur, &c. that had formerly covered it, immediately looſens and throws off whatever filth may have adhered to the planks. After this, the bottom is covered anew with a compoſition of ſulphur, tallow, &c. which not only makes it ſmooth and ſlippery, ſo as to divide the fluid more readily, but alſo poiſons and deſtroys thoſe worms which eat through the planks in the courſe of a voyage. Breaming may be performed either when the ſhip lies a ground after the tide has ebbed from her, or by docking, or by careening.

BREAMISH, a river in Northumberland.

BREARIDGE, a village in Northumberland, near Winchester.

BREARTON, two villages; 1. in Durham, S. W. of Hartlepool: 2. in Yorkſhire, 4 miles N. of Knareſborough.

(1.) * BREAST. *n. ſ.* [*breoſt*, Saxon.] 1. The middle part of the human body, between the neck and the belly.—

No, traytreſs, angry Love replies,
She's hid ſomewhere about thy *breaſt*,
A place nor God nor man denies,
For Venus' dove the proper neſt. *Prior.*

2. The dugs or teats of women which contain the milk.—They pluck the fatherleſs from the *breaſt*. *Job*, xxiv. 9. 3. Breaſt was anciently taken for the power of ſinging.—

The better *breaſt*,
The leſſer reſt. *Tuſſer of Singing Boys.*

4. The part of a beaſt that is under the neck, between the forelegs. 5. The diſpoſition of the mind.—

I not by wants, or fears, or age oppreſt,
Stem the wild torrent with a dauntleſs *breaſt*.
Dryden.

6. The heart; the conſcience.—

Needleſs was written law, where none oppreſt;
The law of man was written in his *breaſt*.
Dryden's Ovid.

7. The ſeat of the paſſions.—

Margarita firſt poſſeſs'd,
If I remember well, my *breaſt*. *Cowley.*
Each in his *breaſt* the ſecret ſorrow kept,
And thought it ſafe to laugh, tho' Cæſar wept.
Rowe.

(2.) BREAST, in anatomy, the fore parts of the thorax. See ANATOMY, § 336.

(3.) BREASTS, MAMMÆ, in anatomy. See ANATOMY, INDEX. The breaſts are uſually two; though we alſo meet with inſtances of *trimammiæ*, or women with 3 breaſts, and even ſome with 4, all yielding milk alike. See *Barthol. Act. Med.* p. 171. *Caſt. Lex. Med.* p. 728. *Cabrol. Obſerv.* 7. *Blaſ. Com. ad Veſling.* p. 233.

(4.) BREAST, SMITING THE, is an expreſſion of penitence. In the Romiſh church, the prieſt beats his breaſt in rehearſing the general confeſſion at the beginning of the maſs.

* *To* BREAST. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To meet in front; to oppoſe breaſt to breaſt.—

The threaden ſails
Draw the huge bottoms thro' the furrow'd ſea,
Breaſting the lofty ſurge. *Shakeſ. Henry V.*
The hardy Swiſs
Breaſts the keen air, and carols, as he goes.
Goldſmith.

(1.) * BREASTBONE. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *bone*.] The bone of the breaſt; the ſternum.—The belly ſhall be eminent by ſhadowing the flank, and under the *breaſtbone*. *Peacham.*

(2.) BREASTBONE. See ANATOMY, § 144.

* BREASTCASKET. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *caſket*.] With mariners. The largeſt and longeſt caſkets, which are a ſort of ſtrings placed in the middle of the yard.

* BREASTFAST. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *faſt*. In a ſhip.] A rope faſtened to ſome part of her forward on, to hold head to a warp, or the like. *Harris.*

* BREASTHIGH. *adj.* [from *breaſt* and *high*.] Up to the breaſt.—The river itſelf gave way unto her, ſo that ſhe was ſtraight *breaſthigh*. *Sidney.*—

Lay madam Partlet baſking in the ſun,
Breaſthigh in ſand. *Dryden's Fables.*

(1.) * BREASTHOOKS. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *hook*.] With ſhipwrights.—The compaſſing timbers before, that help to ſtrengthen the ſtem, and all the forepart of the ſhip. *Harris.*

(2.) BREAST-HOOKS, in ſhip-building, are thick pieces of timber incurvated into the form of knees. They are placed at different heights directly acroſs the ſtem, ſo as to unite it with the bows on each ſide. The breaſt-hooks are ſtrongly connected to the ſtem and hawſe-pieces by tree-nails, and by bolts driven from without through the planks and hawſe-pieces, and the whole thickneſs of the breaſt-hooks, upon whoſe inſide thoſe bolts are forelocked or clinched upon rings. They are uſually about $\frac{1}{7}$ thicker, and twice as long, as the knees of the decks they ſupport.

* BREASTKNOT. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *knot*.] A knot or bunch of ribbands worn by women on the breaſt.—Our ladies have ſtill faces, and our men hearts, why may we not hope for th

atchievements from the influence of this *breaſt-knot*. *Addiſon's Freeholder*.

BREAST-PAIN, called by the Italians *grandezza di petto*, is a diſtemper in horſes proceeding from ſuperfluity of blood and other groſs humours, which being diſſolved by ſome extreme and diſorderly heat, reſort downward to the *breaſt*, and pain them extremely. The ſigns of the breaſt-pain are, a ſtiff, ſtaggering, and weak going with his fore-legs, beſides, that he can hardly, if at all, bow his head to the ground.

(1.) * BREASTPLATE. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *plate*.] Armour for the breaſt.—

What ſtronger *breaſtplate* than a heart untainted?
Thrice is he arm'd, that hath his quarrel juſt.
Shakeſpeare.

'Gainſt ſhield, helm, *breaſtplate*, and, inſtead of thoſe,
Five ſharp ſmooth ſtones from the next brook he choſe *Cowl*.

—This venerable champion will come into the field, armed only with a pocket-piſtol, before his old ruſty *breaſtplate* could be ſcoured, and his cracked headpiece mended. *Swift*.

(2.) BREAST-PLATE, in Jewiſh antiquity, a part of the ſacerdotal veſtments anciently worn by the high prieſts. It was a folded piece of the ſame rich embroidered ſtuff of which the *ephod* was made; and it was ſet with 12 precious ſtones, on each of which was engraven the name of one of the tribes. They were ſet in 4 rows, 3 in each row; and were divided from each other by the little golden ſquares or partitions in which they were ſet. See *Plate* XLVI. *fig.* 8. This breaſt-plate was faſtened at the 4 corners; thoſe on the top to each ſhoulder by a golden hook or ring at the end of a wreathed chain; and thoſe below, to the girdle of the ephod, by two ſtrings or ribbons, which had likewiſe two rings and hooks. This ornament was never to be ſevered from the prieſtly garment; and it was called the *memorial*, to put the high-prieſt in mind how dear thoſe tribes ought to be to him, whoſe names he wore on his breaſt. It is alſo called the *breaſt plate of judgment*, becauſe it had the divine oracle of *Urim and Thummim* annexed to it. See URIM AND THUMMIM.

(3.) BREAST-PLATE, in the manege, the ſtrap of leather that runs from one ſide of the ſaddle to the other, over the horſe's breaſt, in order to keep the ſaddle tight, and hinder it from ſliding backwards.

(4.) BREAST-PLATES, for armour, (§ 1.) are ſaid to have been originally made of hides, or hemp twiſted into ſmall cords, but afterwards of braſs, iron, or other metals; which were ſometimes ſo exquiſitely hardened, as to be proof againſt the greateſt force.

* BREASTPLOUGH. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *plough*.] A plough uſed for paring turf, driven by the breaſt.—The *breaſtplough* which a man ſhoves before him. *Mortimer*.

* BREASTROPES. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *rope*.] 1 a ſhip. Thoſe ropes which faſten the yards to 2 parrels, and, with the parrels, hold the yards to the maſt. *Harris*.

(1.) * BREASTWORK. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *work*.] Works thrown up as high as the breaſt of the defendants; the ſame with *parapet*.—Sir John Aſtley caſt up *breaſtworks*, and made a redoubt for the defence of his men. *Clarendon*.

(2.) BREAST-WORK OF A SHIP, a ſort of baluſtrade or fence compoſed of rails or mouldings and often decorated with ſculpture; it terminates the quarter-deck and poop at the fore-ends, and incloſes the fore-caſtle both before and behind.

(1.) * BREATH. *n. ſ.* [*brathe*, Sax.] 1. The air drawn in and ejected out of the body by living animals.—

Whither are they vanquiſh'd?
Into the air: and what ſeem'd corporal
Melted, as *breath* into the wind. *Shakeſp. Macb.*

2. Life.—

No man has more contempt than I of *breath*
But whence haſt thou the pow'r to give me death? *Dryden*.

3. The ſtate or power of breathing freely; oppoſed to the condition in which a man is breathleſs and ſpent.—

At other times, he caſts to ſue the chace
Of ſwift wild beaſts, or run on foot a race,
T' enlarge his *breath*, large breath in arms moſt needful,
Or elſe, by wreſtling, to wax ſtrong and heedful. *Spenſer*.

What is your difference? ſpeak.—
—I am ſcarce in *breath*, my lord. *Shak. K. Lear*.

Spaniard, take *breath*; ſome reſpite I'll afford
My cauſe is more advantage than your ſword. *Dryden*.

Our ſwords ſo wholly did the fates employ,
That they, at length, grew weary to deſtroy;
Refus'd the work we brought, and, out of *breath*,
Made ſorrow and deſpair attend for death. *Dryden's Aurengz*.

4. Reſpite; pauſe; relaxation.—

Give me ſome *breath*, ſome little pauſe, dear lord,
Before I poſitively ſpeak. *Shakeſp. Richard III*.

5. Breeze; moving air.—

Vent all thy paſſion, and I'll ſtand its ſhock,
Calm and unruffled as a ſummer's ſea,
When not a *breath* of wind flies o'er its ſurface.
Addiſon's Cato.

6. A ſingle act; an inſtant.—

You menace me, and court me in a *breath*,
Your Cupid looks as dreadfully as death. *Dryd.*

(2.) BREATH, THE LAST. The ancients were very watchful over the laſt breath of dying perſons, which the neareſt relations, as the mother, father, brother, or the like, received in their mouths.

* BREATHABLE. *adj.* [from *breath*.] That may be breathed; as, *breathable* air.

(1.) * *To* BREATHE. *v. a.* 1. To inſpire, or inhale into one's own body, and eject or expire out of it.—

They wiſh to live,
Their pains and poverty deſire to bear,
To view the light of heav'n, and *breathe* the vital air. *Dryden*.

—They here began to *breathe* a moſt delicious kind of æther, and ſaw all the fields about them covered with a kind of purple light. *Tatler*.

2. To inject by breathing: with *into*.—He *breathed into* us the breath of life, a vital active ſpirit; whoſe

whose motions, he expects, should owne the dignity of its original. *Dryd. Pref.*—

I would be young, be handsome, be belov'd,
Could I but breathe myself into Achates. *Dryd.*

3. To expire; to eject by breathing: with *out*.—She is called, by ancient authors, the tenth muse; and, by Plutarch, is compared to Cacus, the son of Vulcan, who breathes out nothing but flame. *Spectator.* 4. To exercise: to keep in breath.—

Thy greyhounds are as swift as breathed stags. *Shakespeare.*

5. To inspire; to move or actuate by breath.—

The artful youth proceed to form the quire;
They breathe the flute, or strike the vocal wire. *Prior.*

6. To exhale; to send out as breath.—

His altar breathes
Ambrosial odours, and ambrosial flow'rs. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

7. To utter privately.—

I have tow'rd heav'n breath'd a secret vow,
To live in pray'r and contemplation. *Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice.*

8. To give air or vent to.—

The ready cure to cool the raging pain,
Is underneath the foot to breathe a vein. *Dryden's Virgil.*

(2.) * *To* BREATHE. *v. n.* [from *breath*.] 1. To draw in and throw out the air by the lungs; to inspire and expire.—

He safe return'd, the grace of glory past,
New to his friends embrace, had breath'd his last. *Pope.*

2. To live.—

Let him breathe, between the heav'ns and earth,
A private man in Athens. *Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*

3. To take breath; to rest.—He presently follow'd the victory so hot upon the Scots, that he suffered them not to *breathe*, or gather themselves together again. *Spenser's State of Ireland.*—

Three times they breath'd, and three times did they drink,
Upon agreement. *Shakespeare's Henry IV.*
Rest, that gives all men life, gave him his death,
And too much breathing put him out of breath. *Milton.*

When France had breath'd, after intestine broils,
And peace and conquest crown'd her foreign toils. *Roscommon.*

4. To pass as air.—

Shall I not then be stifled in the vault,
To whose foul mouth no healthsome air breathes in,
And there be strangl'd ere my Romeo comes? *Shakespeare.*

* BREATHER. *n. f.* [from *breathe*.] 1. One that breathes, or lives.—

She shows a body rather than a life,
A statue than a breather. *Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*

—I will chide no *breather* in the world but myself. *Shakespeare.* 2. One that utters any thing.—

No particular scandal once can touch,
But it confounds the breather. *Sh. Meas. for Meas.*

3. Inspirer; one that animates or infuses by inspiration.—

The breather of all life does now expire:
His milder father summons him away. *Norris.*

(3.) * BREATHING. *n. s.* [from *breathe*.] 1. Aspiration; secret prayer.—

While to high heav'n his pious breathings turn'd,
Weeping he hop'd, and sacrificing mourn'd. *Prior.*

2. Breathing place; vent.—

The warmth distends the chinks, and makes
New breathings, whence new nourishment the takes. *Dryden.*

(2.) BREATHING, DIFFICULTY OF. See DYSPNOEA.

* BREATHLESS. *adj.* [from *breath*.] 1. Out of breath; spent with labour.—

Well knew
The prince, with patience and sufferance fly,
So hasty heat soon cooled to subdue;
Tho' when he breathless was, that battle 'gan renew. *Fairy Queen.*

I remember, when the fight was done,
When I was dry with rage, and extreme toil,
Breathless, and faint, leaning upon my sword,
Came there a certain lord. *Shakesp. Henry IV.*

—Many so strained themselves in their race, that they fell down *breathless* and dead. *Heywood.*—

Breathless, and tir'd, is all my fury spent?
Or does my glutted spleen at length relent? *Dryden's Æneid.*

2. Dead —

Kneeling before this ruin of sweet life,
And breathing to this breathless excellence,
The incense of a vow, a holy vow. *Shak. K. John.*

Yielding to the sentence, breathless thou
And pale shalt lie, as what thou buriest now. *Prior.*

BREBAG, or BREBAGTARSKIN, } a hill of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire.

BREBEUF, George DE, a French poet born at Torigna, in 1618. He was chiefly distinguished by a translation of Lucan, which though abounding in bombast and false brilliances, was long admired; and procured great promises of advancement to the author, from Cardinal Mazarine, who died, however, without fulfilling them. But the best of his works, is the 1st *book of Lucan Travestied*, which is an ingenious satire upon the Great, whom he describes as never losing sight for a moment of their rank and dignity, and upon the meanness and servility of those who submit to flatter them as gods. He is said to have had a fever that lasted above 20 years. He died in 1661, aged 43.

BREBINCE, or BOURBINCE, a river of France, which issues from the lake Longpendu, in the ci-devant province of Burgundy.

BRECCA, *n. s.* in old records, a breach.

(1.) BRECHIN, a parish of Scotland, in Forfarshire, extending about 7¼ m. from E. to W. in length, and nearly as much in breadth from N. to S. It rises gradually on each side of the S. Esk, which sometimes overflows the low ground; and the S. side of that river, W. from the bridge, is ornamented with a large plantation of trees. The ground on both sides is rocky, and abounds in free-stone. The climate is dry and in general healthy. The population is doubled within these 100 years. By the rev. Mr Bruce's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it was about 5000 in 1791; which

was

was 1819 above that of 1755. A conſiderable quantity of oats and barley is exported, and meal is ſometimes imported by Meſſrs Gillies and Co. whoſe ſpirited exertions have been of great benefit to the town, (See N. 2.) and pariſh.

(2.) BRECHIN, a town in the above pariſh (N. 1.) ſeated on the declivity of a hill; whence the name is probably derived, *brae* in the Scots dialect ſignifying a declivity; though others derive it from the Gaelic word *braechin*, fern. It conſiſts of one large handſome ſtreet and two ſmaller. At the foot of the town is a long row of houſes independent of it, built on ground held in feu from the Northeſk family. Brechin was a rich biſhopric founded by David I. about A. D. 1150. At the Reformation, its revenues, in money and in kind, amounted to 700 l. a-year; but were reduced to 130l. chiefly by the alienation of lands and tythes by Alexander Campbell, the firſt Proteſtant biſhop, to his chieftain the earl of Argyle. The Culdees had a convent here. Their abbot Leod was witneſs to the grant made by king David to his new abbey of Dunfermline. In after times, they gave way to the Mathurines or Red Friars. Here was likewiſe an hoſpital called *Maiſon de Dieu*, founded in 1258, by William de Brechin, for the repoſe of the ſouls of the kings William and Alexander; of John earl of Cheſter, and his brother Huntingdon; of Henry his father, and Juliana his mother. Adamus, biſhop of Brechin, in the reign of Alexander II. was witneſs to the grant. By the walls which are yet ſtanding, behind the W. end of the chief ſtreet, it appears to have been an elegant little building. The cathedral is a Gothic pile, ſupported by 22 pillars; is in length 166 feet, in breadth 61: part is ruinous, and part ſerves as the pariſh church. The W. end of one of the aiſles is entire: its door is Gothic, and the arch conſiſts of many mouldings; the window of it is neat tracery. The ſteeple is a handſome tower, 220 feet high; the 4 lower windows in form of long narrow openings; the belfry windows adorned with that ſpecies of opening called the *quatrefoil*; the top battlemented, out of which riſes a handſome ſpier. At a ſmall diſtance from the aiſle ſtands one of thoſe ſingular round towers whoſe uſe has ſo long baffled the conjectures of antiquaries. Theſe towers appear to have been peculiar to North Britain and Ireland: in the latter they are common: in the former very few now exiſt. That at Brechin ſtood originally detached from other buildings. It is at preſent joined near the bottom by a low additional aiſle to the church, which takes in about a fixth of its circumference. From this aiſle there is an entrance into it of modern date, approachable by a few ſteps, for the uſe of the ringers; two handſome bells are placed in it, which are got at by means of ſix ladders placed on wooden ſemicircular floors, each reſting on the circular abutments withinſide of the tower. The height from the ground to the roof is 80 feet; the inner diameter, within a few feet of the bottom, is 8 feet; the thickneſs of the wall at that part, 7 feet 2 inches; ſo that the whole diameter is 15 feet 2 inches; the circumference very near 48 feet; the inner diameter at top is 8 feet 7 inches; the thickneſs of the walls 4 feet 6 inches; the circumference, 38 feet 8 inches: which proportion gives the building an inexpreſſible elegance: the top is roofed with an octagonal ſpire 23 feet high, which makes the whole 103. In this ſpire are 4 windows placed alternate on the ſides, reſting on the top of the tower; near the top of the tower are four others facing the 4 cardinal points: near the bottom are two arches one within another, in relief; on the top of the utmoſt is a crucifixion: between the mouldings of the utmoſt and inner are 2 figures one of the virgin Mary; the other of St John, the cup, and lamb. On each corner of the bottom of this arch is a figure of certain beaſts; one poſſibly the Caledonian bear; and the other with a long ſnout, the boar. The ſtone work within the inner arch has a ſmall ſlit or peep hole, but without the appearance of there having been a door within any modern period: yet there might have been one originally; for the filling up conſiſts of larger ſtones than the reſt of this curious rotund. The whole is built with the moſt elegant maſonry, which Mr Gough obſerved to be compoſed of 60 courſes.—This tower hath often been obſerved to vibrate with a high wind. The caſtle of Brechin was built on an eminence, a little S. of the town; it underwent a long ſiege in 1303; was gallantly defended againſt the Engliſh under Edward III.; and, notwithſtanding all the efforts of that potent prince, the brave governor Sir Thomas Maule, anceſtor of the preſent Mr Maule of Panmure, held out this ſmall fortreſs for 20 days, till he was ſlain by a ſtone caſt from an engine on the 20th of Auguſt, when the place was inſtantly ſurrendered. The family of Panmure have now a noble houſe on the ſide of the old caſtle.—Brechin is alſo remarkable for a battle fought near it, in conſequence of the rebellion raiſed in 1452, on account of the murder of the earl of Douglas in Stirling caſtle. The victory fell to the royaliſts under the earl of Huntly. The malecontents were headed by the earl of Crawford, who, retiring to his caſtle of Finhaven, in the frenzy of diſgrace declared, that he would willingly paſs 7 years in hell, to obtain the glory that fell to the ſhare of his antagoniſt. Brechin is a royal borough, and with 4 others ſends a member to parliament. It lies about 8 miles from the harbour of Montroſe; and the tide flows within two miles of the town; to which a canal might be made, which would be of great ſervice in conveying down the corn of the country for exportation. Moſt of the merchants deal in linen and yarn, of which great quantities are ſold every market day. This trade gives employment to great numbers of women, who all ſpin with two-handed wheels. Brechin has alſo a bleachfield, and a conſiderable tannery; beſides ſtrong ale and porter breweries, which furniſh excellent liquor. It is 64 m. N. E. from Edinburgh. Lon. 2. 18. E. Lat. 56. 40. N.

BRECHINIA, the ancient name of BRECKNOCK-SHIRE.

BRECKE, *n. ſ.* a breach; a gap. *Chaucer.*

BRECKENHAUGH, a place in Ayr-ſhire, in the pariſh of Dunlop, "one of the fineſt natural objects, (ſays Mr Briſbane the miniſter) to be met with;—for, walking upon level ground, which ſeems to be of conſiderable extent in all directions, we come, without expecting it, to the top of the hill,

hill, where we are ſtruck with the greatneſs of the height and the grandeur of the valley below. In this ſituation we feel every thing which the magnificent can inſpire; not without a wiſh to retire from it with all convenient ſpeed." *Stat. Acc.*

BRECKNOCK, or BRECON, a large town of S. Wales, and capital of Brecknockſhire. It is called by the Welch *Aber-Hondey*, and is ſeated at the confluence of the Hondey and the Uſk, over which there is a handſome ſtone bridge. It is an ancient place, containing 3 churches, one of which is collegiate, and is ſeated at the W. end of the town. The houſes are well built. It had formerly a ſtately caſtle, and a ſtrong wall, through which there were 3 gates, that are all demoliſhed. It ſends one member to parliament. It is well inhabited, and has a conſiderable woollen manufactory. The markets are well ſupplied with cattle, corn, and proviſions. It is 34 m. N. W. by W. of Monmouth, and 162 W. by N. of London. Lon. 3. 22. W. Lat 51. 54. N.

BRECKNOCK MEER, a large lake 2 m. E. of Brecknock, called by the Welch *Llyn Savaddan*. It is 2 miles in length, and nearly the ſame in breadth. It contains plenty of otters, tench, perch, and eels.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE, a county of Wales, bounded by Radnorſhire, on the N.; Cardiganſhire and Caermarthenſhire, on the W.; Herefordſhire and Monmouthſhire on the E.; and by Glamorganſhire and Monmouthſhire, on the S. It is 39 miles long, 27 broad, and about 100 in circumference; containing 600,000 acres, and 31000 inhabitants. It is ſurrounded with hills, which renders the air in the valleys pretty temperate. The ſoil on the hills is very ſtony, but the ſtreams deſcending from thence into the valleys render them fruitful both in corn and graſs. The chief commodities are corn, cattle, fiſh, and otter's fur; there are alſo manufactures of cloth and ſtockings. The principle rivers are the Uſk, the Wye, and the Yrvon. The chief towns are Brecknock, Bealt, and Hay. This county ſends a member to parliament. It is in the dioceſe of Landaff; contains 61 pariſhes, and 4 market towns; and is divided into ſix hundreds.

BRECON. See BRECKNOCK.

* BRED. *particip. paſſ.* [from *To breed.*] Their malice was *bred* in them, and their cogitation could never be changed. *Wiſdom*, xii. 10.

1. BREDA, a city of Holland, the capital of Dutch Brabant. It is a large, populous, well built city, regularly fortified in the modern way, and is one of the ſtrongeſt places on the Dutch frontiers. It is ſeated on the river Merck, in a marſhy country, which may be overflowed and rendered inacceſſible to an army. It is 4000 paces in circumference, and contains upwards of 2000 houſes. The town is of a triangular figure, and the ramparts are all planted round with elms.—At every angle there is a gate built with brick. The great church is a noble ſtructure, and has a fine ſpire 362 feet high. The mauſoleum of Engelbert II. count of Naſſau, is a curious piece adorned with ſeveral ſtatues and inſcriptions. In 1577, the garriſon delivered this city to the States General; but it was retaken in 1581 by Cloude de Barlaimont, aſſiſted by the baron de Freſin, who was priſoner in it. In 1590, prince Maurice took it again from the Spaniards. In 1625 it was inveſted by the Marquis of Spinola; when it endured a ſiege, ſo extraordinary, that it is worthy of a particular detail. The citadel was ſurrounded by a ditch of prodigious depth filled with water, and a ſtrong wall defended by 3 great baſtions. The arſenal was extenſive and contained vaſt quantities of arms and military ſtores. Spinola, acquainted with its ſtrength, reſolved to reduce it by famine, as attended with leaſt danger to his army; and accordingly began with drawing trenches round, for the ſpace of 4 miles, and erecting forts and redoubts at certain diſtances.—On the other hand, the garriſon, conſiſting of 7000 infantry, and ſeveral troops of horſe, compoſed of Engliſh, French, and Dutch ſoldiers, took the moſt vigorous meaſures for their defence. The Engliſh were under the command of Col. Morgan; who had diſtinguiſhed his valour in the ſervice of the ſtates: the French were directed by Col. de Hauterive; and the troops were under Col. Lohre; though the whole received their inſtructions from Juſtin de Naſſau, the governor. The firſt advantage was gained by Baglioni, who ſeized a large convoy of proviſions and ſtores coming up the river. This loſs reduced the beſieged to a ſtated allowance of bread; and was followed by the death of Prince Maurice, from whom they were in hopes of relief. Meanwhile Spinola proſecuted the ſiege with the utmoſt vigour. On his puſhing his trenches near the baſtions, the beſieged began a terrible fire, and kept it up with ſuch vehemence, that Spinola hoped they muſt ſoon ſurrender for want of ammunition. But here he formed a falſe judgment. Juſtin, finding he could not accompliſh his purpoſe by firing, reſolved to try the effect of water. With this view, he ſtopped up the courſe of the river Merck; and having formed a large baſon of water, opened the ſluices, overflowed the whole country, and ſwept away men, horſes, and houſes, in one torrent. Its chief force fell upon Spinola's quarters, and he exerted his utmoſt ability to counteract its effects. He dug large pits, and cut out ditches to receive the water; but theſe being filled, and the whole ground covered over, ſo as to appear one uniform maſs of water, ſerved only to entrap his cavalry. The inundation was augmented by the rains; a mortality among his ſoldiers and horſes enſued; and of his whole army, he had ſcarce 12,000 men fit for ſervice by December. With this ſmall body lines of vaſt extent were to be defended, the works to be advanced, the ſallies from the garriſon repulſed, and proviſions to be conveyed into the camp, while Spinola himſelf was confined to a ſick bed. In the garriſon an epidemical diſeaſe and ſcarcity likewiſe prevailed; but the excellent regulations made, and ſtrictly obſerved, enabled the town to hold out 5 or 4 months beyond the time expected. The magiſtrates bought the corn for the bakers; obliging them to ſell the bread to the inhabitants and garriſon at a price affixed. Various other prudent regulations were eſtabliſhed, ſcarce equalled in hiſtory, all evincing the ſteadineſs, ſagacity, courage, and ability, of Juſtin de Naſſau. A kind of rivalſhip appeared between him and Spinola, who

who ſhould beſt fulfil his duty. The Spaniſh general cauſed himſelf to be carried about the works in a litter; he inſpected and directed every thing; and diſplayed the activity of full health, when his life was in imminent danger. He ordered ſeveral breaches in the lines to be repaired, which the Hollanders had made by ſap, to introduce ſuccours to the beſieged. He drove piles into all the ditches and canals through which their boats could paſs. He made drains to clear off the waters of the river Merck; and ſucceeded in a great meaſure by dint of perſeverance. He was now reinforced with a body of 8000 foot, and 1500 horſe; many of the ſick were perfectly recovered by his care; and his army was again become formidable, amounting to twenty five thouſand infantry, and eight thouſand cavalry. Nor was prince Henry idle, who had now ſucceeded his brother Maurice, and was elected governor of the States. He was joined by a body of French cavalry under the count de Rouſſi and the marquis de Rambures. With this reinforcement, and a body of German infantry, he attacked the enemy's line, but after an obſtinate conflict was repulſed. He advanced a 2d time, but Spinola ſeized upon a convenient poſt, and obliged the prince again to retire to Bois-le-duc. Henry finding he could not relieve the garriſon, ſent permiſſion to the governor to ſurrender on the beſt conditions he could obtain. This was ſigned with no name. It fell into the hands of the beſiegers, and Spinola ſent it open, by a trumpet, to Juſtin de Naſſau, offering him an honourable capitulation; but that intrepid governor ſuſpecting the letter was forged, replied civilly, that *a permiſſion* was not *an order*; that he ſhould better follow the prince of Orange's intention, and ſhow his reſpect for Spinola, by continuing to defend the city to the laſt extremity. By this time the garriſon was diminiſhed by diſeaſe, fatigue, want, and hardſhip, to half the original number; but Juſtin put on ſuch a countenance, as concealed his ſituation from Spinola. He frequently ſallied out upon Baglioni's quarters, where the Italians were periſhing with cold and hunger, the whole ſubſiſtence of the beſiegers depending on the contributions raiſed in the neighbouring territories. This produced a mutiny in the camp, that could not be appeaſed without executing the chief ringleaders in ſight of the whole army. One of the mutineers blew up Spinola's chief magazine, valued at 200.000 livres. Urged more by neceſſity than compaſſion, Spinola ſent a meſſage to the governor, exhorting him not to force him to extremities, which might be attended with fatal conſequences to a brave garriſon; but Juſtin with equal art, anſwered, that Spinola was certainly ill ſerved by his ſpies, as he appeared wholly unacquainted with the ſtate of affairs in Breda, which was fully provided for a ſiege of ſeveral months, and defended by ſoldiers who prefer death to ſurrendering. At that time the beſieged were not informed of the death of the prince of Orange. They flattered themſelves with the hopes of ſpeedy ſuccour, and were entirely ignorant of prince Henry's late diſappointment. When they wrote to the army an account of their miſerable condition, Henry returned an anſwer, written and ſigned with his own hand, appriſing them of the death of Maurice, the unſucceſsful attempts made to raiſe the ſiege and throw in ſuccours, the great inferiority of his troops in point of numbers, and the death of king James, whereby he was diſappointed of a ſtrong reinforcement; concluding, that he left the city entirely to the diſcretion of the governor and other principal officers. Juſtin was thunderſtruck with this letter. He had hitherto concealed the total want of proviſion and ammunition from all but a few officers, in whom he could confide. Hauterive and Morgan would liſten to no propoſitions, ſaying that the honour of their ſeveral countries were concerned. They therefore required an expreſs order from the prince of Orange to ſurrender, notwithſtanding they pined under the united preſſure of fatigue, ſcarcity, and diſeaſe. Juſtin acquainted the prince with their reſolution, and he ſent back an order to ſurrender, threatening with capital puniſhment all who ſhould diſobey; but he requeſted that the garriſon would firſt acquaint him, by a certain number of fires, lighted up in different parts of the city, how many days they ſhould be able to hold out. Upon receipt of this order, eleven fires were kindled; but as the prince had ſent a duplicate of his order by another meſſenger, and this fell into the hands of the enemy, Spinola was now acquainted with the deſperate circumſtances of the beſieged, as well as with the myſtery of the 11 fires. He called a council of war to deliberate whether they ſhould ſtay the 11 days, and then oblige the garriſon to ſurrender at diſcretion, or immediately offer conditions worthy of ſo brave a garriſon. The Spaniſh officers were of the former opinion; the count de Berg and Spinola ſupported the latter. At laſt the marquis, determined to purſue the dictates of his own generoſity, ſent ſuch terms as could not be refuſed. The count de Berg conducted the negociation. Two ſeparate capitulations were drawn up, one for the garriſon and the other for the city, and both the moſt honourable and advantageous that could be deviſed. They were accepted, and the garriſon marched out on the 6th of June, after having ſuſtained a ſiege for ten months, whereby they were diminiſhed two thirds; nor was the loſs inferior on the part of the inhabitants. Spinola drew up his army to ſalute them, and, ſurrounded by his field officers, paid particular compliments to the governor, the colonels Morgan, Hauterive, and Lohre. He diſtributed money among the ſoldiers, ordered the ſick and wounded to be treated with the utmoſt tenderneſs, conveyed the reſt to Gertruydenburgh, and diſplayed all the ſentiments of a true hero, in the regard he paid to the valour and merit of his enemies. Breda was retaken by the prince of Orange, in 1637. In 1667, a congreſs was held in it, and peace concluded between the Dutch and Engliſh. In Feb. 1793, it was ſurrendered to the French republican army, by count Byland, after a ſiege of only 3 days. It was retaken ſoon after. It lies 22 m. W. by S. of Bois-le-duc; 22 N. E. of Bergen-op-zoom; 25 N. N. E. of Antwerp; and 60 S. of Amſterdam. Lon. 4. 50. E. Lat. 51. 35. N.

(2.) BREDA, Alexander VAN, an eminent painter, of Antwerp, much eſteemed for his landſcapes, fairs views of particular ſcenes in Italy, and varieties of animals and figures.

(3.) BREDA,

(3.) BREDA, John VAN, the ſon of Alexander, (N° 1,) was born at Antwerp, in 1683. Having the advantage of the good example and directions o his father, he continued with him till he was 18 years of age. Among the various capital paintings, then in the poſſeſſion of John De Wit, at Antwerp, Breda fixed upon thoſe of Velvet Breugel, which he copied with extraordinary ſucceſs; and he was alſo employed for 9 years in copying the pictures of ſeveral other great maſters; which he performed with ſuch incredible exactneſs as ſcarcely to leave it in the power of any perſon to di tinguiſh the originals from the copies. After this he went to London with Ryſbrack the ſculptor, where he roſe into ſuch eſteem, that he was employed by the court and the nobility; and could ſcarce execute the demand for his performances. After reſiding ſome years in England, he returned to Antwerp loaded with riches, the honourable teſtimonies of Engliſh liberality, as well as of his own merit. In 1746, Louis XV. arriving in that city, purchaſed 4 of his pictures, viz. two ſcriptural pieces, and two landſcapes, exquiſitely imitated from Breugel, and his converſations, hiſtorical figures, fairs, ſkirmiſhes, and battles, in the manner of Wouvermans He had as much fire in his compoſition, and perhaps more genius than Breugel; his figures are generally well placed, his ground ſkilfully broken; every ſmall figure hath its particular character, and occupies its proper place. In ſhort, he is a painter of ſuch a rank, that the value of his works muſt always increaſe. He died in 1750.

(4.) BREDA PARVA, a village in Dorſetſhire, N. of Abbotſbury.

BREDAGH. a village of Ireland, in Down.

BREDBURY, in Cheſter, E of Stockport.

(1.) * BREDE. *n. ſ.* See BRAID —In a curious *brede* of needlework, one colour falls away by ſuch juſt degrees, and another riſes ſo inſenſibly, that we ſee the variety without being able to diſtinguiſh the total vaniſhing of the one, from the firſt appearance of the other. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BREDE. *n. ſ. obſ.* bread; breadth. *Chaucer.*

To BREDE. *v. n. obſ.* to make broad.

BREDELEY, a village in Staffordſhire.

BREDERALE HEAD, and BREDERALE FOOT, } Two villages in Weſtmoreland, near Orton.

BREDEWITE, in ancient law writers, an amercement ariſing from ſome default in the aſſize of bread.

BREDGAR, a town near Sittingburn, Kent.

BREDICOT, a village near Worceſter.

BREDLESFORD, in iſle of Wight Hampſh.

(1.) BREDON, at the foot of the hills, (N° 2.)

(2.) BREDON HILLS, in Worceſterſhire.

BREDWARDEN, a village in Herefordſhire, 2 miles W. of Mocks.

To BREE, *v. a. obſ* to frighten. *Chaucer.*

* BREECH. *n. ſ.* [ſuppoſed from *bræcan*, Sax.] 1. The lower part of the body; the back part.—When the king's pardon was offered by a herald, a lewd boy turned towards him his naked *breech*, and uſed words ſuitable to that geſture. *Hayward.*

—The ſtorks devour ſnakes and other ſerpents; which when they begin to creep out at their *breeches*, they will preſently clap them cloſe to a wall, to keep them in. *Grew's Muſeum.* 2. Breeches.—

Ah! that thy father had been ſo reſolv'd?—
—That thou might ſtill have worn the petticoat,
And ne'er had ſtol'n the *breech* from Lancaſter.
Shakeſpeare.

3. The hinder part of a piece of ordnance.—

So cannons, when they mount vaſt pitches,
Are tumbl'd back upon their *breeches*. *Anonym.*

* *To* BREECH. *v. a.* [from the noun] 1. To put into breeches 2. To fit any thing with a breech; as, to *breech* a gun.

(1.) * BREECHES. *n. ſ.* [*bræc*, Sax. from *braccæ*, an old Gauliſh word; ſo that *Skinner* imagines the name of the part covered with *breeches*, to be derived from that of the garment. In this ſenſe it has no *ſingular*.] 1. The garment worn by men over the lower part of the body.—Petruchio is coming in a new hat and an old jerkin, and a pair of old *breeches*, thrice turned *Shakeſp. Tam. of the Shrew.*

Rough ſatires fly remarks, ill-natur'd ſpeeches,
Are always aim'd at poets that wear *breeches*.
Prior.

Give him a ſingle coat to make, he'd do't;
A veſt or *breeches*, ſingly; but the brute,
Cou'd ne'er contrive all three to make a ſuit.
King.

2. To wear the *breeches*, is, to uſurp the authority of the huſband —The wife of Xanthus was domineering, as if her fortune and her extraction, had entitled her to the *breeches* *L'Eſtrange.*

(2.) "BREECHES" (ſays Mr Chambers,) "appear to be a habit peculiar to the barbarous nations; eſpecially thoſe who inhabit the colder countries of the North, whence Tacitus calls them *barbarum tegmen*." He ſhould, however, have excepted the Scots Highlanders. The ancient Romans, indeed, had nothing in their dreſs anſwering to our modern breeches and ſtockings. Inſtead of them, under their lower tunics and waiſtcoats they ſometimes bound their thighs and legs round with ſilken ſcarves or faſciæ, called *tibialia* and *femoralia*. We find mention made of breeches among the ancient Getæ, Sarmatæ, Gauls, Germans, and Britons; they alſo obtained among the Medes and Perſians, being of Scythian origin They afterwards got footing in Italy, ſome pretend as early as the time of Auguſtus; but that emperor's breeches, mentioned by Suetonius, were only ſwaths tied over his thighs. Breeches, however, were at laſt received into Italy, and grew ſo highly in faſhion, that it was thought neceſſary, under Honorius and Arcadius, to reſtrain them by law, and expel the *bracarii* or breeches-makers out of the city; it being thought unworthy of a nation that commanded the world to wear the apparel of barbarians.

BREECHINGS, in the ſea language, the ropes with which the great guns are laſhed to the ſhip's ſide; ſo called, becauſe made to paſs round the breech of the gun.

(1.) * BREED *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A caſt; a kind; a ſubdiviſion of ſpecies.—

I bring you witneſſes,
Twice fifteen thouſand hearts of England's *breed*.
Shakeſpeare.

—The horſes were young and handſome, and of the beſt *breed* in the north. *Shakeſ. Henry* VIII. —Walled towns, ſtored arſenals, and ordnance; all this is but a ſheep in a lion's ſkin, except the *breed* and diſpoſition of the people be ſtout and warlike. *Bacon's Eſſays.*—

Infectious ſtreams of crowding ſins began,
And through the ſpurious *breed* and guilty nation ran. *Roſcommon.*

Rode fair Aſcanius on a fiery ſteed,
Queen Dido's gift, and of the Tyrian *breed.* *Dryden.*

2. A family generation; in contempt.—A couſin of his laſt wife's was propoſed; but John would have no more of the *breed.* *Arbuthnot's Hiſtory of J. Bull.* 3. Progeny; offſpring.—

If thou wilt lend this money, lend it not
As to thy friend; for when did friendſhip take
A *breed* of barren metal of his friend?
Shakeſp. Merchant of Venice.

4. A number produced at once; a hatch.—She lays them in the ſand, where they lie till they are hatched; ſometimes above an hundred at a *breed.* *Grew.*

(2.) BREED, in geography, a village in Suſſex, NW. of Winchelſea.

(1.) * *To* BREED. *v. a.* preter. I *bred*, I have *bred.* [*brædan*, Sax.] 1. To procreate; to generate; to produce more of the ſpecies.—

None fiercer in Numidia *bred*,
With Carthage were in triumph led. *Roſcommon.*

2. To produce from one's ſelf.—Children would *breed* their teeth with leſs danger. *Locke.* 3. To occaſion; to cauſe: to produce.—

Thereat he roared for exceeding pain,
That, to have heard, great horrour would have *bred.* *Fairy Queen.*

—Our own hearts we know, but we are not certain what hope the rites and orders of our church have *bred* in the heart of others. *Hooker.*—What hurt ill company, and overmuch liberty, *breedeth* in youth! *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter.*—Intemperance and luſt *breed* infirmities and diſeaſes, which, being propagated, ſpoil the ſtrain of a nation. *Tillotſon.* 4. To conceive; to hatch; to plot.—My ſon Edgar! had he a hand to write this! a heart and brain to *breed* it in! *Shakeſ. King Lear.* 5. To give birth to; to be the native place: ſo, there are *breeding* ponds, and feeding ponds.—Mr Hardiman and the worthieſt Divine Chriſtendom hath *bred* for the ſpace of ſome hundreds of years were brought up together in the ſame univerſity. *Hooker.*—

Hail foreign wonder!
Whom, certain theſe rough ſhades did never *breed.* *Milton.*

6. To educate; to form by education.—

Whoe'er thou art, whoſe forward ears are bent
On ſtate affairs to guide the government;
Hear firſt what Socrates of old has ſaid,
To the lov'd youth, whom he at Athens *bred.* *Dryden.*

To *breed* up the ſon to common ſenſe,
Is evermore the parent's leaſt expence.
Dryden's Juvenal.

And left their pillagers, to rapine *bred*,
Without controul, to ſtrip and ſpoil the dead.
Dryden.

—His farm may not remove his children too far from him, or the trade he *breeds* them up in. *Locke.* 7. To bring up; to take care of from infancy.—

Ah, wretched me! by fates averſe decreed
To bring thee forth with pain, with care to *breed.* *Dryden.*

8. To conduct through the firſt ſtages of life.—

Bred up in grief, can pleaſure be our theme?
Our endleſs anguiſh, does not nature claim?
Reaſon and ſorrow are to us the ſame. *Prior.*

(2.) * *To* BREED. *v. n.* 1. To bring young.—Lucina, it ſeems, was *breeding*, as ſhe did nothing but entertain the company with a diſcourſe upon the difficulty of reckoning to a day. *Spectator.*

2. To be increaſed by new production.—

But could youth laſt, and love ſtill *breed*,
Had joys no date, and age no need;
Then theſe delights my mind might move
To live with thee, and be thy love. *Raleigh.*

3. To be produced; to have birth.—

Where they moſt *breed* and haunt; I have obſerv'd,
The air is delicate. *Shakeſ. Macbeth.*

—There is a worm that *breedeth* in old ſnow, and dieth ſoon after it cometh out of the ſnow. *Bacon's Natural Hiſtory.*—The caterpillar is one of the moſt general of worms, and *breedeth* of dew and leaves. *Bacon.*—It hath been the general tradition and belief, that maggots and flies *breed* in putrefied carcaſes. *Bentley.* 4. To raiſe a breed.—In the choice of ſwine, chooſe ſuch to *breed* of as are of long large bodies. *Mortimer.*

* BREEDBATE. *n. ſ.* [from *breed* and *bate.*] One that breeds quarrels; an incendiary.—An honeſt, willing, kind fellow, as ever ſervant ſhall come in houſe withal: and, I warrant you, no teltale, nor no *breedbate.* *Shakeſp. Merry Wives of Windſor.*

* BREEDER. *n. ſ.* [from *breed.*] 1. That which produces any thing.—Time is the nurſe and *breeder* of all good. *Shakeſpeare.* 2. The perſon which brings up another.—Time was, when Italy and Rome have been the beſt *breeders* and bringers up of the worthieſt men. *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter.* 3. A female that is prolifick.—Get thee to a nunnery; why ſhould thou be a *breeder* of ſinners? *Shakeſ. Hamlet.*—

Here is the babe, as loathſome as a toad,
Amongſt the faireſt *breeders* of our time.
Shakeſp. Tit. Andr.

—Let there be 100 perſons in London, and as many in the country, we ſay, that if theirbe 60 of them *breeders* in London, there are more than 50 in the country. *Graunt.*—

Yet if a friend a night or two ſhould need her,
He'd recommend her as a ſpecial *breeder.* *Pope.*

4. One that takes care to raiſe a breed.—The *breeders* of Engliſh cattle turned much to dairy, or elſe kept their cattle to 6 or 7 years old. *Temple.*

(1.) * BREEDING. *n. ſ.* [from *breed.*] 1. Education; inſtruction; qualifications.—

She had her *breeding* at my father's charge,
A poor phyſician's daughter. *Shakeſ.*

—I am a gentleman of blood and *breeding.* *Shakeſp. King Lear.*—I hope to ſee it a piece of none of the meaneſt *breeding*, to be acquainted with the laws of nature. *Glanville's Sceptis, Pref.*

2. Man-

2. Manners; knowledge of ceremony.—

As men of *breeding*, ſometimes men of wit,
T' avoid great errours, muſt the leſs commit.
Pope.

The Graces from the court did next provide
Breeding, and wit, and air, and decent pride.
Swift.

3. Nurture; care to bring up from the infant ſtate.—

Why was my *breeding* order'd and preſcrib'd,
As of a perſon ſeparate to God,
Deſign'd for great exploits? *Milton's Agoniſtes.*

(2.) BREEDING, in a moral ſenſe, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) denotes a perſon's behaviour in the external offices of ſocial life. In this ſenſe we ſay *well-bred, ill-bred, a man of breeding*, &c. Good breeding is hard to define; none can underſtand the theory but thoſe who have the practice. Good breeding amounts to much the ſame with what is otherwiſe called POLITENESS, among the ancient Romans URBANITY. Good breeding is near to virtue, and will often lead a man a great part of the way towards it; although it muſt be owned, there are too many inſtances of its failing to produce this happy effect. Lord Cheſterfield, with all his good breeding, was a very bad moraliſt. Good breeding teaches a man to rejoice in acts of civility, to ſeek out objects of compaſſion, and to be pleaſed with every occaſion of doing them good offices. Lord Shaftelbury compares the well-bred man with the real philoſopher: both characters aim at what is excellent, aſpire to a juſt taſte, and keep in view the model of what is beautiful and becoming. The conduct and manners of the one are formed according to the moſt perfect eaſe, and good entertainment of company; of the other, according to the ſtricteſt intereſt of mankind; the one according to his rank and quality in his private ſtation; the other according to his rank and dignity of ſtation. See MANNERS. Horace ſeems to have united both characters:

Quid verum atque decens curo et rogo, et omnis in hoc ſum.

(3.) BREEDING OF FISH. See POND.

(4.) BREEDING OF HORSES. See HORSE.

BREEDING-STONE, in mineralogy, a ſort of maſs of peebles, joined by a ſparry cement; frequent in divers parts of Hertfordſhire.

BREEDON ON THE HILL, a village in Leiceſterſhire, near Stanton-Harold.

BREEF CARDS, a kind of falſe cards, either a little longer or broader than the reſt, whereby they may be felt and diſtinguiſhed.

BREEM, *adj. obſ.* fierce. *Spenſer.*

BREENBERG, Bartholomew, an excellent painter, born at Utretcht in 1620; and beſt known by his chriſtian name Italized, BARTOLOMEO, having ſpent the early part of his life in Rome. His pictures were held in the higheſt eſtimation. He excelled in landſcapes, which he enriched with hiſtorical ſubjects. The figures and animals were drawn in a maſterly manner. He alſo etched from his own deſigns a ſet of 24 *Views and Landſcapes, ornamented with Ruins.* He died in 1660, aged 40.

* BREESE. *n. ſ.* [*brioſa*, Saxon.] A ſtinging fly; the gadfly.—

Cleopatra,
The *breeſe* upon her, like a cow in June,
Hoiſts ſail, and flies. *Shakeſp. Ant. and Cleop.*

The learn'd write, the inſect *breeſe*
Is but the mongrel prince of bees. *Hudibras.*

A fierce loud buzzing *breeſe*, their ſtings draw blood,
And drive the cattle gadding through the wood
Dryden.

(1.) * BREEZE. *n. ſ.* [*brezza*, Ital.] A gentle gale; a ſoft wind.—We find, that thoſe hotteſt regions of the world, ſeated under the equinoctial line, or near it, are ſo refreſhed with a gale of eaſterly wind, which the Spaniards call *breeze*, that doth ever more blow ſtronger in the heat of the day. *Raleigh.*—

From land a gentle *breeze* aroſe by night,
Serenely ſhone the ſtars, the moon was light,
And the ſea trembled with her ſilver light. *Dryd.*

Gradual ſinks the *breeze*
Into a perfect calm, that not a breath
Is heard to quiver through the cloſing wood.
Thomſon.

(2.) BREEZE, a ſhifting wind that blows from ſea or land for certain hours in the day or night; common in Africa and ſome parts of the E. and W. Indies. Breezes differ from ETESIÆ or trade winds, as the former are diurnal, or have their periods each day; and the latter are annual, and blow at a diſtance from land. The ſea breezes rule by day, and the land breezes by night, being conſtant as the ſeaſons of the year, or courſe of the ſun, on which they ſeem to depend: not but that they appear ſooner or later, ſtronger or weaker, in ſome places than in others; and vary the alternative according to the ſeveral latitudes, ſituations, and ſoils, &c. of the countries where they are found. See WIND.

(3.) BREEZE, in brick-making, ſmall aſhes and cinders ſometimes made uſe of inſtead of coals, for the burning of bricks. But as this does not ſo well anſwer the end, the uſe of it was prohibited by 12 Geo. I. cap. 35. but allowed by 3 Geo. II. cap. 22. and 10 Geo. III. cap. 49.

BREEZE ALY. See BREESE, and TABANUS.

* BREEZY. *adj.* [from *breeze*.] Fanned with gales.—

The ſeer, while zephyrs curl the ſwelling deep,
Baſks on the *breezy* ſhore, in grateful ſleep,
His oozy limb. *Pope.*

BREGANZON, a ſtrong caſtle of France, in the ci-devant province of Provence.

BREGENTZ, or BERGENTZ, a town of Tyrol in Germany, ſituated at the E. end of the lake of Conſtance, 6 miles S. of Lindau. It was taken poſſeſſion of by a column of the French army under Gen. Kellerman, in July 1796. Lon. 9. 40. E. Lat. 47. 36. N.

BREGMA, in anatomy, the ſame with SINCIPUT, or the fore-head. The bregma conſiſts chiefly of two bones, hence alſo called *bregmatis oſſa* or *oſſa parietalia*. See ANATOMY, § 119, 178. Bregma properly denotes the middle and fore part of the head, ſituated over the forehead, and extending on both ſides to the temples. The origin of the word is obſcure, and has been much controverted between Hoffman and Lindenius.

BREGNA, a fortreſs of Hungarian Dalmatia, in Morlachia.

(1.) BREHAR, one of the Scilly iſlands, lying

30 miles almoſt directly W. of the Land's End in Cornwall, between the iſles of Micarlo, Guel, Treſcaw, and Samſon. It is the roughest and moſt mountainous of them all, and not many years ago, there were only two families in it, but now there are 13. There are ſeveral BARROWS edged with ſtone, in which they buried conſiderable perſons in ancient times; beſides many monuments of the DRUIDS. Some are of opinion, that this with the reſt made but one iſland, which is the reaſon why ſo many antiquities are now found in moſt of them.

(2.) BREHAR, the only town or rather village in the iſland, (N° 1.) conſiſting of a few houſes.

BREHILL, a town near Andover, Hampſhire.

(1.) * BREHON. *n. ſ.* An Iriſh word.—In the caſe of murder, the *brehon*, that is, their judge, will compound between the murderer and the party murthered, which proſecute the action, that the malefactor ſhall give unto them, or to the child or wife of him that is ſlain, a recompence, which they call an eriach. *Spenſer.*

(2.) BREHONS were the provincial judges among the ancient Iriſh, by whom juſtice was adminiſtered, and controverſies decided. Theſe ſages were a diſtinct tribe, and had competent lands allowed them in inheritance. In criminal caſes the brehon had the 12th part of all the fines; which could not but be conſiderable at a time when murders, rapes, robberies, and the like offences, were only ſubject to pecuniary commutations.

BREHONICÆ LEGES, } the general rules
BREHON LAWS, } of law obſerved by the Brehons, and having the force of laws throughout all the provinces of Europe. Several fragments of the *leges Brehonicæ* are ſtill extant in public and private libraries The moſt complete collection is that belonging to the duke of Chandos; containing 22¼ ſheets cloſe written, full of abbreviated words, and not very legible By the ſtatute of Kilkenny, made under Edward III. it is enacted that no Engliſh ſubject ſhall ſubmit to a trial by the *Brehon* law, on the penalty of high treaſon: Notwithſtanding which, many were ſtill under a neceſſity of being concluded by the Iriſh laws and cuſtoms, till the whole kingdom was ſettled on an Engliſh bottom by King James I.

BREID, *adj. obſ.* bred.

To BREID, *v. n. obſ.* to be in like condition.

BREIDE, *v. pret. obſ.* did ariſe, *Chaucer.*

BREMBLE, a town E. of Chippenham, Wilts.

BREMBLEHAM, near Malmſbury Wiltſhire.

(1.) * BREME. *adj.* [from *bremman*, Saxon, to rage or fume] Cruel; ſharp; ſevere. Not uſed.—

And when the ſhining ſun laugheth once,
You deemen the ſpring come at once:
But eft, when you count, you freed from fear,
Comes the *breme* winter, with chamfred brows,
Full of wrinkles, and froſty furrows. *Spenſer.*

(2.) BREME, *adv. obſ.* fiercely. *Spenſer.*

BREMFGARTEN, or BREMGARTON, a conſiderable town of Switzerland, in the territory of Fyen-Aempter, between the cantons of Zurich and Bern. The inhabitants are Roman Catholics, and deal chiefly in paper. It is very advantageouſly ſeated on the river Ruſs, 10 miles W. of Zurich. Lon. 8. 17. E. Lat. 47. 28. N.

(1.) BREMEN, a duchy of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, lying between the rivers Weſer and the Elbe; of which the former ſeparates it from the duchy of Oldenburgh, and the other from that of Holſtein. The air is cold; but the country is fertile, and well peopled. It formerly belonged to Sweden, but was afterwards conquered by the king of Denmark, who ſold it to the king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, 1716. In winter it is ſubject to inundations. On Chriſtmas, 1617, ſeveral thouſand cattle were drowned, beſides ſeveral hundred people; and the country was ſo covered with water, that it has coſt immenſe ſums to repair the dykes.

(2.) BREMEN, a large, populous, and very ſtrong town, the capital of the duchy, (N° 1.) with an archbiſhop's ſee The river Weſer runs through it, and divides it into the old and new town. In September 1739, while the inhabitants were aſleep, the powder magazine was ſet on fire by lightning; and all the houſes were ſhaken, as if there had been a violent earthquake. This town is governed by its own magiſtrates, and is divided into 4 quarters, each of which has a Burgomaſter. In the middle there is a large market-place, with the ſtatue of Rolando. It has a great trade for iron, flax, hemp, and linen, with France, England, Spain, and Portugal; and in return imports proviſions, with which it ſupplies Weſtphalia and the countries about Hanover. It alſo gets a great deal by its fiſheries; the trade for blubber with the S. of Germany is very conſiderable. It is 70 miles NW. of Zell. Lon. 8. 48. E. Lat. 55. 6. N.

BREMEN-VEERD, or BREMEN-WOERD, } a town in BREMEN, (N° 1.) ſeated on the river Ooſt. Lon. 8. 35. E. Lat. 53. 48. N.

BREMER, a town near Blandford, Dorſetſhire.

BREMERUVOIDE, a fortified town of Lower Saxony, 27 miles N. of Bremen. Lon. 8. 35. E. Lat. 53. 48. N.

BREMGARTEN. See BREMBGARTEN.

BREMPTON, near Webmore, Somerſetſhire.

(1.) BREN, in Cornwall, 4 miles W. of Bodmin.

(2.) BREN, *n. ſ. obſ.* bran. *Chaucer.*

To BREN, *v. n. obſ.* to burn. *Spenſer.*

BRENCHLEY, a village in Kent, 6 miles from Tunbridge Wells.

BRENDE, *adj. obſ.* burnt; burniſhed. *Chaucer.*

To BRENDE, *v. a. obſ.* to burn. *Chaucer.*

BRENKHORN, a village in Northumberland, S. of Rothbury.

BRENNAGE, } in authors of the mid-
BRENNAGIUM, or } dle age, a kind of tri-
BRENNATICUM, } bute paid in lieu of bran, or bran itſelf, which the tenants were obliged to furniſh for the ſupport of the lord's hounds.

BRENNE, a ci-devant territory of France, in the late province of Touraine, now included in the department of Indre and Loire.

BRENNING, a river of S. Wales, in Cardiganſh.

BRENNINGLY, *adv. obſ.* warmly. *Chaucer.*

BRENNUS, a celebrated captain among the Gauls, who, about A. A. C. 388, entered Italy with a powerful army; made great conqueſts there; defeated the Romans: and ſacked Rome. The capital alone was defended; and Camillus coming to its relief, drove the Gauls not only out

of

of Rome, but out of all Italy. See ROME, HISTORY OF.

BRENET, a village W. of N. Romney, Kent.

(1.) BRENT. *adj.* [from *brennan*, Saxon, to burn.] Burnt. Obſolete.

What flames, quoth he, when I thee preſent ſee
In danger rather to be drent than *brent?*
Fairy Queen.

(2.) BRENT, a river of Somerſetſhire

(3.) BRENT, a ſmall town or Devonſhire, with a market on Saturdays and two fairs, on May 13th and Oct. 10th, for horned cattle. It lies on the road from Exeter to Plymouth, 6 miles from Aſhburton, 26 SW. from Exeter, and 198 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 2. W. Lat. 50. 33. N.

(4.) BRENT, or BRENT-BROOK, a rivulet of Middleſex, which riſes near Finchley Common, and paſſes through the W. part of Brentford, (to which it gives name,) into the Thames.

(5.) BRENT Sir Nathaniel, LL. D. was born at Little Woolford, Warwickſhire, in 1573; educated at Oxford, where he took his degrees. In 1613, he travelled abroad, and on his return he married the daughter and heireſs of Dr Abbot, Bp. of Saliſbury and niece of Abp. Abbot; who ſent him to Venice in 1617, to procure a copy of the *Hiſtory of the Council of Trent*, from the joint authors; fathers Paul and Fulgentio; which he tranſlated from Italian into Engliſh. He received ſeveral promotions from the archbiſhop, and was knighted by king Charles I. but was afterwards deprived of them for joining the Puritans and taking the covenant. In 1646, when Oxford ſurrendered to the parliament, he was reſtored to his warden-ſhip of Merton college and appointed chief viſitory of that univerſity. He died at London in 1652, aged 79.

(6.) BRENT, EAST, } three Engliſh villages in
(7.) BRENT, SOUTH, } Somerſetſhire, about 18
(8.) BRENT, WEST, } miles from Briſtol.

BRENTA, in ornithology, the BRENT GOOSE, a ſpecies of ANAS, with a black neck and a white collar round it. It has been uſually confounded with the BARNACLE, (See ANAS, N° 5, & 16. and BARNACLE, N° 5.) and ſuppoſed to differ from it only in ſex; but this is erroneous. It is ſomewhat larger than the barnacle, and is longer bodied. *Ray.* See *Plate* XLVI. *Fig* 9.

BRENT-BROOK. See BRENT, N° 4.

BRENTE, a river of Germany, which riſes in Trent, and running SE. through the Venetian territories in Italy, falls into the Adriatic oppoſite to Venice.

BRENT-ELEY, a village in Suffolk, E. of Lavenham.

BRENTFORD, a town of Middeſex, 7 miles from London, on the great road to the W. It is divided into the old and new town, in which laſt are the church, and the market-houſe where the country elections are held. It is long, well ſtocked with public houſes is ſeated on the river Thames, and has a conſiderable trade in corn. Lon. 0. 10. W. Lat. 51. 26 N.

BRENT GOOSE. See BRENTA, N° 2.

BRENTINGBY, a village in Leiceſterſhire, near Melton-Mowbray.

BRENT-KNOLL, in Somerſetſhire, near the Brent Marſhes.

BRENT MARSHES are ſituated in Somerſetſh. between Glaſtonbury and Start-point.

BRENT-STREET, a village in Middleſex, in the pariſh of Hendon.

BRENT-TOR, in Devonſhire, on the top of a high hill, between Lidford and Milton-Abbey. It ſerves for a ſea mark.

BRENTWOOD, or BURNTWOOD, a town of Eſſex, on a riſing ground in the road from London to Colcheſter. It has ſeveral good inns, and lies 11 miles WSW. of Chelmſford, and 18 ENE. of London. Lon. 0. 25. E. Lat. 51. 38. N.

BRENUTH, the ancient name of BIRNIE.

BREOCK, ST, a village in the county of Cornwall, near Wardbridge.

BREPHOTROPHIUM, [from βρεφος, infant, and τροφη, nouriſhment,] an hoſpital for foundlings or orphans.

BREPHOTROPHY, the nurture of infants.

BRERE, *n. ſ. obſ.* a brier. *Chaucer.*

BRERETON, a town near Congleton, Cheſh.

BREREWOOD, Edward, a very learned Engliſh mathematician and antiquary, the ſon of Robert Brerewood a traceſman, who was thrice mayor of Cheſter; was born in that city in 1565. He was educated in Cheſter; and admitted, in 1581, of Brazen-noſe college, Oxford. In 1596, he became the firſt profeſſor of aſtronomy in Greſham college in London, where he led a very retired life. He died there of a fever, Nov. 4, 1613. He was a great ſearcher into antiquity and curious knowledge; but never publiſhed any thing during his life. After his death came out the following works. 1. *De ponderibus et pretiis veterum nummorum.* 2. Inquiries touching the diverſities of languages and religion through the chief parts of the world. 3. *Elementa logicæ in gratiam ſtudioſæ juventutis in Acad. Oxon.* 4. *Tractatus quidam logici.* 5, 6. Two treatiſes on the Sabbath. 7. *Tractatus duo, quorum primus eſt de meteoris, ſecundus de oculo.* 8. *Commentarii in ethica Ariſtotelis.* Mr Wood tells us, that the original MS. of this, written with his own hand, is in the ſmalleſt and neateſt characters that his eyes ever beheld; and that it was finiſhed by him on the 27th of October, 1586. 9. Patriarchal government of the ancient church.

BRESCIA, the capital of Breſciano, a ſtrong town with a biſhop's ſee and a good citadel. It is ſeated on an agreeable plain on the river Garza, which runs through it. Its walls are alſo waſhed by the Mela on the W. and the Navilio on the E. It contains about 50,000 inhabitants. They manufacture cloths and hard wares. In March 1797, they ſolicited to be annexed to the new republic of LOMBARDY. It lies 35 miles N. of Cremona, and 95 W. of Venice. Lon. 10. 5. E. Lat. 45. 31. N.

BRESCIANO, a province of Italy in the territory of Venice; bounded on the N. by the Griſons and the biſhopric of Trent; on the E. by the lake Garda, the Veroneſe, and the duchy of Mantua; on the S. by Mantua and the Cremoneſe; and on the W. by the Cremaſco, the Burgomaſco.

and the Valtelina. It is watered by ſeveral ſmall rivers, which render it very fertile; and is full of towns and villages.

BRESCICATE, in commerce, a kind of bays, of which there is ſome trade carried on with the negroes, between the river Gambia and Sierra Leona. The beſt ſorts for that purpoſe are the blue and the red.

BRESELLO, a ſmall town of Italy, in Modena; ſeated on the Po. Lon. 10. 25. E. Lat. 44. 55. N.

BRESILIA, in ornithology, a ſpecies of TANAGRA, in the order of *paſſeres*.

BRESINI, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lencici.

CRESINGHAM, a town near Diſs, Norfolkſh.

(1.) BRESLAU, or BRESLAW, a ſmall duchy of lower Silefia, in Germany, lying between thoſe of Wolaw, Oliſſe, Brieg, Schwednitz, and Lignitz. It is every where level and flat; is an excellent corn and paſture country, abounding with herds of cattle and flocks of ſheep; but deſtitute of wood, except in one diſtrict. The roads in general are very bad. Both the property and juriſdiction belong to the king of Pruſſia; forming a part of one of the 3 bailiwics, into which all the immediate principalities are divided.

(2.) BRESLAU, or BRESLAW, (N° 1.) the chief town of the duchy, and of all Silefia, ſituated at the conflux of the Oder and Ohlau. Including the ſuburbs, it is of great extent; having many large regular ſquares, broad ſtreets, ſtately public and private edifices; but the fortifications are of no importance. It has many churches (beſides convents) belonging to the catholics; ſeveral to the Lutherans, one to the Calviniſts, and another to the Greeks. The Jews have likewiſe two ſynagogues, the biſhop a ſtately palace, and the Lutherans two gymnaſiums. The Popiſh univerſity is a noble ſtructure, and the exchange is magnificent. This city is the ſeat of all the high colleges; and the 3d in rank, next to Berlin and Konigſberg, in the whole Pruſſian dominions. Its trade and manufactures are very conſiderable. Several of the monaſteries and nunneries are very magnificent; and there are alſo ſome good public libraries in it, with two armouries, a college of phyſicians, and a mint. It is very populous, and much frequented by Hungarian, Bohemian, Poliſh, and other merchants, having ſeveral fairs. It was taken by the king of Pruſſia in 1741, and retaken by the Auſtrians in 1757; but the king of Pruſſia took it back again the ſame year, and gained a ſignal victory over the Auſtrians at Leuthen, a village not far from the capital. Breſlaw is 112 m. E. of Prague, and 165 N. of Vienna. Lon. 17. 14. E. Lat. 51. 3. N.

(1.) BRESLE, a river in the N. of France.

(2.) BRESLE, a town of France, in the department of Rhone and Loire, and ci-devant province of Lyonnois.

BRESMA, in ichthyology, a name given by Hildegard and ſeveral others, to the bream. See CYPRINUS.

(1.) BRESSAY, or BRASSA, an iſland of Scotland, about 4 miles long and 2 broad, lying to the E of the coaſt of Shetland, from which it is ſeparated by the Sound, (N° 3.) It conſiſts of 366 merks of land, and contained 670 inhabitants in 1792. They have 26 fiſhing boats.

(2.) BRESSAY, BURRA, and QUARFF, 3 united pariſhes of Scotland, in the county and on the coaſt of Shetland, comprehending alſo the iſlands of NOSS, HAVERA, and HOUSE. They are, in all, above ten miles long and 2 broad, and rent at about 4000 l. Scots, annually, beſides more than double that ſum in fiſhings. The climate is damp, but healthy. The population, in 1792, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Menzies, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1225; and had increaſed 127, ſince 1755. The number of ſheep was 5000, and of milck cows 500, beſides many oxen and horſes. About 60 boats are employed in fiſhing and catch about 300 ling each annually. "The fiſhing," however, Mr Menzies obſerves, "is a great obſtacle to improvements in agriculture, the chief object of the proprietors being to have as many fiſhermen on their grounds as poſſible. The farms, conſequently, are very ſmall. Few leaſes are granted. Many ſervices, the ſad marks of ſlavery, are demanded. They muſt fiſh for their maſters, who either give them a fee entirely inadequate to their labour and dangers, or take their fiſh at a lower price than others would give. It is true, (he adds,) that in the years of ſcarcity, they muſt depend upon their landlords for ſubſiſtence, and are often deep in their debt. But why not allow them to make the beſt of their ſituation? Why not let them have leaſes upon reaſonable terms, and diſpoſe of their produce to thoſe who will give them the beſt price? Why not let them fiſh for themſelves? Why ſhould the laird have any claim, except for the ſtipulated rent? Neither the climate nor the ſoil are favourable for improvements in agriculture; but with proper management much might be done." *Stat. Acc.* x. 197.

(3.) BRESSAY, or BRASSA SOUND is reckoned by Mr Menzies "one of the beſt harbours in the world." See BRASSA, N° 2.

(1.) BRESSE, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the N. by Burgundy and Franche Compte; on the E. by Savoy; on the S. by Viennois; on the W. by Dombes and the Somme. It is 40 miles from N. to S. and 23 from E. to W. It is fertile in corn and hemp, has fine paſtures, and ſeveral lakes with plenty of fiſh. It was divided into the higher, on the ſide of Bourges, and the lower towards St Trivier and the river Sonne. The French got poſſeſſion of it in 1601. The principal places are Bourg, Breſſe, Montluel, Pont de Vaux, and Coligny. It now forms the department of Ain.

(2.) BRESSE, a town of France in the department of Ain.

BRESSICI. See BRESTE.

BRESSUIRE, a town of France in the department of the Two Sevres, and ci-devant province of Poictou. It is 35 miles NW. of Poictiers. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 46. 50. N.

BRESSUMERS. See BREST SUMMERS.

(1.) BREST, a maritime town of France, in the department of Cape Finiſterre, and ci-devant province of Brittany, ſeated on the declivity of a hill on the ſide of its port, which is the largeſt in the kingdom, and will hold 500 ſhips at a time. It

has

has an arſenal with ſea-ſtores, placed there on account of its nearneſs to the woods, mines of iron, and other things proper for the building of ſhips. It was entirely conſumed by fire in 1644. The craggy entrance into the port is narrow and guarded by a ſtrong caſtle ſeated on a rock, which cannot be attempted on the ſea ſide; and it is defended on the land ſide by a large ditch and other fortifications. The ſtreets are very narrow, ill contrived, few in number, and have all a deſcent. A great quay ſurrounds this ſide of the port, which is above a mile long, and 200 paces broad; and there are magazines on the quay full of foreign merchandizes. On the other ſide of the port the fine church of Notre Dame is ſituated; and in a ſuburb which is as big as half the city, there is a ſtrong tower oppoſite to the caſtle, at the entrance of the port; there is alſo a great quay on this ſide, bordered with large magazines, partly within the rock, which has been cut away to enlarge the place. Theſe are extended almoſt as far as the bottom of the harbour, where there are two docks very commodious for the building of large ſhips: the ſhops and houſes of the workmen are all around them: the ropewalks are ſeparated from the city by one of theſe docks. The entrance into the harbour is called the *Gullet*, and is a paſſage extremely difficult on account of the ſunk rocks on both ſides of the ſhore; but there are experienced pilots who carry ſhips in very ſafely. It is 30 miles SE. of Morlaix, and 325 W. by S. of Paris. Lon. 4. 26. W. Lat. 48. 23. N.

(2.) * BREST. *n. ſ.* [In architecture.] That member of a column, called alſo the *torus* or *tore*.

(1.) BRESTE, a palatinate, and province of Cujavia, in Poland. It lies between the palatinates of Ploeſko, Rava, and Lencici Wladiſlaw. It is divided into 4 chatelanies.

(2.) BRESTE, BRESSICH, or BREZESC, the capital of the palatinate, (N° 1.) and of Poleſia, in Poland, ſeated on the river Bog, 80 miles E. of Warſaw, and ſubject to Poland. It is a fortified town, and has a caſtle built upon a rock; with a famous ſynagogue, reſorted to by the Jews from all the countries in Europe. Lon. 24. 6. E. Lat. 52. 4. N.

To BRESTE, *v. n. obſ.* To burſt. *Chaucer.*

(1.) * BREST SUMMERS. The pieces in the outward parts of any timber building, and in the middle floors, into which the girders are framed. *Harris.*

(2.) BREST SUMMERS. See GIRDERS.

BRESWORTH, a village in Suffolk, near Mendleſham.

(1.) * BREST. *n. ſ.* A fiſh of the turbot kind, alſo *bart* or *brut*. *Dict.*

(2.) BRET is a name given on the coaſts of Lincolnſhire to the turbot, a fiſh extremely plentiful there, and taken in vaſt numbers. They are caught in a net, trailed by two horſes, the one going up to the middle of his body in water, the other on ſhore.

BRETACHIÆ, in writers of the middle age, denote wooden towers or caſtles, wherewith towns or camps were defended.

BRETAGNE, a ci-devant province of France, now formed into 5 departments, viz. North Coaſt, Finiſterre, Ille and Vilaine, Lower Loire, and Morbihan. See BRITTANY.

BRETBEY, a village 7 miles from Derby.

BRETESSE, in heraldry, denotes a line embattled on both ſides.

BRETEUIL, a town of France, in the department of Lower Seine, ſeated on the river Iton, 15 m. SW. of Evreux. Lon. 1. 0. E. Lat. 48. 56. N.

BRETFORD, a village in Warwickſhire, near Baggington.

BRETFORTON, near Eveſham, Worceſterſh.

(1.) * BRETHREN. *n. ſ.* [The *plural* of *brother*.] See BROTHER.—All theſe ſects are *brethren* to each other in faction, ignorance, iniquity, perverſeneſs, pride. *Swift.*

(2.) BRETHREN AND CLERKS OF THE COMMON LIFE, a denomination aſſumed by a religious fraternity towards the end of the 15th century. They lived under the rule of St Auguſtin, and were eminently uſeful in promoting the cauſe of religion and learning. Their ſociety was firſt formed, in the 14th century, by Gerard de Groote, a native of Deventer; but did not flouriſh till it obtained the approbation of the council of Conſtance. It became very reſpectable in Holland, the Lower Germany, and the adjacent provinces. It was divided into two claſſes; the *lettered brethren or clerks*, and the *illiterate*: they lived in ſeparate habitations, but maintained the cloſeſt fraternal union. The former applied to the ſtudy of polite literature, and the education of youth; whilſt the latter were employed in manual labour, and the mechanic arts. They are frequently called *Beghards* and *Lollards*, by way of reproach.

(3.) BRETHREN AND SISTERS OF THE FREE SPIRIT, in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, an appellation aſſumed by a ſect which ſprung up towards the cloſe of the 13th century, and gained many adherents in Italy, France, and Germany. They took their denomination from the words of St Paul, Rom. viii. 2, 14. and maintained, that the true children of God were inveſted with perfect freedom from the juriſdiction of the law. They were enthuſiaſts to a degree of diſtraction, both in their principles and practice. They reſembled the BEGHARDS, by which name they were ſometimes called, in their aſpect, apparel, and manner of living. Some of their profeſſed principles reſembled thoſe of the Pantheiſts; for they held, that all things flowed by emanation from God; that rational ſouls were portions of the Deity, and that the univerſe was God; and that, by the power of contemplation, they were united to the Deity, and acquired hereby a glorious and ſublime liberty, both from the ſinful luſts and the common inſtincts of nature: and hence they concluded, that the perſon, who was thus abſorbed in the abyſs of the Deity, became a part of the Godhead, and was the ſon of God, in the ſame ſenſe and manner that Chriſt was, and that he was freed from the obligation of all laws human and divine. They treated with contempt all Chriſtian ordinances, and all external acts of religion, as unſuitable to the ſtate of perfection at which they were arrived. Some of them were honeſt but deluded enthuſiaſts; and they endured the torments inflicted on them by the inquiſitors with aſtoniſhing heroiſm and triumph.

triumph. Others proceeded to the moſt extravagant licentiouſneſs of conduct. They held their ſecret aſſemblies ſtark naked and lay in the ſame bed with their ſpiritual ſiſters, and indiſcriminately with other women, without the leaſt ſcruple: modeſty and delicacy being, according to their creed, marks of inward corruption. And ſome of them proceeded ſtill farther, and maintained, that the *divine man*, or believer, could not ſin, let his conduct be ever ſo atrocious. Many edicts were publiſhed againſt them; but notwithſtanding the ſeverities they ſuffered, they continued till about the middle of the 14th century. They were called by ſeveral other names, ſuch as Schweſtriones, Picards, Adamites, and Turlupins.

(4.) BRETHREN, WHITE, *fratres albati*, were the followers of a prieſt from the Alps, about the beginning of the 14th century, who was arrayed in a white garment; and as they were alſo clothed in white linen, they were diſtinguiſhed by this title. Their leader carried about a croſs, like a ſtandard, and his apparent ſanctity and devotion drew together a number of followers. This enthuſiaſt practiſed many acts of mortification and penance, endeavoured to perſuade the European nations to renew the holy war, and pretended that he was favoured with divine viſions. Boniface IX. ordered him to be apprehended and committed to the flames, upon which his followers diſperſed.

BRETON, a river in Suffolk.

(1.) BRETON, CAPE, or CAPE BRITAIN, an iſland near the eaſtern continent of N. America, lying between 45° and 47° lat N. It is ſeparated from Nova Scotia by a narrow ſtrait called *Canſo*, and is about 100 m. in length, and 50 in breadth. It is ſurrounded with little ſharp-pointed rocks, ſeparated from each other by the waves, above which ſome of their tops are viſible. All its harbours are open to the E. turning towards the S. On other parts of the coaſt there are but a few anchoring places for ſmall veſſels, in creeks, or between iſlets. Except in the hill parts, the ſurface of the country has but little ſolidity, being every where covered with a light moſs, and with water. The dampneſs of the ſoil is exhaled in fogs, without rendering the air unwholeſome. In other reſpects the climate is very cold; owing either to the prodigious quantity of lakes, which cover above half the iſland, and remain long frozen; or to the number of foreſts, that totally intercept the rays of the ſun; which are alſo intercepted by perpetual clouds.

(2.) BRETON, CAPE, HISTORY, TRADE, &c. OF. Though ſome fiſhermen had long reſorted to this iſland every ſummer, not above 20 or 30 had ever fixed there. The French, who took poſſeſſion of it in Auguſt 1713, were properly the firſt inhabitants. They changed its name into that of *Iſle Royale*, and fixed upon fort Dauphin for their principle ſettlement. This harbour was 2 leagues in circumference. The ſhips came to the very ſhore, and were ſheltered from winds. Foreſts affording oak ſufficient to fortify and build a large city, were near at hand; the ground appeared leſs barren than in other parts, and the fiſh were more plentiful. The harbour might have been rendered impregnable at a trifling expence; but the difficulty of approaching it (a circumſtance that had at firſt made a ſtronger impreſſion than the advantages reſulting from it) occaſioned it to be abandoned, after a great labour had been beſtowed upon the undertaking. They then turned their views to Louiſbourg, the acceſs to which was eaſier; and convenience was thus preferred to ſecurity: the fortification of Louiſbourg, however, was not begun till 1720. In 1714, ſome fiſhermen, who till then had lived in Newfoundland, ſettled in this iſland. It was expected that their number would ſoon have been increaſed by the Acadians, who were at liberty, from the treaties that had been granted them, to remove with all their effects, and even to diſpoſe of their eſtates; but theſe hopes were diſappointed. The Acadians choſe rather to retain their poſſeſſions under the dominion of Britain, than to give them up for any precarious advantage they might derive from their attachment to France. Their place was ſupplied by ſome diſtreſſed adventurers from Europe, who came over from time to time to Cape Breton, and the number of inhabitants gradually increaſed to 4000. They were ſettled at Louiſbourg, Fort Dauphin, Port Toulouſe, Nerucka, and on all the coaſts where they found a proper beach for drying the cod. The inhabitants never applied themſelves to agriculture, the ſoil being unfit for it. They often ſowed corn, but it ſeldom came to maturity; and when it did thrive ſo much as to be worth reaping, it had degenerated ſo conſiderably, that it was not fit for ſeed next ſpring. They have only continued to plant a few pot-herbs that are tolerably well taſted, but muſt be renewed every year from abroad. The poorneſs and ſcarcity of paſtures has likewiſe prevented the increaſe of cattle. In a word the ſoil of Cape Breton ſeemed calculated to invite none but fiſhermen and ſoldiers. Though the iſland was entirely covered with foreſts before it was inhabited, its woods has ſcarce ever been an object of trade. A great quantity, however, of ſoft wood was found there fit for firing, and ſome that might be uſed for timber; but the oak has always been ſcarce, and the fir never yielded much reſin. The peltry trade was a very inconſiderable object. It conſiſted only in the ſkins of a few lynxes, elks, muſk rats, wild cats, bears, otters, and foxes both of a red and ſilver-gray colour. Some of theſe were procured from a colony of Micma Indians, who had ſettled on the iſland with the French, and never could raiſe more than 60 men able to bear arms. The reſt came from St John's, or the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages might poſſibly have been derived from the coal mines which abound in the iſland. They lie in a horizontal direction; and being only 6 or 8 feet below the ſurface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithſtanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New England, from 1745 to 1749, theſe mines would probably have been forſaken, had not the ſhips which were ſent out to the French iſlands wanted ballaſt. In one of theſe mines a fire has been kindled, which could never yet be extinguiſhed. The people of Cape Breton did not ſend all their fiſh to Europe. They ſent part of it to the French ſouthern iſlands, on board 20 or 25 ſhips from 70

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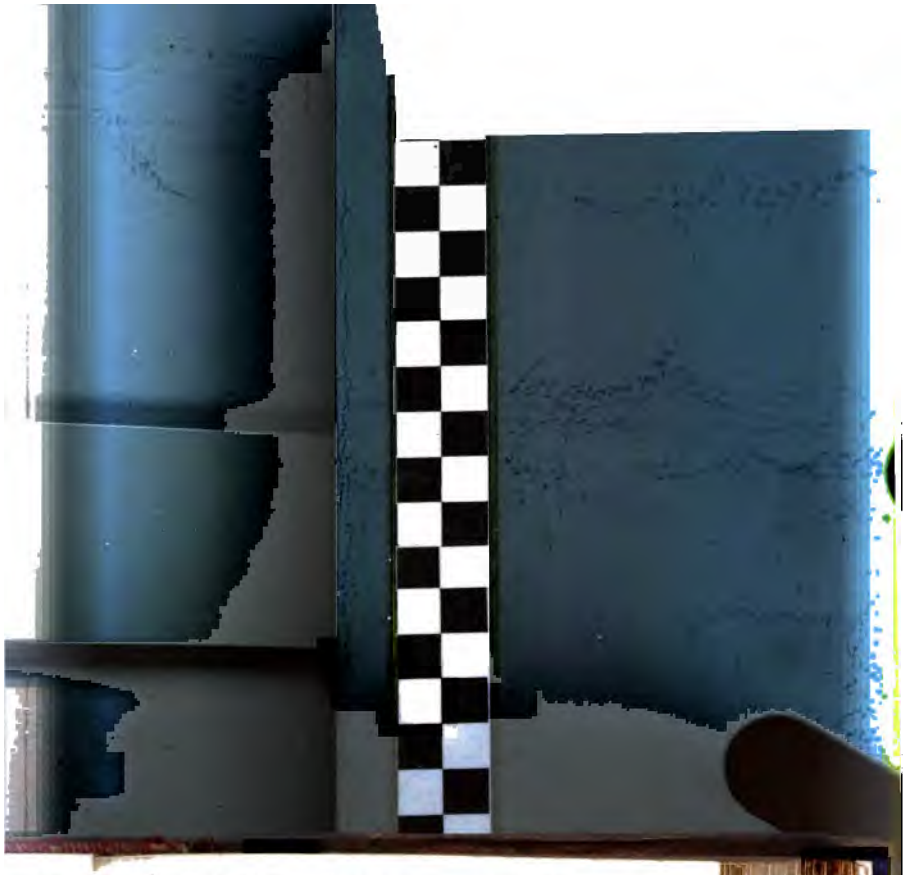

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to 140 tons burden. Beſides the cod, which made at leaſt half their cargo, they exported to the other colonies timber, planks, thin oak boards, ſalted ſalmon, and mackerel, train oil and ſea coal. All theſe were paid for in ſugar and coffee, but chiefly in rum and molaſſes. The iſland could not conſume all theſe commodities. Canada took off but a ſmall part of the overplus; it was chiefly brought to the people of New England, who gave in exchange fruits, vegetables, wood, brick, and cattle. This trade of exchanging was allowed: but a ſmuggling trade was added to it, carried on in flour, and ſalt fiſh.

(3.) BRETON, CAPE, INVASIONS AND CAPTURES OF. This iſland, the key of Canada, was attacked by the Engliſh, in 1745; and the event is of ſo ſingular a nature, that it deſerves a particular detail. The plan of this firſt invaſion was laid at Boſton, and New England bore the expence of it. A merchant named *Pepperel*, who had excited, encouraged, and directed the enterprize, was intruſted with the command of an army of 6000 men, which had been levied for this expedition. Though theſe forces, convoyed by a ſquadron from Jamaica, brought the firſt news to Cape Breton of the danger that threatened it; though the advantage of a ſurpriſe would have ſecured the landing without oppoſition; though they had but 600 regular troops to encounter, and 800 inhabitants haſtily armed; the ſucceſs of the undertaking was ſtill precarious. Theſe unexperienced troops ſtood in need of the aſſiſtance of ſome fortunate incident, which they were indeed favoured with in a ſingular manner. The conſtruction and repairs of the fortifications had always been left to the care of the garriſon of Louiſbourg. The ſoldiers were eager of being employed in theſe works, which they conſidered as conducive to their ſafety, and as the means of procuring them a comfortable ſubſiſtence. When they found that thoſe who were to have paid them, appropriated to themſelves the profit of their labours, they demanded juſtice. It was denied them, and they were determined to aſſert their right. As the depredations had been ſhared between the chief perſons of the colony and the ſubaltern officers, the ſoldiers could obtain no redreſs. Their indignation againſt theſe rapacious extortioners roſe to ſuch a height, that they deſpiſed all authority. They had lived in open rebellion for ſix months, when the Britiſh appeared before the place. This was the time to conciliate both parties, and to unite in the common cauſe. The ſoldiers made the firſt advances; but their commanders miſtruſted a generoſity of which they themſelves were incapable. They believed that the ſoldiers were only deſirous of ſallying out, that they might have an opportunity of deſerting; and their own officers kept them in a manner priſoners, till a defence ſo ill managed had reduced them to the neceſſity of capitulating. The whole iſland ſhared the fate of Louiſbourg, its only bulwark. This valuable poſſeſſion, reſtored to France by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, was again attacked by the Britiſh in 1758. On the 2d June, a fleet of 23 ſhips of the line and 18 frigates carying 16,000 well diſciplined troops, anchored in Gabarus bay, within half a league of Louiſbourg. As it was evident it would be to no purpoſe to land at a great diſtance, becauſe it would be impoſſible to bring up the artillery and other neceſſaries for a conſiderable ſiege, it had been attempted to render the landing impracticable near the town. In the prudent precautions that had been taken, the beſiegers ſaw the dangers and difficulties they had to expect; but, far from being deterred by them, they had recourſe to ſtratagem, and while by extending their line they threatened and commanded the whole coaſt, they landed by force of arms at the creek of Cormorant. This place was naturally weak. The French had fortified it with a good parapet planted with cannon. Behind this rampart they had poſted 2000 excellent ſoldiers and ſome Indians. In front they had made a cloſe hedge with branches of trees, which would have been very difficult to penetrate, even if it had not been defended. This paliſſade, which concealed all the preparations for defence, appeared at a diſtance to be nothing more than a verdant plain; and would have preſerved the colony, had the aſſailants been ſuffered to complete their landing, and to advance with the confidence that they had but few obſtacles to ſurmount. Had this been the caſe, overpowered at once by the fire of the artillery and the ſmall arms, they muſt infallibly have periſhed on the ſhore or in the hurry of re-embarking, eſpecially as the ſea was then very rough; which would have defeated the whole project. But all the prudent precautions that had been taken by the French, were rendered abortive by their own impetuoſity. The Engliſh had ſcarce begun to move towards the ſhore, when their enemies, by their briſk and haſty fire at their boats, and ſtill more by the premature removal of the boughs that maſked the forces, (which they ought to have concealed,) led them to gueſs at the danger they were going to run into. They immediately turned back, and ſaw no other place to effect their landing but a rock, which had been always deemed inacceſſible. General Wolf, though much taken up in re-embarking his troops, and ſending off the boats, gave the ſignal to major Scott to repair thither. That officer immediately removed to the ſpot with his men. His own boat coming up firſt, and ſinking at the very inſtant he was ſtepping out, he climbed up the rock alone. He hoped to meet with 100 of his men, who had been ſent thither ſome time before. He found only ten. With theſe few, however, he gained the ſummit of the rock. Ten Indians and 60 Frenchmen killed two of his men, and mortally wounded three. In ſpite of his weakneſs, he ſtood his ground under cover of a thicket, till his brave country-men, regardleſs of the boiſterous waves and the fire of the cannon, came up to him, and put him in full poſſeſſion of that important poſt, the only one that could ſecure their landing. The French, as ſoon as they ſaw that the enemy had got a firm footing on land, betook themſelves to the only remaining refuge, and ſhut themſelves up in Louiſbourg. The fortifications were in a bad condition, becauſe the ſea ſtood, which they had been obliged to uſe, is by no means fit for works of maſonry. The revetments of the ſeveral curtains were entirely crumbled away. There was only

bomb proof. The garriſon which was to defend the place conſiſted only of 2900 men. Notwithſtanding all theſe diſadvantages, the beſieged determined to make an obſtinate reſiſtance. They were confirmed in their reſolution by the courage of a woman. Madame de Drucourt was continually upon the ramparts, with her purſe in her hand; and firing herſelf three guns every day, ſeemed to diſpute with the governor, her huſband, the glory of his office. The beſieged were not diſmayed at the ill ſucceſs of their ſeveral ſallies, or the maſterly operations concerted by admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt. It was but at the eve of an aſſault, which it was impoſſible to ſuſtain, that they talked of ſurrendering. They made an honourable capitulation; and the conqueror ſhowed the reſpect due to his brave enemies, and did not ſully his glory by any act of barbarity or avarice. The poſſeſſion was confirmed to Great Britain by the peace in 1763; ſince which, the fortifications have been blown up and the town of Louiſbourg diſmantled.

BRET'S-HALL, a village in Warwickſhire.

BRETTEL, N. of Sturbridge, Staffordſhire.

BRETTENHAM, two villages: 1. in Norfolkſhire, NE. of Thetford: 2. in Suffolk, NW. of Bilſton.

BRETTIGAW, a territory or valley of the Griſons, lying between the Rhine and the county of Tyrol, and along the river Lanquet. Caſtels is the principal town.

BRETTON, a town near Wakefield, Yorkſh.

BRETTON-HALL, NW. of Branſley, Yorkſh.

(1.) BREVE, in law, is any writ directed to the chancellor, judges, ſheriffs, or other officers, whereby a perſon is ſummoned, or attached, to anſwer in the king's court, &c. See § 4 and 5.

(2.) * BREVE. *n. ſ.* [In muſick.] A note or character of time, equivalent to two meaſures or minims. *Harris.*

(3.) BREVE, in muſic, is in the form of a diamond or ſquare, without any tail.

(4.) BREVE DE RECTO, is a writ of right or licence, for a perſon ejected, to ſue for the poſſeſſion of the eſtate detained from him.

(5.) BREVE PERQUIRERE, the purchaſing of a writ or licence for trial in the king's courts; whereby comes the preſent uſe of paying 6s. 8d. fine for making in ſuit, for money due on bond, when the debt is L. 40, and 10s. where it is L. 100, &c.

BREVET, in the ci-devant French cuſtoms, denoted the grant of ſome favour or donation from the king; partly anſwering to our warrant, and partly to letters patent. It was particularly applied to the commiſſion of a ſubaltern officer, being only written on parchment, and without ſeal.

(1.) BREUGEL, John, commonly called *Velvet Breugel* from his generally wearing velvet clothes, was the ſon of Peter Breugel (N° 2.) and born about 1570. He firſt applied himſelf to painting flowers and fruit, in which he excelled; and afterwards had great ſucceſs in drawing landſcapes, and views of the ſea, ſet off with ſmall figures.—He lived long at Cologn, where he acquired great reputation. He travelled to Italy, where his fame had got before him; and where his fine landſcapes, with ſmall figures ſuperior to thoſe of his father, gave great ſatisfaction. As he left a great number of pictures behind him, all highly finiſhed, he muſt have been exceedingly induſtrious. Nor did he ſatisfy himſelf with embelliſhing his own works only, but was very uſeful in this reſpect to his friends. Even Reubens made uſe of Breugel's hand in the landſcape part of ſeveral of his ſmall pictures, ſuch as his Vertumnus and Pomona; the ſatyr viewing the ſleeping nymph; and the terreſtrial paradiſe, which is looked upon as his maſter-piece. He died in 1641. Several of his works are to be ſeen in the archbiſhop's gallery at Milan; and in the Ambroſian library there are 20 of his pieces.

(2.) BREUGEL, Peter, an eminent painter, was born at a village of the ſame name near Breda, in the year 1565; and was the firſt pupil of Peter Cock, whoſe daughter he married. It was cuſtomary with him to dreſs like a countryman, in order to be more eaſily admitted into the company of country people, and be allowed to join in their frolics, by which means he became perfectly acquainted with their manners and geſtures, of which he made excellent uſe in his pictures. He travelled to France and Italy, and ſtudied landſcapes on the mountains of Tyrol. His humorous turn of mind diſplayed itſelf in all his pictures, which generally conſiſted of country dances, marriages, ſports, and diverſions; though he ſometimes performed pieces from the hiſtorical parts of the Bible. At his return from Italy, he ſettled at Antwerp, and in his laſt illneſs cauſed his wife gather together all his immodeſt pieces and burn them before his face. Some of his works are in the poſſeſſion of the Emperor, the Grand duke of Tuſcany, and the Elector Palatine. He is alſo ſaid to have engraved ſome plates of landſcapes and groteſque ſubjects.

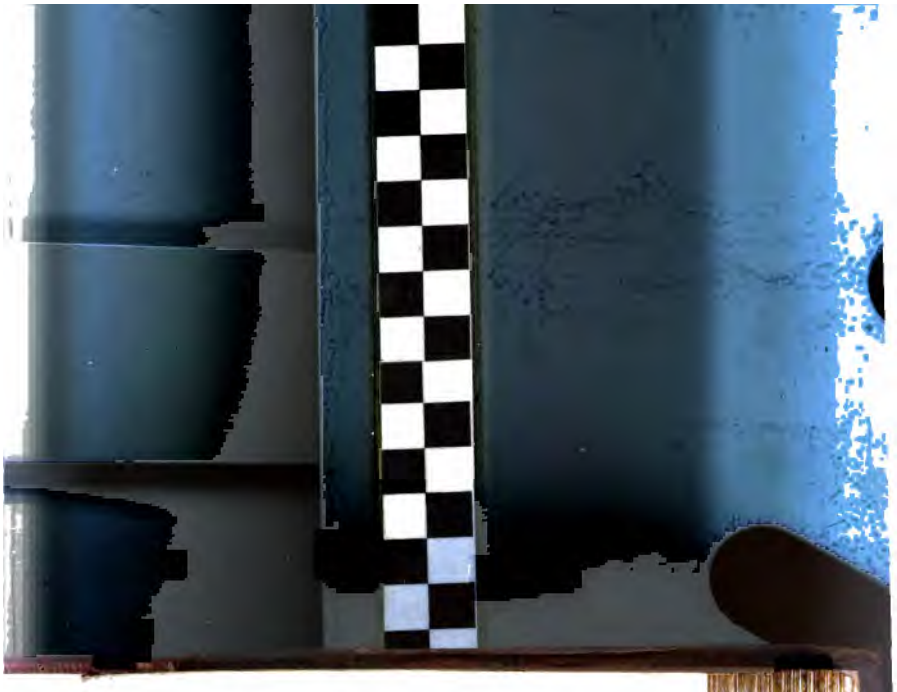
(3.) BREUGEL, Peter, the younger, was the ſon of Old Peter (N° 2.) and nicknamed *Helliſh Breugel*, from the horrible ſubjects he delighted to repreſent. He engraved alſo, according to M. Heineken; but his works are not ſpecified. He died 1642.

BREVIARIUM. See BREVIARY, § 2, and 3.

(1.) * BREVIARY. *n. ſ.* [*breviaire*, Fr. *breviarium*, Lat.] 1. An abridgment; epitome; a compendium.—Creſconius, an African biſhop, has given us an abridgment, or *breviary* thereof. *Ayliffe.* 2. The book containing the daily ſervice of the church of Rome.

(2.) BREVIARY, BREVIARIUM, in Roman antiquity, a book firſt introduced by Auguſtus, containing an account of the application of the public money.

(3.) BREVIARY, in the Romiſh church, is compoſed of matins, lauds, 1ſt, 3d, 6th, and 9th veſpers, and the compline or poſt communio. It is general, and may be uſed in all places; but on its model various others have been built, appropriated to dioceſes, and different orders of religious. The inſtitution of the breviary is not very ancient; there have been inſerted in it the lives of the ſaints, full of ridiculous ſtories, which gave occaſion to ſeveral reformations of it, by ſeveral councils, particularly thoſe of Trent and Cologn; by ſeveral popes, particularly Pius V. Clement VIII. and Urban VIII. and alſo by ſeveral cardinals and biſhops,



bishops, each flopping off some extravagancies, and bringing it much nearer to the simplicity of the primitive offices. Originally, every body was obliged to recite the breviary every day; but by degrees the obligation was reduced to the clergy only, who were enjoined under penalty of mortal sin and ecclesiastical censures, to recite it at home, when they cannot attend in public. In the 14th century, there was particular reserve granted in favour of bishops, who were allowed on extraordinary occasions, to pass 3 days without rehearsing the breviary. This office was originally called CURSUS; and afterwards BREVIARIUM; which imports that the old office was abridged; or rather, that this collection is a kind of abridgment of all the prayers. The breviaries now in use are innumerable; the difference between them consists principally in the number and order of psalms, hymns, paternosters, ave-Maries, creeds, magnificates, &c. &c.

(4.) BREVIARY of the Greeks is the same in almost all churches and monasteries that follow the Greek rites: the Greeks divide the psalter into 20 parts. In general, the Greek breviary consists of two parts; the one containing the office for the evening, the other that of the morning, divided into matins, lauds, 1st, 3d, 6th, and 9th vespers, and the compline; that is, of 7 different hours, on account of that saying of David, *Septies in die laudem dixi tibi.*

* BREVIAT. *n. f.* [from *brevis*, *brevio*, Lat.] A short compendium.—It is obvious to the shallowest discourser, that the whole counsel of God as far as it is incumbent for man to know, is comprised in one *breviat* of evangelical truth. *Decay of Piety.*

BREVIATOR, an officer under the eastern empire, whose business it was to write and translate briefs.—At Rome those are styled *breviators*, or ABBREVIATORS, who dictate and draw up the pope's briefs.

* BREVIATURE. *n. f.* [from *brevio*, Lat.] An abbreviation.

BREVIBUS A ROTULIS LIBERANDIS, a writ to a sheriff to deliver to his successor, the county, with the appurtenances, and the rolls, writs, and other things belonging to his office.

* BREVIER. *n. f.* A particular size of letter used in printing; so called, probably, from being originally used in printing a *breviary*; as,

Nor love thy life, nor hate, but what thou liv'st,
Live well, how long or short, permit to heav'n.
Milton.

BREVILOQUENCE, *n. f.* a short and apt way of speaking. *Ash.*

(1.) * BREVITY. *n. f.* [*brevitas*, Lat.] Conciseness; shortness; contraction into few words.—Virgil, studying *brevity*, and having the command of his own language, could bring those words into a narrow compass, which a translator cannot render without circumlocutions. *Dryden.*

(2.) BREVITY, is particularly used in speaking of style or composition. It is by some called BRACHYLOGIA and BREVILOQUENCE; sometimes LACONISMUS. Tacitus and Persius are remarkable for the brevity of their style. There are two kinds of brevity, one arising from dryness, poverty, and narrowness of genius; the other from judgment and reflection; which latter alone is laudable. Brevity is so essential to a tale, a song, and an epigram, that without it they become dull.—Rhetoricians make brevity one of the principal marks or conditions of eloquence; but the rules they prescribe for attaining it are difficult to apply, so as still to keep the due medium between too much and too little. A just brevity is attained by using all the words which are necessary, and none but those which are necessary. Sometimes it may also be had, by choosing a word which has the force of several. It is this last kind which Quintilian admires so much in Sallust; and the imitation of which, by other writers, has caused so much obscurity.

BREVIUM CUSTOS. See CUSTOS.

BREVORDT, a town of Guelderland, in the United Netherlands, 24 miles SE. of Zutphen, Lon. 6. 35. E. Lat. 52. 5. N.

BREUSCH, a river of France in the department of the Lower Rhine, and ci-devant province of Alsace. It divides into 2 branches, one of which receives the Mosley, and by means of a canal, 4 m. long, made by Lewis XIV, runs into the Ill above Strasburg; the other runs through Strasburg and falls into the Ill below it.

* BREW. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Manner of brewing; or thing brewed.—Trial would be made of the like *brew* with potatoe roots, or burr roots, or the pith of artichokes, which are nourishing meats. *Bacon.*

(1.) * *To* BREW. *v. a.* [*brouwen*, Dutch; *brauen*, German; *briwan*, Saxon.] 1. To make liquors by mixing several ingredients.—We have drinks also *brewed* with several herbs, and roots, and spices. *Bacon.*—

Mercy guard me!
Hence with thy *brew'd* enchantments, foul deceiver. *Milton.*

2. To put into preparation.—Here's neither bush nor shrub to bear off any weather at all, and another storm *brewing*. *Shakespeare.* 3. To mingle.—Take away these chalices; go, *brew* me a pottle of sack finely. *Shakespeare.* 4. Pope seems to use the word indeterminately.—

Or *brew* fierce tempests on the wat'ry main,
Or o'er the globe distil the kindly rain. *Pope.*

5. To contrive; to plot.—I found it to be the most malicious and frantic surmise, and the most contrary to his nature, that, I think, had ever been *brewed* from the beginning of the world, howsoever countenanced by a libellous pamphlet of a fugitive physician even in print. *Wotton.*

(2.) * *To* BREW. *v. n.* To perform the office of a brewer.—I keep his house, and wash, wring, *brew*, bake, scour, dress meat, and make the beds, and do all myself. *Shakespeare.*

* BREWAGE. *n. f.* [from *brew.*] Mixture of various things.—

Go brew me a pottle of sack finely.
——With eggs, sir?——
—Simple of itself: I'll no pullet sperm in my *brewage*. *Shakespeare.*

BREWARD, a village in Cornwall county, 3 miles SW. of Camelford.

(1.) BREWER, Anthony, a dramatic poet, who flourished in the reign of king Charles I. and appears to have been held in high estimation by the

wits of that time, as may be more particularly gathered from an elegant compliment paid to him in a poem called *Steps to Parnaſſus*, wherein he is ſuppoſed to have a magic power to call the Muſes to his aſſiſtance, and is even ſet on an equality with the immortal Shakeſpeare himſelf. There are, however, great diſputes as to the number of his works. Thoſe which have been aſcribed to him with any certianty are, 1. The country girl, a comedy. 2. The love-ſick king, a comedy. And, 3. *Lingua*: a piece in regard to which Winſtanley records a remarkable anecdote. He tells us, that, when this play was acted at Cambridge, Oliver Cromwell, then a youth, acted a part in it, and entered warmly into the ideal character. The ſubſtance of the piece is a contention among the Senſes for a crown, which Lingua had laid for them to find. The part allotted to young Cromwell, was that of *Tactus* or Touch; who having obtained the conteſted coronet, makes this ſpirited declamation:

Roſes and bays, pack hence; this crown and robe
My brows and body circles and inveſts:
How gallantly it fits me! ſure the ſlave
Meaſur'd my head who wrought this coronet.—
They lie, that ſay complexions cannot change!
My blood's ennobled, and I am transform'd
Unto the ſacred temper of a king.
Methinks I hear my noble paraſites
Styling me *Cæſar*, or Great *Alexander*,
Licking my feet, &c.

It is aſcribing too much, however, to ſuch a trifling circumſtance, to ſuppoſe, as ſome have done, that this ſpeech firſt fired Cromwell's ſoul with ambition, and excited him from the poſſeſſion of an imaginary crown to ſtretch his views to that of a real one. The fact is, Cromwell was naturally ambitious, and the confuſion of the times coucurred with his abilities to raiſe him to the protectorate.

(2.) * BREWER. *n. ſ.* [from *brew.*] A man whoſe profeſſion it is to make beer.—

When *brewers* marr their malt with water.
Shakeſpeare.

—Men every day eat and drink, though I think no man can demonſtrate out of Euclid or Apollonius, that his baker, or *brewer*, or cook, has not conveyed poiſon into his meat or drink. *Tillotſon.*

(3.) BREWERS. There are companies of brewers in moſt capital cities; that of London was incorporated in 1427 by Henry VI. and that of Paris was ſtill older. The brewers of Edinburgh, however, are not a corporation.

BREWERS-HAVEN, a good harbour at the N. end of the iſland of Chiloe, on the coaſt of Chili, in South America, lying in the South Sea. The Dutch landed forces here in 1643, deſigning to get poſſeſſion of ſome part of Chili; but they were driven from thence by the Spaniards and the natives. Lon. 82. 0. W. Lat. 42. 0. S.

BREWER'S-HILL, near Wincheſter, Hampſhire.

BREWERTON, N. of Litchfield, Staffordſhire.

(1.) * BREWHOSUE. *n. ſ.* [from *brew* and *houſe.*] A houſe appropriated to brewing.—In our *brewhouſes*, bakehouſes, and kitchens, are made divers drinks, breads, and meats. *Bacon.*

(2.) BREWHOUSE, APPARATUS AND UTENSILS OF A. Theſe are, a furnace made cloſe and hollow for ſaving fuel, and for diſcharging the ſmoke leſt it taint the liquor; a copper; a maſh-vat near the head; a cooler near the maſh-vat; and a guile-vat under the cooler. Adjoining to theſe, ſeveral clean tubs, to receive the worts and liquor, are required.

(1.) * BREWING *n. ſ.* [from *brew.*] Quantity of liquor brewed at once.—A *brewing* of new beer, ſet by old beer, maketh it work again. *Bacon.*

(2.) BREWING, the operation of preparing ale or beer from MALT. Though this art is a part of chemiſtry, and certainly depends on fixed and invariable principles, as well as every other branch of that ſcience, theſe principles have never yet been thoroughly inveſtigated. For want of a ſettled theory, therefore, the practice of this art is found to ſucceed with ſome, whilſt with others it is unſucceſsful. Some few hints, however, to eſtabliſh a regular theory of brewing, we ſhall here detail for the information of thoſe who are unacquainted with the ſubject.

(3.) BREWING, COMMON PROCESS OF. The uſual proceſs of brewing is as follows: A quantity of water being boiled, is left to cool till the height of the ſteam be over; when ſo much is poured to a quantity of malt in the maſhing-tub, as makes it of a conſiſtence ſtiff enough to be juſt well rowed up. After ſtanding thus for a quarter of an hour, a ſecond quantity of water is added, and rowed up as before. Laſtly, the full quantity of water is added; and that in proportion as the liquor is intended to be ſtrong or weak.—This part of the operation is called *maſhing.*—The whole now ſtands 2 or 3 hours, more or leſs, according to the ſtrength of the wort or the difference of the weather, and is then drawn off into a receiver; and the maſhing repeated for a ſecond wort, in the ſame manner as for the firſt, only the water muſt be cooler than before, and muſt not ſtand above half the time. The two worts are then to be mixed, the intended quantity of hops added, and the liquor cloſe covered up, and gently boiled in a copper for the ſpace of an hour or two; then let into the receiver, and the hops ſtrained from it into the coolers. When cool, the barm or yeaſt is applied; and it is left to work or ferment till it be fit to turn up. For ſmall beer there is a third maſhing with the water nearly cold, and not left to ſtand above three quarters of an hour; to be then hopped and boiled at diſcretion. For double beer or ale, the liquors reſulting from the two firſt maſhings muſt be uſed as liquor for a third maſhing of freſh malt. From conſidering this proceſs, and the multiplicity of circumſtances to be attended to in it, we cannot but ſee that it muſt be a very precarious one. The ſucceſs of the operation, *i. e.* the goodneſs of the beer, muſt depend upon the quality of the malt from which it is made; on that of the water with which it is infuſed; on the degree of heat applied in the infuſion; on the length of the time the infuſion is continued; on the proper degree of boil-

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ing; on the quantity and quality of the hops employed; on the proper degree of fermentation, &c. all which, have never yet been thoroughly ascertained.

(*) BREWING, METHOD OF MAKING MALT FOR. "The process of making malt (says Mr Richardson in his *Theoretic Hints on Brewing*, &c.) is an artificial or forced vegetation, in which the nearer we approach the footsteps of nature in her ordinary progress, the more certainly shall we arrive at that perfection of which the subject is capable. The farmer prefers a dry season to sow his corn in, that the common moisture of the earth may but gently insinuate itself into the pores of the grain, and thence gradually dispose it for the reception of the future shower, and the action of vegetation. The maltster cannot proceed by such slow degrees, but makes an immersion in water a substitute for the moisture of the earth, where a few hours infusion is equal to many days employed in the ordinary course of vegetation; and the corn is accordingly removed as soon as it appears fully saturated, lest a solution, and consequently a destruction of some of its parts, should be the effect of a longer continuance in water, instead of that separation which is begun by this introduction of aqueous particles into the body of the grain. Were it to be spread thin after this removal, it would become dry, and no vegetation would ensue; but being thrown into the couch, a kind of vegetative fermentation commences, which generates heat, and produces the first appearance of germination. This state of the barley is nearly the same with that of many days continuance in the earth after sowing: but being in so large a body, it requires occasionally to be turned over and spread thinner; the former, to give the outward parts of the heap their share of the required warmth and moisture, both of which are lessened by exposure to the air; the latter, to prevent the progress of the vegetative to the putrefactive fermentation, which would be the consequence of suffering it to proceed beyond a certain degree. To supply the moisture thus continually decreasing by evaporation and consumption, an occasional but sparing sprinkling of water should be given to the floor, to recruit the languishing powers of vegetation, and imitate the shower upon the corn field. But this should not be too often repeated; for, as in the field, too much rain, and too little sun, produce rank stems and thin ears, so here would too much water, and of course too little dry warmth, accelerate the growth of the malt, so as to occasion the extraction and loss of such of its valuable parts, as by a slower process would have been duly separated, and left behind. By the slow mode of conducting vegetation, here recommended, an actual and minute separation of the parts takes place. The germination of the radicles and acrospire carries off the adhesive properties of the barley, thereby contributing to the separation of the saccharine matter, which it has no tendency to extract or otherwise injure, but to increase and meliorate, so long as the acrospire is confined within the husk; and by how much it is wanting to the end of the grain, by so much does the malt fall short of perfection; and in proportion as it has advanced beyond, is that purpose defeated. This is very evident to the most common observation, on examining a kernal of malt in the different stages of its progress. When the acrospire has shot but half the length of the grain, the lower part only is converted into that yellow saccharine flower we are solicitous about, whilst the other half affords no other signs of it than the whole kernal did at its first germination. Let it advance to two thirds of the length, and the lower end will not only have increased its saccharine flavour, but will have proportionally extended its bulk, so as to have left only a third part unmalted. This, or even less than this, is contended for by many maltsters, as a sufficient advance of the acrospire, which they say has done its business as soon as it has passed the middle of the kernel. But we need seek no farther for their conviction of error, than the examination here alluded to. Let the kernel be slit down the middle, and tasted at either end, when green; or let the effects of mastication be tried when it is dried off; when the former will be found to exhibit the appearances just mentioned, the latter to discover the unwrought parts of the grain, in a body of stony hardness, which has no other effect in the mash-tub than that of imbibing a large portion of the liquor, and contributing to the retention of those saccharine parts of the malt which are in contact with it; whence it is a rational inference, that three bushels of malt, imperfect in this proportion, are but equal to two of that which is carried to its utmost perfection. By this is meant the farthest advance of the acrospire, when it is just bursting from its confinement, before it has effected its enlargement. The kernel is then uniform in its internal appearance, and of a rich sweetness in flavour, equal to any thing we can conceive obtainable from imperfect vegetation. If the acrospire be suffered to proceed, the mealy substance melts into a liquid sweet, which soon passes into the blade, and leaves the husk entirely exhausted. The sweet thus produced by the infant efforts of vegetation, and lost by its more powerful action, revives, and makes a second appearance in the stem, but is then too much dispersed and altered in its form to answer any of the purposes of art. Were we to inquire, by what means the same barley, with the same treatment, produces unequal portions of the saccharine matter in different situations, we should perhaps find it principally owing to the different qualities of the water used in malting. Hard water is very unfit for every purpose of vegetation, and soft will vary its effects according to the predominating qualities of its impregnations. Pure elementary water is in itself supposed to be only the vehicle of the nutriment of plants, entering at the capillary tubes of the roots, rising into the body, and there dispersing its acquired virtues, perspiring at innumerable fine pores at the surface, and thence evaporating, by the purest distillation, into the open atmosphere, where it begins anew its round of collecting fresh properties, in order to its preparation for fresh service. This theory leads us to the consideration of an attempt to increase the natural quantity of the saccharum of malt by adventitious means; but it must be observed on this occasion, that

that no addition of water will riſe into the veſſels of plants, but ſuch as will paſs the filter; the pores of which appearing ſomewhat ſimilar to the fine ſtrainers or abſorbing veſſels employed by nature in her nicer operations, we, by analogy, conclude, that properties ſo intimately blended with water as to paſs the one, will enter and unite with the economy of the other, and *vice verſa*. Suppoſing the malt to have obtained its utmoſt perfection, according to the criterion here inculcated; to prevent its farther progreſs, and ſecure it in that ſtate, we are to call in the aſſiſtance of a heat ſufficient to deſtroy the action of vegetation, by evaporating every particle of water, and thence leaving it in a ſtate of preſervation, fit for the preſent or future purpoſe of the brewer. Thus having all its moiſture extracted, and being by the previous proceſs deprived of its cohefive property, the body of the grain is left a mere lump of flour, ſo eaſily diviſible, that the huſk being taken off, a mark may be made with the kernel, as with a piece of ſoft chalk. The extractible qualities of this flour are, a ſaccharum cloſely united with a large quantity of the farinaceous mucilage peculiar to bread-corn, and a ſmall portion of oil, enveloped by a fine earthy ſubſtance, the whole readily yielding to the impreſſion of water applied at different times and different degrees of heat, and each part predominating in proportion to the time and manner of its application. In the curing of malt, as nothing more is requiſite than a total extrication of every aqueous particle; if we had in the ſeaſon proper for malting, a ſolar heat ſufficient to produce perfect dryneſs, it were practicable to reduce beers nearly colourleſs; but that being wanting, and the force of cuſtom having made it neceſſary to give our beers various tinctures and qualities reſulting from fire, for the accommodation of various taſtes, we are neceſſitated to apply ſuch heats in the drying as ſhall not only anſwer the purpoſe of preſervation, but give the complexion and property required. To effect this with certainty and preciſion, the introduction of the thermometer is neceſſary; but the real advantages of its application are only to be known by experiment, on account of the different conſtruction of different kilns, the irregularity of the heat in different parts of the ſame kiln, the depth of the malt, the diſtance of the bulb of the thermometer from the floor, &c. &c. for though ſimilar heats will produce ſimilar effects in the ſame ſituation, yet is the diſperſion of heat in every kiln ſo irregular, that the medium ſpot muſt be found for the local ſituation of the thermometer, ere a ſtandard can be fixed for aſcertaining effects upon the whole. That done, the ſeveral degrees neceſſary for the purpoſes of porter, amber, pale beers, &c. are eaſily diſcovered to the utmoſt exactneſs, and become the certain rule of future practice. Though cuſtom has laid this arbitrary injunction of variety in our malt liquors, it may not be amiſs to imitate the loſſes we often ſuſtain, and the inconveniences we combat, in obedience to her mandate. The further we purſue the deeper tints of colour by an increaſe of heat beyond that which ſimple preſervation requires, the more we injure the valuable qualities of the malt. It is well known that bed oils turn black, and that calcined ſugar aſſumes the ſame complexion. Similar effects are producible in malts, in proportion to the increaſe of heat, or the time of their continuing expoſed to it. The parts of the whole being ſo united by nature, an injury cannot be done to the one, without affecting the other; accordingly we find, that ſuch parts of the ſubject, as might have been ſeverally extracted for the purpoſes of a more intimate union by fermentation, are, by great heat in curing, burnt and blended ſo effectually together, that all diſcrimination is loſt; the unfermentable is extracted with the fermentable, the integrant with the conſtituent, to a very great loſs both of ſpirituoſity and tranſparency. In paler malts, the extracting liquor produces a ſeparation which cannot be effected in brown, where the parts are ſo incorporated, that unleſs the brewer is very well acquainted with their ſeveral qualities and attachments, he will bring over, with the burnt mixture of ſaccharine and mucilaginous principles, ſuch an abundance of the ſcorched oils, as no fermentation can attenuate, no precipitants remove; for being in themſelves impediments to the action of fermentation, they leſſen its efficacy; and being of the ſame ſpecific gravity with the beer, they remain ſuſpended in, and incorporated with the body of it, an offence to the eye, and a naufea to the palate, to the lateſt period."—From this account it is evident that the drying of malt is an article of the utmoſt conſequence. Concerning the proper degrees of heat to be employed for this purpoſe, M. Combrune has related ſome experiments made in an earthen pan, of about two feet diameter, and three inches deep, in which was put as much of the paleſt malts, very unequally grown, as filled it on a level to the brim. This being placed over a little charcoal in a ſmall ſtove, and kept conſtantly ſtirred from bottom to top, exhibited different changes, according to the degree of heat employed. On the whole he concludes, that "true germinated malts are charred in heats between 175 and 180 degrees; and that, as theſe correſpond to the degrees in which pure alcohol, or the fineſt ſpirit of the grain itſelf boils, or diſengages itſelf therefrom, they may point out to us the reaſon of barley being the fitteſt grain for the purpoſes of brewing." From theſe experiments, he has alſo conſtructed a kind of table of the different degrees of the dryneſs of malt, with the colour occaſioned by the difference of heat. Thus malt expoſed to 119 deg. is white; to 124, cream colour; 129, light yellow; 134, amber colour; 138, high amber; 143, pale brown; 148, brown; 152, high brown; 157, brown inclining to black; 162, high brown ſpeckled with black; 167, blackiſh brown with black ſpecks; 171, colour of burnt coffee; 176, black. This not only ſhews us how to judge of the dryneſs of malt from its colour, but alſo, when a griſt is compoſed of ſeveral ſorts of malt, what effect the whole will have when blended together by extraction. Experience proves, that the leſs heat we employ in drying malt, the ſhorter time will be required before the beer which is brewed from it is fit to be uſed; and of this M. Combrune has given the following table;

Deg.	Deg.	Deg.
119 2 weeks.	138 6 months.	152 15 months.
124 1 month.	143 6 months.	157 20 months.
129 3 months.	148 10 months.	162 a years.
135 4 months.		

He has alſo given a table, which ſhews the comparative tendency beers have to become fine, when properly brewed from malts of different degrees of dryneſs.

(5.) BREWING, QUALITY OF WATER FIT FOR. The next conſideration in brewing is the *quality of the water* to be employed; and here ſoft water is univerſally allowed to be preferable to hard, both for the purpoſes of maſhing and fermentation. Tranſparency is however more eaſily obtained by the uſe of hard than ſoft water; firſt, from its inaptitude to extract ſuch an abundance of that light mucilaginous matter, which, floating in the beer for a long time, occaſions it to be turbid; 2dly, from its greater tendency to a ſtate of quietude after the vinous fermentation is finiſhed, by which thoſe floating particles are more diſpoſed to ſubſide; and, laſtly, from the mutual aggregations of the earthy particles of the water with thoſe of the materials, which, by their great ſpecific gravity thus aggregated, not only precipitate themſelves, but carry down alſo that lighter mucilage juſt mentioned. For theſe reaſons, hard water is not well adapted to the brewing of porter, to ſuch beers as require a fulneſs of palate as in the London brewery, and ſome country ſituations. The purity of water is determined by its lightneſs; and in this reſpect, diſtilled water only can claim any material degree of perfection. Rain water is the pureſt of all naturally produced: but having once deſcended to the ſurface of the earth, it is liable to a variety of intermixtures unfavourable to the purpoſes of brewing. With regard to others, though a matter of conſiderable importance, no preciſe rule can be laid down. Where there is liberty of choice, a preference ſhould doubtleſs be given to that water which, from natural purity, equally free from the auſtetity of ſaline ſubſtances and the rankneſs of vegetable putrefaction, has a ſoft fulneſs upon the palate, is totally flavourleſs, inodorous, and colourleſs; whence it is the better prepared for the reception and retention of ſuch qualities as the proceſs of brewing is to communicate.

(6.) BREWING, QUANTITY OF HEAT REQUISITE FOR. The next thing to be conſidered is the proper *degree of heat* to be employed in making the infuſion: and here it is evident, that though this muſt be very material to the ſucceſs of the operation, it is extremely difficult, perhaps impoſſible, to fix upon a preciſe ſtandard that ſhall at all times fully anſwer the purpoſe. On this ſubject Mr Richardſon ſays: "The quality of the ſaccharine part of malt reſembles that of common ſugar, to which it is practicable to reduce it; and its characteriſtical properties are entirely owing to its intimate connection with the other parts of the malt, from which ſuch diſtinguiſhing flavours of beers are derived as are not the immediate reſult of the hop. Were it not for theſe properties, the brewer might adopt the uſe of ſugar, molaſſes, honey, or the ſweet of any vegetable, to equal advantage: which cannot now be done, unleſs an eligible ſuccedaneum be found to anſwer that purpoſe. As we are at preſent circumſtanced, a ſearch on the other ſide would turn more to the brewer's account. We have in malt a ſuperabundance of the groſſer principles; and would government permit the introduction of a foreign addition to the ſaccharine, which is too deficient, many valuable improvements might be made from it; as we could, by a judicious application of ſuch adventitious principle, produce a 2d and 3d wort, of quality very little inferior to the firſt. But in theſe experiments a very particular attention would be neceſſary to the ſolvent powers of the water at different degrees of heat, and to the inquiry how far a menſtruum ſaturated with one principal may be capable of diſſolving another. Such a conſideration is the more neceſſary on this occaſion to direct us clear of two extremes equally diſagreeable; the firſt is, that of applying the menſtruum pure, and at ſuch a heat as to bring off an over proportion of the oleaginous and earthy principles, which would occaſion in the beer, thus wanting its natural ſhare of ſaccharum, a harſhneſs and auſterity which ſcarce any time the brewer could allow would be able to diſſipate; the other is, that of previouſly loading the menſtruum with the adopted ſweet in ſuch abundance as to deſtroy its ſolvent force upon the characteriſtical qualities we wiſh to unite with it, and thereby leave it a mere ſolution of ſugar. The requiſite mean is that of conſidering what portion of the ſaccharine quality has been extracted in the firſt wort, according to the quality of water, and degree of heat applied; and then to make ſuch a previous addition of artificial ſweet as will juſt ſerve to counterbalance the deficiency, and aſſimilate with that portion of the remaining principles we are taught to expect will be extracted with the ſucceeding wort From the nature of the conſtituent principles of malt, it is eaſy to conceive, that the former, or ſaccharine or mucilaginous parts, yield moſt readily to the impreſſion of water, and that at ſo low a degree of heat as would have no viſible effect upon the latter. If therefore we are to have a certain proportion of every part, it is a rational inference, that the means of obtaining it reſt in a judicious variation of the extracting heat according to the ſeveral proportions required. A low degree of heat, acting principally upon the ſaccharum, produces a wort replete with a rich ſoft ſweet, fully impregnated with its attendant mucilage, and in quantity much exceeding that obtainable from increaſed heat; which, by its more powerful inſinuation into the body of the malt acting upon all the parts together, extracts a conſiderable portion of the oleaginous and earthy principles, but falls ſhort in ſoftneſs, fulneſs, ſweetneſs, and quantity. This is occaſioned by the coagulating property of the mucilage, which, partaking of the nature of flour, has a tendency to run into paſte in proportion to the increaſe of heat applied; by which means it not only locks up a conſiderable part of the ſaccharum contained therein, but retains with it a proportionate quantity of the extracting liquor, which would otherwiſe have drawn out of the impriſoned ſweet, thence leſſening both the quantity and quality of the worts. And this has ſometimes

times been known to have had ſo powerful an effect, as to have occaſioned the *ſetting of the goods*, or the uniting the whole into a paſty maſs; for though heat increaſes the ſolvent powers of water in moſt inſtances, there are ſome in which it totally deſtroys them. Such is the preſence of flour, which it converts into paſte; beſides thoſe of blood, eggs, and ſome other animal ſubſtances, which it invariably tends to harden. From a knowledge of theſe effects, we form our ideas of the variations neceſſary in the heat of the extracting liquor; which are of more extenſive utility than has yet been intimated, though exceedingly limited in their extent from one extreme to the other. The moſt common effects of too low a heat, beſides ſometimes producing immediate acidity, are an inſipidity of the flavour of the beer, and a want of early tranſparency, from the ſuperabundance of mucilaginous matter extracted by ſuch heats, which, after the utmoſt efforts of fermentation, will leave the beer turbid with ſuch a cloud of its lighter feculencies as will require the ſeparation and precipitation of many months to diſperſe. The contrary application of too much heat, at the ſame time that it leſſens the mucilage, has, as we have ſeen before, the effect of diminiſhing the ſaccharum alſo; whence that lean thin quality obſervable in ſome beers; and, by extracting an over proportion of oleaginous and earthy particles, renders the buſineſs of fermentation difficult and precarious, and impreſſes an auſterity on the flavour of the liquor which will not eaſily be effaced. Yet the true medium heat for each extract cannot be univerſally aſcertained. An attention not only to the quality of the malt, but to the quantity wetted, is abſolutely neceſſary to the obtaining every due advantage; nor muſt the period at which the beer is intended for uſe be omitted in the account. The quality of the water alſo claims a ſhare in the conſideration, in order to ſupply that deficient thinneſs and want of ſolvent force in hard, and to allow for the natural fulneſs and fermentative quality of ſoft—a particular to which London in a great meaſure owes the peculiar mucilaginous and nutricious quality of its malt liquors. Although the variations above alluded to are indiſpenſable, it is eaſy to conceive, from the ſmall extent of the utmoſt variety, that they cannot be far diſtant. If therefore we know that a certain degree extracts the firſt principles in a certain proportion, we need not much conſideration to fix upon another degree that ſhall produce the required proportion of the remaining qualities, and effect that equal diſtribution of parts in the extract which it is the buſineſs of fermentation to form into a conſiſtent whole."

(2.) BREWING, USE OF BOILING THE WORTS, &c. IN. The principal uſe of *boiling the worts* is to ſeparate the groſſer parts of the extract, preparatory to that more minute ſeparation which is to be effected in the guile tun. The eye is a very competent judge of this effect; for the contractions into which the continued action of boiling forms thoſe parts are obvious to the ſlighteſt inſpection, whilſt the perfect tranſparency of the ſlices of the worts points out its utility in giving that deſirable quality in the beer. The coagulable parts are formed from the ſuperabundant mucilage already mentioned; and hence they are found in a greater proportion in the firſt worts than in thoſe that come after; at the ſame time, they are in theſe laſt ſo mingled with a quantity of oleaginous matter, that they become much more difficultly coagulable in the weak worts than in ſuch as are ſtronger; and hence theſe require to be much longer boild than the others. During this operation the *hops* are generally added, which are abſolutely neceſſary to prevent the too great tendency of beer to acidity. The fine eſſential oil of hops being moſt volatile, and ſooneſt extracted, we are thence taught the advantage of boiling the firſt wort no longer than is ſufficient to form the extract, without expoſing it to the action of the fire ſo long as to diſſipate the finer parts of this moſt valuable principle, and defeat the purpoſes of it. To the ſubſequent worts, we can afford a larger allowance, and purſue the means of preſervation ſo long as we can keep in view thoſe of flavour; to which no rules can poſitively direct, the proceſs varying with every variety of beer, and differing as eſſentially in the production of porter and pale ale, as the modes of producing wine and vinegar. The effects of not allowing a ſufficient time for the due ſeparation of the parts of the wort, and extraction of the requiſite qualities of the hop, muſt be obvious. If we proceed to the other extreme, we have every thing to apprehend from the introduction of too large a quantity of the groſſer principles of the hop, which are very inimical to fermentation; and from impairing the fermentative quality of the worts themſelves, by ſuffering their too long expoſure to the action of the fire, whereby they are reduced to a more denſe conſiſtence, and their parts too intimately blended to yield the ſeparating force of fermentation. The laſt ſtep in the proceſs of brewing is to *ferment the liquor* properly; for if this is not done, whatever care and pains have been taken in the other parts, they will be found altogether inſufficient to produce the beverage we deſire. The firſt thing to be done here is to procure a proper ferment. There are only two kinds of artificial ferments procurable in large quantity, and at a low price, viz. beer-yeſt, and wine-lees. Brewers have found it a conſiderable difficulty to procure theſe ferments in ſufficient quantities, and preſerve them conſtantly ready for uſe; and this has been ſo great a diſcouragement to the buſineſs, that ſome have endeavoured to produce other ferments, or to form mixtures or compounds of particular fermentable ingredients. See BAKING, § 2. BARM, § 2. and YEST. The greateſt circumſpection is neceſſary in regard to the quality of the ferment. It muſt be choſen perfectly ſweet and freſh; for all ferments are liable to grow muſty. If the ferment is ſour, it muſt by no means be uſed for any liquor; for it will communicate its flavour to the whole, and give it an *acetous*, inſtead of a vinous tendency. When the proper quantity is got ready, it muſt be put to the liquor in a ſtate barely tepid. The whole intended quantity being looſely mixed in ſome of the luke-warm liquor, and kept covered, and in a warm ſituation, more of the inſenſibly warm liquor ought, at proper intervals, to be added, till by degrees the whole quantity is put together. When the

whole

whole is thus fet at work, fecured in a proper degree of warmth, and kept from a too free intercourfe with the external air, it becomes as it were the bufinefs of nature to finifh the procefs. In the operation of fermentation, however, the degree of heat employed is of the utmoft conſequence. In forming the extracts of the malt, the variation of a few degrees of heat produces an important difference in the effect. In the heat of fermentation, fimilar conſequences are the refult. Under a certain regulation of the procefs, we can retain in the beer the finer mucilage, and thereby preſerve that fulneſs upon the palate which is by many ſo much admired. On the other hand, by a ſlight alteration, we can throw it off, and produce that evenneſs and uniformity of flavour which has ſcarce any characteriſtical property, and is preferred by ſome only for want of that heavineſs which they complain of in full beers. If a more vinous racy ale be required, we can, by collecting and confining the operation within the body of the wort, cauſe the operation of ſuch an abundant portion of the oleaginous principle, as to produce a liquor in a perfect ſtate at the earlieſt period and ſo highly flavoured as to create a ſuſpicion of an adventitious mixture. But though all this may be done, and often has been done, the proper management of fermenting liquors depends ſo much upon a multiplicity of ſlight and ſeemingly unimportant circumſtances, that it has never yet been laid down in an intelligible manner; and no rules, drawn from any thing hitherto publiſhed on the ſubject of brewing, can be rendered at all ſufficient to direct any perſon in this matter, unleſs he has had conſiderable opportunities of obſerving the practice in a brewhouſe.

* BREWIS. *n. ſ.* 1. A piece of bread ſoaked in boiling fat pottage, made of ſalted meat. 2. It ſeems anciently to have meant broth.—What an ocean of *brewis* ſhall I ſwim in? *Beaumont and Fletcher's Diſciplina.*

BREWOOD, a neat town, 10 miles S. by W. of Stafford, and 129 of London. It has a fair Sept. 19, and a market on Tueſday.

BREY, a town of Germany on the frontiers of Brabant, now included in one of the new departments of France. It is ſeated on a rivulet, 14 m. N. of Maeſtricht. Lon. 5. 39. E. Lat. 51. 4. N.

To BREYDE, *v. n. obſ.* To ſtart. *Chaucer.*

BREYNAND, a river in Pembrokeſhire.

BREYNIA, in botany, a ſynonime of the capparis. See CAPPARIS.

BRIACHLISH, an ancient pariſh in Inverneſsſhire, annexed to that of PETTY.

BRIAL POINT, a town in Down, Ireland.

To BRIAN, *v. a.* To keep fire in an oven.

BRIANCON, a town of France in the department of Upper Alps, and ci-devant province of Dauphiny. It has a fine bridge over the Durance, 180 feet high, and a ſtrong caſtle on a ſteep rock. It lies 17 miles NW. of Embrun, and 45 E. of Grenoble. Lon. 6. 25. E. Lat. 44. 45. N.

BRIANCONNOIS, a ci-devant territory of France, in Dauphiny, which was bounded by Grenoblois, Gapenzois, Ambrunois, Piedmont, and Savoy. It comprehends ſeveral valleys, which lie among the mountains of the Alps: and though it is extremely cold, yet it is fertile in corn and paſtures. The inhabitants have a great deal of wood; yet they chooſe to be in the ſtables with their cattle ſix months in the year, to keep themſelves warm. Briancon is the capital town. Manna is gathered near it, on the leaves and branches of a ſpecies of pine, which, when inciſions are made in it, affords great quantities. The chief road from France to Italy paſſes through it. It is now comprehended in the department of UPPER ALPS.

BRIANSCOMBE, a village in Dorſetſhire, 2 miles E. of Corſe-Caſtle.

BRIAN'S-FORD, in Down county, Ireland.

BRIAN'S-PIDDLE, near Affpiddle, Dorſetſh.

BRIANSTON, near Blandford, Dorſetſhire.

* BRIAR. *n. ſ.* See BRIER.

BRIARACHAN, a river in Perthſhire, in the diſtrict of Strathardle.

BRIARE, a town of France, in the department of Loiret and late province of Orleans, ſeated on the Loire. It has a long ſtreet full of inns and farriers, being on the great road to Lyons; and a canal, which is 33 miles in length, and connects the Loire and the Seine; whereby a communication is kept open between Paris and the Atlantic, through a long extent of the interior of France. It is 35 miles SE. of Orleans, and 88 S. of Paris. Lon. 2. 47. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

BRIAREUS, in fabulous hiſtory, a giant, the ſon of Æther, Titan, or Cœlus, and Terra. This was his name in heaven; on earth he was called ÆGEON. He was of ſingular ſervice to Jupiter, when Juno, Pallas, Neptune, and the reſt of the gods, endeavoured to bind him in chains and dethrone him. Afterwards, however, he conſpired with the reſt of his gigantic brethren to dethrone Jupiter. Virgil, on this occaſion, deſcribes him as having 100 hands, 50 heads, and breathing out fire. The fable ſays, that Jupiter, to puniſh him, threw him under mount Ætna, which, as often as he moves, belches out fire.

BRIAVAL'S, ST, a village in Glouceſterſhire, 4 miles from Colford.

(1.) * BRIBE. *n. ſ.* [*Bribe*, in French, originally ſignifies a piece of bread, and is applied to any piece taken from the reſt; it is therefore likely, that a *bribe* originally ſignified, among us, a ſhare of any thing unjuſtly got.] A reward given to pervert the judgment or corrupt the conduct —

You have condemn'd and noted Lucius Pella,
For taking *bribes* here of the Sardians. *Shakeſp.*

Nor leſs my Jupiter to gold aſcribe,
When he turn'd himſelf into a *bribe*. *Waller.*

—If a man be covetous, profits or *bribes* may put him to the teſt.—

There's joy when to wild will you laws preſcribe,
When you bid fortune carry back her *bribe*. *Dryden.*

(2.) BRIBE anciently imported as much as *panis mendicatus*, which ſtill keeps up the idea of the matter whereof bribes anciently conſiſted. Hence alſo the Spaniards uſe *bribar* and *brivar* for *begging*; and *brivias*, *brivoneria* and *brivoniſſimo*, for *beggary*. In authors of the middle age, a bribe given a judge is called *quato litis*, and the receiver, *canopi particeps*, or *combi particeps*; becauſe the ſpoils of the field, i. e. the profits of the cauſe, were thus ſhared with the giver.

* *To* BRIBE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To gain by bribes; to give bribes, rewards, or hire, to bad purposes.—

The great, 'tis true, can ſtill th' electing tribe,
The bard may ſupplicate, but cannot *bribe*.
Prologue to Good-natur'd Man.

2. It is ſeldom, and not properly, uſed in a good ſenſe.—

How pow'rful are chaſte vows! the wind and tide
You *brib'd* to combat on the Engliſh ſide. *Dryd.*

* BRIBER. *n. ſ.* [from *bribe*.] One that pays for corrupt practices.—Affection is ſtill a *briber* of judgment; and it is hard for a man to admit a reaſon againſt the thing he loves; or to confeſs the force of an argument againſt an intereſt. *South.*

(1.) * BRIBERY. *n. ſ.* [from *bribe*.] The crime of taking or giving rewards for bad practices.—There was a law made by the Romans, againſt the *bribery* and extortion of the governours of provinces: before, ſays Cicero, the governours did bribe and extort as much as was ſufficient for themſelves; but now they bribe and extort as much as may be enough not only for themſelves, but for judges, jurors, and magiſtrates. *Bacon.*—No *bribery* of courts, or cabals or factions, or advantages of fortune, can remove him from the ſolid foundations of honour and fidelity. *Dryden.*

(2.) BRIBERY, in law, is a high offence, where a perſon in a judicial place takes any fee, gift, reward, or brokage, for doing his office, but of the king only. It ſignifies alſo the receiving or offering any undue reward to or by any perſon concerned in the adminiſtration of public juſtice, whether judge, officer, &c. to act contrary to his duty; and ſometimes it ſignifies the taking or giving a reward for a public office.—In the eaſt it is the cuſtom never to petition any ſuperior for juſtice, not excepting their kings, without a preſent. This is calculated for the genius of deſpotic countries; where the true principles of government are never underſtood, and where it is thought, that there is no obligation due from the ſuperior to the inferior, no relative duty owing from the governor to the governed. The Roman law, though it contained many ſevere injunctions againſt bribery, as well for ſelling a man's vote in the ſenate or other public aſſembly, as for the bettering of common juſtice; yet, by a ſtrange indulgence, it tacitly encouraged this practice, in one caſe; allowing magiſtrates to receive ſmall preſents, provided they did not on the whole exceed 100 crowns a-year; not conſidering the inſinuating nature and gigantic progreſs of this vice, when once admitted. Plato, therefore, in his ideal republic, orders thoſe who take preſents for doing their duty to be puniſhed in the ſevereſt manner: and by the laws of Athens, he that offered a bribe was alſo proſecuted, as well as he that received a bribe. In England this offence is puniſhed, in inferior officers, with fine and impriſonment; and in thoſe that offer a bribe, though not taken, the ſame. But in judges, eſpecially the ſuperior ones, it has always been looked upon as ſo heinous an offence, that the chief juſtice Thorpe was hanged for it in the reign of Edward III. By a ſtatute, 11 Henry IV. all judges and officers of the king, convicted of bribery, ſhall forfeit treble the bribe, be puniſhed at the king's will, and be diſcharged from his ſervice for ever. And ſome notable examples have been made in parliament, of perſons in the higheſt ſtations, and otherwiſe very eminent and able, but contaminated with this ſordid vice. Thus in the reign of king James I. the earl of M. lord treaſurer of England, being impeached by the commons, for refuſing to hear petitions referred to him by the king, till he had received bribes, &c. was, by ſentence of the lords, deprived of all his offices, and diſabled to hold any, or to ſit in parliament; he was alſo fined 50,000l. and impriſoned during the king's pleaſure. In the 11th of king George I. the lord chancellor M—— was impeached by the commons for bribery, in ſelling the places of maſters in chancery, for exorbitant ſums, and other corrupt practices, tending to the great loſs of the ſuitors of that court; and the charge being made good, he was ſentenced to pay a fine of 30,000l. and to be impriſoned till it was paid. It is ſaid that one of the peers, if not two, who voted againſt him, had been poſſeſſed of the office of chancellor, and ſold the places of maſters in chancery when vacant.

(3.) BRIBERY IN ELECTIONS. See ELECTIONS.

BRIBOR, or } *n. ſ.* in law, a thief; one who
BRIBOUR, } pilfers another man's goods.

BRICHENDEN, a village near Hertford.

BRICIANI, a military order, inſtituted by St Bridget, queen of Sweden, who gave them the conſtitutions of thoſe of Malta and St Auguſtin. It was approved by Pope Urban V. The Bricianni were to fight for the burying of the dead, to relieve and aſſiſt widows, orphans, the lame, ſick, &c.

(I.) * BRICK. *n. ſ.* [*brick*, Dutch; *brique*, Fr. according to *Menage*, from *imbrex*, Lat. whence *brica*.] 1. A maſs of burnt clay, ſquared for the uſe of builders.—For whatſoever doth ſo alter a body, as it returneth not again to what it was, may be called *alteratio major*; as coals made of wood, or *bricks* of earth. *Bacon.*—They generally gain enough by the rubbiſh and *bricks*, which the preſent architects value much beyond thoſe of a modern make, to defray the charges of their ſearch. *Addiſon.*—

But ſpread, my ſons, your glory thin or thick,
On paſſive paper, or on ſolid *brick*. *Pope.*

2. A loaf ſhaped like a brick.

(II.) BRICK, a fat reddiſh earth, formed into long ſquares, 4 inches broad, and 8 or 9 long, by a wooden mould, and then baked or burnt in a kiln, to ſerve the purpoſes of building. Bricks are commonly red, though there are ſome of a white colour; for which ſort Walpit in Suffolk is famous.

(III.) BRICKS, ANCIENT. Bricks are of great antiquity, as appears by the ſacred writings, the tower and walls of Babylon being built with them. The Greeks chiefly uſed 3 kinds of bricks; the firſt whereof was called πλινθος, *i. e.* of 2 palms; the ſecond, τετραδωρον, of 4 palms; the third πεντεδωρον, of 5 palms. They had alſo bricks, juſt half each of thoſe, to render their works more ſolid, and alſo more agreeable to the ſight, by the diverſities of the figures and ſizes of the bricks. The dimenſions of the brick chiefly uſed by the Ro-

long, and a foot broad; which meaſures agree with thoſe of ſeveral Roman bricks in England, which are about 17 inches long, and 11 broad, of our meaſure. Sir Henry Wotton ſpeaks of a ſort of bricks at Venice, of which ſtately columns were built; they were firſt formed in a circular mould, and cut before they were burnt, into 4 or more quarters or ſides; afterwards, in laying, they were jointed ſo cloſe, and the points concentered ſo exactly, that the pillars appeared one entire piece.

(IV.) BRICKS, METHOD OF MAKING. Bricks may be made of any earth that is clear of ſtones, even ſea ouſe; but all will not burn red, a property peculiar to earths which contain ferruginous particles. In England, bricks are chiefly made of hazely, yellowiſh coloured, fatty earth, ſomewhat reddiſh, vulgarly called *loam*. The earth, according to Leibourn, ought to be dug before winter, but not made into bricks before ſpring. For the making of ſuch bricks as will ſtand the fierceſt fires, Sturbridge clay or Windſor loam are eſteemed the beſt. In general, the earth whereof bricks are made, ought not to be too fatty, which would render them heavy and brittle; nor too fat, which would make them crack in drying. The firſt ſtep in the proceſs of brick-making is caſting the clay. The next ſtep is to tread or temper it, which ought to be performed doubly of what is uſually done; ſince the goodneſs of the bricks depends chiefly upon this firſt preparation. The earth itſelf, before it is wrought, is generally brittle and duſty; but adding ſmall quantities of water gradually to it, and working and incorporating it together, it opens its body, and tinges the whole with a tough, gluey hand or ſubſtance. If, in the tempering, they are watered, they become dry and brittle, almoſt as the earth they are made of; whereas, if duly tempered, they become ſmooth and ſolid, hard, and durable. A brick of this laſt ſort takes up near as much earth as a brick and a half made the contrary way; in which the bricks are ſpongy, light, and full of cracks, partly through want of due wetting, and partly by mixing of aſhes and light ſandy earth to make it work eaſy with greater diſpatch; as alſo to ſave culm or coals in the burning. Bricks made of good earth, and well tempered, as they become ſolid and ponderous, ſo they take up a longer time in drying and burning than the common ones. The well drying of bricks before they are burned, prevents their cracking and crumbling in the burning. Bricks are burnt either in a kiln or clamp. Thoſe that are burnt in a kiln, are firſt ſet in it; and then the kiln being covered with pieces of bricks, ſome wood is put in to dry them with a gentle fire; and this is continued till the bricks are pretty dry, which is known by the ſmoke turning from a darkiſh to a tranſparent colour: Then proceed to make ready for burning; which is performed by putting in bruſh, furze, ſpray, heath, brake, or fern faggots: but before any faggots are put in, the mouths of the kiln are dammed up with pieces of bricks, called *ſtinkers*, piled up one upon another, and cloſed up with wet brick-earth inſtead of mortar. The ſhinlog is made ſo high, that there is but juſt room above it to thruſt in a faggot. More faggots are then put in, and its arches look white, and the fire appears at the top of the kiln; upon which the fire is ſlackened for an hour, and all cooled by degrees. This is continued, alternately heating and ſlacking, till the ware be thoroughly burnt, which is uſually effected in 48 hours. About London the brick-makers chiefly burn in *clamps*, built of the bricks, after the manner of arches in kilns, with a vacancy between each brick, for the fire to play through; but with this difference, that inſtead of arching, they ſpan it over by making the bricks project one over another on both ſides of the place, for the wood and coals to lie in till they meet, and are bounded by the bricks at the top, which cloſe all up. The place for the fuel is carried up ſtraight on both ſides, till about 3 feet high; then they almoſt fill it with wood, and over that lay a covering of ſea-coal, and then overſpan the arch; but they ſtrew ſea-coal alſo over the clamp, betwixt all the rows of bricks; laſtly, they kindle the wood, which gives fire to the coal; and when all is conſumed, then they conclude the bricks to be ſufficiently burnt.

(V.) BRICKS, MODERN VARIETIES OF. The ordinary Paris brick is 8 inches long, 4 broad, and 2 thick, French meaſure, which makes ſomething more than ours. But this ſmallneſs is an advantage to a building, the ſtrength of which conſiſts much in the multitude of angles and joints, at leaſt if well laid, and having a good bond. Bricks among us are various, according to their forms, dimenſions, uſes, method of making, &c. The principal are,

1. BRICKS, BUTTRESS, OR PLASTER, with a notch at one end, half the breadth of the brick; their uſe is to bind the work which is built of great brick.

2. BRICKS, CAPING, formed on purpoſe for caping of walls.

3. BRICKS, CLINKER, bricks glazed by the heat of the fire in making.

4. BRICKS, COGGING, are uſed for making the indented works under the caping of walls built with great bricks.

5. BRICKS, COMPASS, are of a circular form, uſed in ſteyning of walls.

6. BRICKS, CONCAVE, OR HOLLOW, on the one ſide flat like a common brick, on the other hollowed, and uſed for the conveyance of water.

7. BRICKS, DUTCH, or FLEMISH, are uſed to pave yards, ſtables, and for ſoap-boilers vaults and ciſterns.

8. BRICKS, FEATHER-EDGED, which are like common ſtatute bricks, only thinner on one edge than the other, and uſed for penning up the brick pannels in timber buildings.

9. BRICKS, GREAT, are 12 inches long, 6 broad, and 3 thick, uſed to build fence-walls.

10. BRICKS, SAMEL, OF SANDEL, ſuch as lie outmoſt in a kiln or clamp, and conſequently ſoft and uſeleſs, not being thoroughly burnt.

11. BRICKS, STATUTE, or ſmall common bricks, ought, when burnt, to be 9 inches long, 4½ broad, and 2¼ thick; they are commonly uſed in paving cellars, ſinks, hearths, &c.

(VI.) BRICKS, NEW KIND OF, PROPOSED. Worlidge and others have endeavoured to excite brick-

makers to try their ſkill in making a new kind of brick, or a compoſition of clay and ſand, whereof to form window-frames, chimney-pieces, door-caſes, and the like. It is to be made in pieces faſhioned in moulds, which, when burnt may be ſet together with a fine red cement, and ſeem as one entire piece, by which may be imitated all manner of ſtone work. The thing ſhould ſeem feaſible, by the earthen pipes made fine, thin, and durable, to carry water under-ground at Portſmouth; and by the earthen backs and grates for chimneys, formerly made by Sir John Winter, of a great bigneſs and thickneſs. If chimney-pieces thus made in moulds, and dried and burnt, were not found ſmooth enough, they might be poliſhed with ſand and water; or were care taken, when they were half dry in the air, to have them poliſhed with an inſtrument of copper or iron, then leave them till they were dry enough to burn, it is evident they would not want much poliſhing afterwards. The work might even be glazed, as potters do their fine earthen ware, either white or of any other colour; or it might be veined in imitation of marble, or painted with figures of various colours, which would be much cheaper, perhaps equally durable, and as beautiful, as marble itſelf.

(VII.) BRICKS, OIL OF, olive oil imbibed by the ſubſtance of bricks, and afterwards diſtilled from it. This oil was once in great repute for curing many diſeaſes, but is now juſtly laid aſide.

(VIII.) BRICKS, PATENT. Mr Cartwright's patent bricks are a capital improvement. The following account of them was given in the ſpecification, dated April 14, 1795. "The principle of this invention will readily be comprehended, by ſuppoſing the two oppoſite ſides of a common brick to have a groove or rabbet down the middle, which muſt be a little more than half the width of the ſide of the brick in which it is made; there will then be left a ſhoulder on each ſide of the groove, each of which ſhoulders will be nearly equal to one quarter of the width of the ſide of the brick, or to one half of the groove or rabbet. See *Plate* XLII. *fig.* 11. A courſe of theſe bricks being laid ſhoulder to ſhoulder, as in *fig.* 15, they will form an indented line, of nearly equal diviſions; the grooves or rabbets being ſomewhat wider than the two adjoining ſhoulders, to allow for mortar, &c. When the next courſe comes on, the ſhoulders of the bricks which compoſe it will fall into the grooves of the firſt courſe; and the ſhoulders of the firſt courſe will fit into the grooves or rabbets of the 2d; and ſo on, as is clearly ſhewn in the plate. This mode of ſhaping the bricks is to be preferred, as being perfectly ſimple; the principle, however, will be preſerved, in whatever manner they may be made to lock into or cramp each other, by whatever form of indenture, or whether by one groove, or more. But it muſt be obſerved, in whatever manner the variation from the ſimple form *fig.* 11. is made, except by ſtraight line, the two ſides of the brick, &c. muſt proportionally vary, ſo that, when they come together in work, they may correſpond and fit, each other; an example of which is exhibited in *fig.* 12, where *a* and *b* ſhew the oppoſite ſides of a brick. This may make ſome ſmall ſaving in the expence, though perhaps not a prudent one, if the bricks, &c. were of ſuch a width as to admit a common brick, or piece of plain ſtone, between the ſhoulders of each of theſe bricks; in that caſe, the groove muſt be made proportionably wider. For the purpoſe of turning the angles, it may be expedient to have bricks or ſtones of ſuch ſize and ſhape as to correſpond with each wall reſpectively; this however is not abſolutely neceſſary, as the groove in the bricks, &c. of each wall, where they croſs or meet each other, may be levelled, and the bricks lap over, as in the common mode. For the purpoſe of breaking the joints in the depth of the walls, bricks will be required of different lengths, though of the ſame width. Buildings conſtructed with bricks of this principle, will require no bond timber, one univerſal bond running through, and connecting the whole building together; the walls of which can neither crack nor bulge out, without breaking through the bricks themſelves. When theſe bricks, &c. that is to ſay, of the ſimple form, *fig.* 11. are uſed for the conſtruction of arches, the ſides of the grooves and the ſhoulders ſhould be radii of the circle, of which the intended arch is to be a ſegment. See *fig.* 13, though, if the circle be very large, the difference of the width of the bricks, &c. at the top and bottom will be ſo trifling as to make a minute attention to this particular ſcarcely, if at all neceſſary. When theſe arches are required to be particularly flat, or are applied in ſuch ſituations as admit not of end walls, as in the conſtruction of bridges, &c. it may be expedient to have the ſhoulders dove-tailed, to prevent the arch cracking acroſs, or giving way endwiſe See *fig.* 14. If the bricks are as wide at the bottom as the top, the manner of putting them together by a dove-tail is obvious; when not ſo wide at the bottom as the top, on one ſide of the brick, &c. the ſides of the ſhoulders muſt be parallel, and on the other the ſides of the grooves or rabbets muſt be parallel, ſo that the two ſides of the bricks, &c. which fall together, may correſpond. See *fig.* 14. *b*, *c*. In forming an arch, the bricks muſt be courſed acroſs the centre on which the arch is turned, and a grooved ſide of the bricks muſt face the workmen. See *fig.* 16. It may be expedient, though not abſolutely neceſſary, in laying the firſt 2 or 3 courſes at leaſt, to begin at the crown, and work downwards each way. In archwork, the bricks, &c. may be either laid in mortar, or dry, and the interſtices afterwards filled and wedged up, by pouring in lime-putty, plaſter of Paris, grouting, or any other convenient material, at the diſcretion of the workman or builder, It is obvious that arches upon this principle, having no lateral preſſure, can neither expand at the foot nor ſpring at the crown; conſequently they will want no abutments, requiring only perpendicular walls to be let into, or to reſt upon; and they will want no ſuperincumbent weight upon the crown to prevent their ſpringing up, a circumſtance of great importance in many inſtances in the conſtruction of bridges Another advantage attending this mode of arching is that the centres may be ſtruck immediately; ſo that the ſame centre (which in no caſe need be many feet wide, whatever may be the breadth of the arch) may be regularly ſhifted, as the work proceeds.

proceeds. But the greateſt and moſt ſtriking advantage attending this invention is the abſolute ſecurity it affords, and at a very reaſonable rate, againſt the poſſibility of fire; for, from the peculiar properties of this arch, requiring no abutments, it may be laid upon, or let into, common walls no ſtronger than what are required for timbers, of which it will preclude the neceſſity, and ſave the expence."

(IX.) BRICKS, USEFUL EXPERIMENTS WITH. In Dr Percival's eſſays, Vol. I. p. 302, we have the following experiments of the effects of bricks in water. "Two or 3 pieces of common brick were ſteeped 4 days in a baſon full of diſtilled water. The water was then decanted off, and examined by various chemical teſts. It was immiſcible with ſoap, ſtruck a lively green with ſyrup of violets, was rendered ſlightly lacteſcent by the volatile alkali, and quite milky by the fixed alkali and by a ſolution of ſaccharum ſaturni. The infuſion of tormentil root produced no change in it." The experiment, he obſerves, affords a ſtriking proof of the impropriety of lining wells with brick, a practice very common in many places, and which cannot fail of rendering the water hard and unwholeſome. Clay generally contains a variety of heterogeneous matters. The coloured loams often participate of bitumen, and the ochre of iron. Sand and calcareous earth are ſtill more common ingredients in their compoſition; and the experiments of Mr Geoffrey and Mr Pott prove, that the earth of alum alſo may in large quantity be extracted from clay. Now as clay is expoſed to the open air for a long ſpace of time, is then moulded into bricks, and burnt, this proceſs reſembles in many reſpects that by which the alum ſtone is prepared. And it is probable that the white efflorescence, frequently obſervable on the ſurface of new bricks, is of an aluminous nature. The long expoſure of clay to the air, before it is moulded into bricks, the ſulphureous exhalations of the pit coal uſed for burning it, together with the ſuffocating and bituminous vapours, which ariſes from the ignited clay itſelf, ſufficiently account for the combination of a vitriolic acid with the earth of alum.

* *To* BRICK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To lay with bricks.—The ſexton comes to know where he is to be laid, and whether his grave is to be plain or *bricked*. *Swift.*

* BRICKBAT. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *bat*.] A piece of brick.—Earthen bottles, filled with hot water do provoke in bed a ſweat more daintily than *brickbats* hot. *Bacon.*

* BRICKCLAY. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *clay*.] Clay uſed for making brick.—I obſerved it in pits wrought for tile and *brickclay*. *Woodward.*

* BRICKDUST. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *duſt*.] Duſt made by pounding bricks.—This ingenious author, being thus ſharp ſet, got together a conſiderable quantity of *brickduſt*, and diſpoſed of it into ſeveral papers. *Spectator.*

* BRICKEARTH. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *earth*.] Earth uſed in making bricks.—They grow very well both on hazelly *brickearths*, and on gravel. *Mortimer.*

BRICKHAMPTON, a village in Glouceſterſhire, near Cheltenham,

BRICKHILL-BOW, BRICKHILL MAGNA, and BRICKHILL PARVA, } Three villages in Buckinghamſhire, near Woburn.

BRICKING, *n. ſ.* among builders, the counterfeiting of a brick wall on plaſter. It is done by ſmearing it over with red ochre, and making the joints with an edged tool; theſe laſt are afterwards filled with a fine plaſter.

* BRICK-KILN. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *kiln*.] A kiln; a place to burn bricks.—Like the Iſraelites in the *brick-kilns*, they multiplied the more for their oppreſſion. *Decay of Piety.*

(1.) * BRICKLAYER. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *lay*.] A man whoſe trade it is to build with bricks; a brick maſon.—

The elder of them, being put to nurſe,
And ignorant of his birth and parentage,
Became a *bricklayer* when he came to age.
Shakeſ.

If you had liv'd, ſir,
Time enough to have been interpreter
To Babel's *bricklayers*, ſure the tow'r had ſtood,
Donne.

(2.) BRICK-LAYERS in London are a regular company, which was incorporated in 1568; and conſiſts of a maſter, two wardens, 20 aſſiſtants, and 78 on the livery.

(3.) BRICK-LAYERS, MATERIALS AND TOOLS USED BY. Theſe are bricks, tyles, mortar, laths, nails, and tyle-pins. Their tools are a brick-trowel, wherewith to take up mortar; a brick-axe, to cut bricks to the determined ſhape; a ſaw, for ſawing bricks; a rub-ſtone, on which to rub them; a ſquare, wherewith to lay the bed or bottom, and face or ſurface of the brick, to ſee whether they are at right angles; a bevel, by which to cut the under ſides of bricks to the angles required; a ſmall trannel of iron, wherewith to mark the bricks; a float-ſtone, with which to rub a moulding of brick to the pattern deſcribed; a banker, to cut the bricks on; line-pins to lay their rows or courſes by; plumb-rule, whereby to carry their work upright; level, to conduct it horizontal; ſquare, to ſet off right angles; ten foot rod, wherewith to take dimenſions; jointer, wherewith to run the long joints; rammer, wherewith to beat the foundation; crow and pick-ax, wherewith to dig through walls.

BRICK-LAYING, the art of framing edifices of bricks. This buſineſs in London, includes tyling, walling, chimney-work, and paving with bricks and tyles. In the country it alſo includes the maſon's and plaſterer's buſineſs. Moxon has an expreſs treatiſe on the art of brick-laying; in which he deſcribes the materials, tools, and method of working, uſed by brick-layers. Great care is to be taken, that bricks be laid joint on joint in the middle of the walls as ſeldom as may be; and that there be good bond made there, as well as on the outſides. Some brick-layers, in working a brick and half wall, lay the header on one ſide of the wall perpendicular to the header on the other ſide, and ſo all along the whole courſe; whereas, if the header on one ſide of the wall were toothed as much as the ſtretcher on the other ſide, it would be a ſtronger toothing, and the joints of the headers of one ſide would be in the headers of the

courſe

courſe they lie upon of the other ſide. If bricks be laid in winter, let them be kept as dry as poſſible, if in ſummer, it will quit coſt to employ boys to wet them, for that they will then unite with the mortar better than if dry, and will make the work ſtronger. In large buildings, or where it is thought too much trouble to dip all the bricks ſeparately, water may be thrown on each courſe after they are la'd, as was done at the building the phyſician's college, by order of Dr Hooke. If brick are laid in ſummer, they are to be covered; for if the mortar dries too haſtily, it will not bind ſo firmly to the bricks as when left to dry more gradually. If the bricks be laid in winter, they ſhould alſo be covered well, to protect them from rain, ſnow and froſt; which laſt is a mortal enemy to mortar, eſpecially to all ſuch as have been wetted juſt before the froſt aſſaults it.

BRICKLEHAMPTON, a village in Worceſterſhire, near Perſhore.

BRICKLESEY, near Merſey iſle, Eſſex.

BRICKLEY-LODGE, in Needwood foreſt, Staffordſhire.

* BRICK-MAKER. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *make*.] One whoſe trade it is to make bricks.—They are common in claypits; but the *brickmakers* pick them out of the clay. *Woodward.*

BRICK-MAKING is moſtly performed at ſome ſmall diſtance from cities and towns: and though ſome, through ignorance, look upon it as a very mean employment, becauſe laborious, yet the maſters about London, and other capital cities, are generally men of ſubſtance. See BRICKS, § IV.

BRICK-RIVER, a river in Kerry, Ireland.

BRICKTON, a town in Hampſhire, near Fording-Bridge.

BRICKY, a river of Ireland, in Waterford.

BRICOIL, or BRICOLE, } The rebound of a ball, after a ſide ſtroke at tennis.

BRICOLS, engines uſed before the invention of gun-powder to batter the walls of towns and caſtles.

(1.) * BRIDAL. *adj.* [from *bride*.] Belonging to a wedding; nuptial; connubial.—

Our wedding chear to a ſad fun'ral feaſt,
Our ſolemn hymns to ſullen dirges change,
Our *bridal* flowers ſerved for a burried corſe.
Shakeſpeare.

Come, I will bring thee to thy *bridal* chamber. *Shakeſpeare.*

The amorous birds of night
Sung ſpouſal, and bid haſte the ev'ning ſtar,
On his hill-top to light the *bridal* lamp. *Milt.*

Your ill-meaning politician lords,
Under pretence of *bridal* friends and gueſts,
Appointed to await me thirty ſpies. *Milton.*

When to my arms thou brought'ſt my virgin love,
Fair angels ſung our *bridal* hymn above. *Dryd.*

With all the pomp of woe, and ſorrows pride!
Oh, early loſt! oh, fitter to be led
In chearful ſplendour to the *bridal* bed. *Walſh.*

For her the ſpouſe prepares the *bridal* ring,
For her white virgins hymenæals ſing. *Pope.*

(2.) * BRIDAL. *n. ſ.* The nuptial feſtival.—

Nay, we muſt think, men are not gods;
Nor of them look for ſuch obſervance always,
As fits the *bridal*. *Shakeſpeare's Othello.*

Sweet day, ſo cool, ſo calm, ſo bright,
The *bridal* of the earth and ſky,
Sweet dews ſhall weep thy fall to-night;
For thou muſt die. *Herbert.*

In death's dark bow'rs our *bridals* we will keep,
And his cold hand
Shall draw the curtain when we go to ſleep.
Dryden.

BRIDDISTOW, a village in Devonſhire, 4 m. SW. of Oakhampton.

(1.) * BRIDE. *n. ſ.* [*briid*, Saxon; *brudur*, in Runick, ſignifies a beautiful woman.] A woman new married.—

Held me mine own love's praiſes to reſound,
Ne let the fame of any be envy'd;
So Orpheus did for his own *bride*. *Spenſer.*

The day approach'd, when fortune ſhould decide
Th' important enterprize, and give the *bride*.
Dryden.

Theſe are tributes due from pious *brides*,
From a chaſte matron, and a virtuous wife.
Smith.

(2.) BRIDES, ANCIENT CUSTOMS RESPECTING. Among the ancient Greeks, it was cuſtomary for the bride to be conducted from her father's houſe to her huſband's in a chariot, the evening being choſen for that purpoſe, to conceal her bluſhes; ſhe was placed in the middle, her huſband ſitting on one ſide, and one of her moſt intimate friends on the other; torches were carried before her, and ſhe was entertained in the paſſage with a ſong ſuitable to the occaſion. When they arrived at their journey's end, the axle tree of the coach they rode in was burnt, to ſignify that the bride was never to return to her father's houſe.—Among the Romans, the bride was to ſeem to be ravaged by force from her mother, in memory of the rape of the Sabines under Romulus; ſhe was to be carried home in the night to the bridegroom's houſe, accompanied by 3 boys, one of whom carried a torch, and the other two led the bride; a ſpindle and diſtaff being carried with her: ſhe brought 3 pieces of money, called *aſſes*, in her hand to the bridegroom, whoſe doors on this occaſion were adorned with flowers and branches of trees; being here interrogated who ſhe was, ſhe was to anſwer *Caia*, in memory of Caia Cecilia, wife of Tarquin the Elder, who was an excellent ſpinſtreſs; for the like reaſon, before her entrance, ſhe lined the door poſts with wool, and ſmeared them with greaſe. Fire and water being ſet on the threſhold, ſhe touched both; but ſtarting back from the door, refuſed to enter, till at length ſhe paſſed the threſhold, being careful to ſtep over without touching it: here the keys were given her, a nuptial ſupper was prepared for her, and minſtrels to divert her; ſhe was ſeated on the figure of a priapus, and here the attendant boys reſigned her to the *pronubæ*, who brought her into the nuptial chamber and put her to bed. This office was to be performed by matrons who had only been once married, to denote that the marriage was to be for perpetuity.

* BRIDE-

* BRIDEBED. *n. f.* [from *bride* and *bed.*] Marriage bed.—

Now until break of day,
Through this houſe each fairy ſtray;
To the beſt *bride-bed* will we,
Which by us ſhall bleſſed be. *Shakeſpeare.*

Could David's ſon, religious, juſt and brave
To the firſt *bride-bed* of the world receive
A foreigner, a heathen, and a ſlave? *Prior.*

* BRIDECAKE. *n. f.* [from *bride* and *cake.*] A cake diſtributed to the gueſts at the wedding.—

With the phant'ſies of hey troll,
Troll about the bridal *bride-cake*
Round about the bride's ſtake. *Ben Jonſon.*

The writer, reſolved to try his fortune, faſted all day, and, that he might be ſure of dreaming upon ſomething at night, procured an handſome piece of *bride-cake*, which he placed very conveniently under his pillow. *Spectator.*

(1.) * BRIDEGROOM. *n. f.* [from *bride* and *groom.*] A new married man.—

As are thoſe dulcet ſounds in break of day,
That creep into the dreaming *bride-groom*'s ear.
And ſummon him to marriage. *Shakeſpeare.*

Why, happy *bride-groom!*
Why doſt thou ſteal ſo ſoon away to bed?
Dryden.

(2.) BRIDEGROOMS, ANCIENT CUSTOMS RELATING. The Spartan bridegrooms committed a kind of rape upon their brides. For matters being agreed on between them, the woman that contrived and managed the match, having ſhaved the bride's hair cloſe to her ſkin, dreſſed her up in man's clothes, and left her upon a mat-preſs: this done, in came the bridegroom, in his uſual dreſs, having ſupped as ordinary, and ſteals as privately as he could to the room where the bride lay, and untying her virgin girdle, took her to his embraces; and having ſtayed a ſhort while with her returned to his companions, with whom he continued to ſpend his life, remaining with them by night as well as by day, unleſs he made a ſhort viſit to his bride, which could not be done without a great deal of circumſpection, and fear of being diſcovered. Among the Romans, the bridegroom was decked to receive his bride; his hair was combed and cut in a particular form; he had a coronet or chaplet on his head and was dreſſed in a white garment. By the ancient canon, the bridegroom was to forbear the enjoyment of his bride the firſt night, in honour of the nuptial benediction given by the prieſt on that night. In Scotland, and ſome parts of England, a more ſhameful cuſtom anciently prevailed, called *marchet*, whereby the lord of the manor was entitled to the bridegroom's privilege with his tenant's bride the firſt night. See MARCHET. What intolerable oppreſſion muſt the lower claſſes have been laboured under, when ſuch iniquity was eſtabliſhed by law!

BRIDEKIRK, a village in Cumberland, 3 m. S. of Cockermouth.

* BRIDEMAIDS. } *n. f.* The attendants on the
* BRIDEMEN. } bride and bridegroom.

BRIDEMIF, in the Perſian Tables, the name of the conſtellation, LUPUS, or the Wolf.

BRIDENBURY, a village in Herefordſhire, near Bromyard.

BRIDE-RIVER, a river of Ireland, in Cork.

BRIDE, ST, two villages in Monmouthſhire. 1. near Iſton: 2. S. of Tredgar.

BRIDE'S BAY, ST, a bay on the coaſt of Pembrokeſhire, where ſhips anchor at 7 fathoms water.

BRIDE'S, ST, a town near Caernarvon.

* BRIDESTAKE. *n. f.* [from *bride* and *ſtake.*] It ſeems to be a poſt ſet in the ground, to dance round, like a maypole.—

Round about the *brideſtake*. *Ben Jonſon.*

(1.) * BRIDEWELL. *n. f.* [The palace built by St *Bride's*, or *Bridget's well*, was turned into a workhouſe.] A houſe of correction.—He would contribute more to reformation than all the workhouſes and *Bridewells* in Europe. *Spectator.*

(2.) BRIDEWELL, is alſo a workehouſe for vagrants, ſtrumpets, and other diſorderly perſons: who are made to work; being maintained with clothing and diet; and when it ſeems good to their governors, they are ſent by paſſes into their native countries. While they remain in Bridewell they are not only made to work, but, according to their crimes, receive, once a fortnight, ſuch a number of ſtripes as the governor commands.

(3.) BRIDEWELL, near Fleet-ſtreet, is a foundation of a mixt and ſingular nature, partaking of the hoſpital, the priſon, and workhouſe; it was founded in 1553, by Edward VI. who gave the place where K. John formerly kept his court, and which had been repaired by Henry VIII. to the city of London, with 700 merks of land, bedding, and other furniture. Several youths are ſent to the hoſpital as apprentices to manufacturers, who reſide there; they are clothed in blue doublets and breeches, with white hats. Having faithfully ſerved for 7 years, they have their freedom, and a donation of L. 10 each, for carrying on their reſpective trades.

(4.) BRIDEWELL, EDINBURGH, is ſeated on the Calton hill. The foundation ſtone was laid Nov. 30, 1791: and the firſt priſoners admitted in 1794. The expence was L. 12,000.

(1. 1.) * BRIDGE. *n. f.* [*bric*, Sax.] 1. A building raiſed over the water for convenience of paſſage.

What need the *bridge* much broader than the flood. *Shakeſpeare.*

And proud Araxes, whom no *bridge* could bind. *Dryden.*

2. The upper part of the noſe.—The raiſing gently the *bridge* of the noſe, doth prevent the deformity of a ſaddle noſe. *Bacon.* 3. The ſupporter of the ſtrings in ſtringed inſtruments of muſick.

(2.) BRIDGE, in architecture, is a work either of ſtone or timber, conſiſting of one or more arches built over a river, canal, or the like. See ARCHITECTURE, *Index*, CANAL, and MECHANICS.

(3.) BRIDGE, CONDITIONS REQUIRED IN A. It is requiſite that a bridge be well [illegible] commodious, durable, and [illegible] The piers of ſtone bridges ſhould [illegible] or number, that there may be one [illegible] commonly the [illegible] neſs is not to [illegible] of the arch. [illegible] commonly [illegible] linga, [illegible]

ſtrongeſt arches are thoſe whoſe ſweep is a whole ſemicircle; as the piers of bridges always diminiſh the bed of a river, in caſe of inundations, the bed muſt be ſunk or hollowed in proportion to the ſpace taken up by the piers, as the waters gain in depth what they loſe in breadth, which otherwiſe conduce to waſh away the foundation and endanger the piers: to prevent this, they ſometimes diminiſh the current, either by lengthening its courſe, or by making it more winding, or by ſtopping the bottom with rows of planks, ſtakes, or piles, which break the current.

(4.) BRIDGE, ESSENTIAL PARTS OF A. Theſe are, the piers; the arches; the pavement, or way over for cattle and carriages; the foot way on each ſide, for foot-paſſengers; the rail or parapet, which incloſes the whole; and the butments or ends of the bridge on the bank.

(5.) BRIDGE, IRON. See § 9. N° vi.

(5.) BRIDGES, ANCIENT. The firſt inventor of bridges, as well as of ſhips and crowns, is by ſome learned men ſuppoſed to be Janus: their reaſon is, that on ſeveral ancient Greek, Sicilian, and Italian coins, there are repreſented on one ſide a Janus, with two faces; and on the other a bridge, crown or a ſhip. Bridges are a ſort of edifices very difficult to execute on account of the inconvenience of laying foundations and walling under water. The earlieſt rules and inſtructions relating to the building of bridges are given by Leon Babtiſta Alberti. *Archit.* l. viii. Others were afterwards laid down by Palladio, l. iii. Serlio, l. iii. c. 4. and Scammozzi, l. v. all of which are collected by M. Blondel, *Cours d' Archit.* p. 629, *ſeq.* The beſt of them are given by Goldman, *Baukburſt*, l. iv. c. 4. p. 134. and Hawkeſmoor's Hiſtory of London bridge, p. 26, *ſeq.* M. Gautier has a piece expreſs on bridges, ancient and modern; *Trait des Ponts*, Paris 1716, 12mo. Among the Romans, the building and repairing of bridges was firſt committed to the pontifices or prieſts; whence the epithet, *pontifex. i. e.* a bridge-maker; then to the cenſors, or curators of the roads; laſtly, the emperors took the care of bridges into their own hands. Thus Antoninus Pius built the Pons Janiculenſis of marble; Gordian reſtored the Pons Ceſtius; and Adrian built a new one denominated from him. In the middle age, bridge building was reckoned among the acts of religion; and a regular order of Hoſpitallers was founded by St Benezet, towards the end of the 12th century, under the denomination of *pontifices*, or bridge-builders, whoſe office it was to be aſſiſtant to travellers, by making bridges, ſettling ferries and receiving ſtrangers in hoſpitals, or houſes built on the banks of rivers. We read of one hoſpital of this kind at Avignon, where the hoſpitallers dwelt under the direction of their firſt ſuperior St Benezet. The Jeſuit Raynaldus has a treatiſe expreſs on St John the bridge-builder. Among the bridges of antiquity, that built by Trajan over the Danube is allowed to be the moſt magnificent.

(7.) BRIDGES, FLOATING, are ordinarily made of two ſmall bridges, laid one over the other, ſo that the uppermoſt ſtretches and runs out, by the help of cords running through pullies placed along the ſides of the under bridge, which puſh it forwards till the end of it joins the place it is deſigned to be fixed on. When theſe two bridges are ſtretched out to their full length, ſo that the two middle ends meet, they are not to be above 4 or 5 fathoms long; for if longer, they will break.—Their chief uſe is for ſurpriſing out-works, or poſts that have but narrow moats. In the memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences we find an ingenious contrivance of a floating bridge, which lays itſelf on the other ſide of the river.

(8.) BRIDGES, FLYING, *Pontes ductorii*, an appellation given to bridges made of pontoons, leather boats, hollow beams, caſks, or the like, laid on a river, and covered with planks, for the paſſage of an army. A flying bridge, *pont volant*, more particularly denotes a bridge compoſed of one or two boats joined together by a ſort of flooring, and ſurrounded with a rail or baluſtrade; having alſo one or more maſts, to which is faſtened a cable, ſupported at proper diſtances, by boats, and extended to an anchor, to which the other end is faſtened, in the middle of the water: by which contrivance the bridge becomes moveable, like a pendulum from one ſide of the river to the other, without any other help than the rudder.—Such bridges ſometimes alſo conſiſt of two ſtories, for the quicker paſſage of a great number of men, or that both infantry and cavalry may paſs at the ſame time. In *Plate* XLIV, is repreſented a flying bridge of this kind. *Fig.* 1. gives a perſpective view of the courſe of a river and its two banks. *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, Two long boats or batteaux, which ſupport the flying bridge. GH, KL, two maſts joined at their tops by two tranſverſe pieces, or beams, and a central arch, and ſupported in a vertical poſition by two pair of ſhrouds and two chains LN, HR. M, a horſe, or croſs piece, over which the rope or cable M, F, *e*, *f*, that rides or holds the bridge againſt the current, paſſes. E, a roll or windlaſs round which the rope M, F, *e*, *f*, is wound. *a*, *b*, The rudders. AB, and CD, two portions of bridges of boats faſtened to the bank on each ſide, and between which the flying bridge moves in paſſing from one ſide of the river to the other. *e*, *f*, Chains ſupported by two punts, or ſmall flat-bottomed boats; there are 5 or 6 of theſe punts at a about 40 fathoms from one another. The firſt, or fartheſt from the bridge, is moored with anchors in the middle of the bed of the river. *Fig.* 2. Is a plan of the ſame bridge. *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, The two boats that ſupport it. K and G, the two maſts. K F G, the tranſverſe pieces of beam over which the cable paſſes. E, the roll, or windlaſs, round which the rope or cable is wound. *a*, *b*, The rudders, O, a boat. *e*, One of the punts, or ſmall flat-bottomed boats that ſupport the chain. N, N, pumps for extracting the water out of the boats. P, P, capſtans. *Fig.* 3. A lateral elevation of the bridge. *a*, *c*, One of the boats. *b*, The rudder. E, the roll, or windlaſs. M, The horſe, or croſs-piece. G H, One of the maſts. E, M, H, F, The cable. In this view the baluſtrade running along the ſide of the bridge is plainly exhibited. *Fig.* 4. Elevation of the hinder or ſtern part of the bridge. *a*, *b*, The two boats. G H, K L, The two maſts. H L, The upper tranſverſe beam. *p*, *g*, The lower tranſverſe beam, or that over which the cable paſſes, and on which

Fig. 4.

Fig. 7. Cat Head.

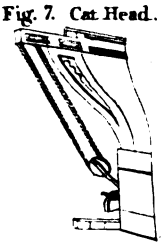
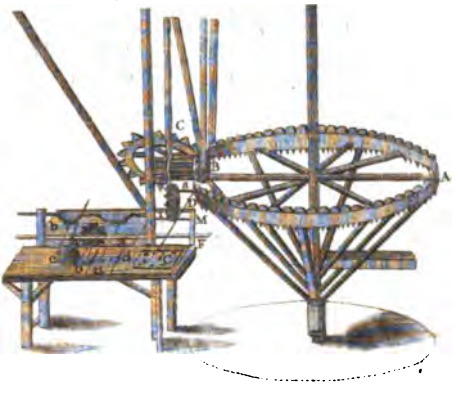


Fig. 8. Burroughs' Machine.



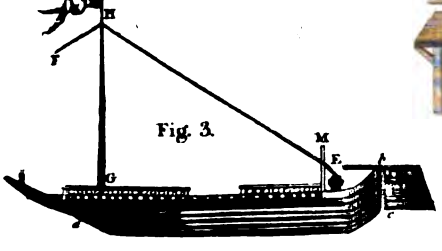


Fig. 3.

Fig. 5.

Fig. 2.

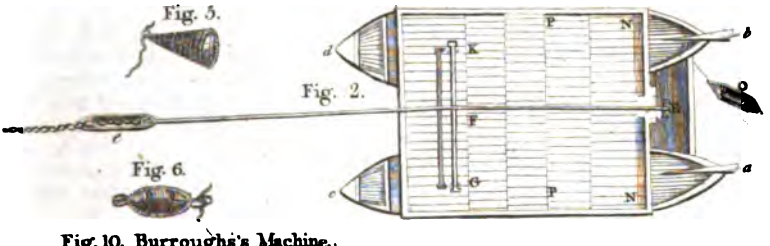


Fig. 6.

Fig. 10. Burroughs's Machine.

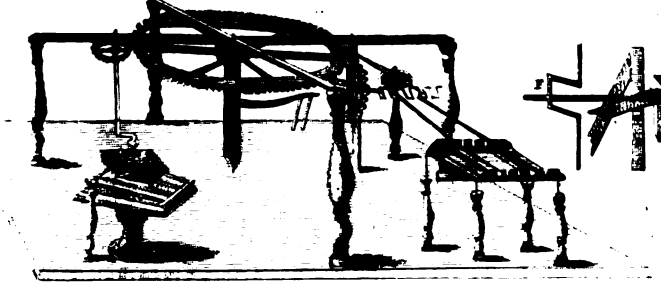
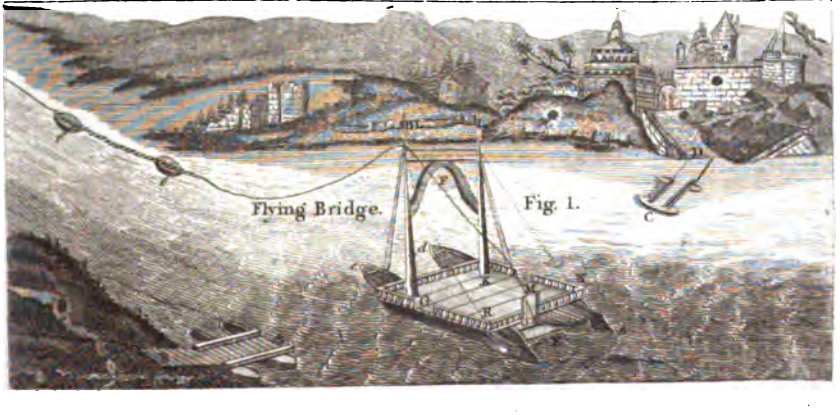


Fig. 9.



Flying Bridge.

Fig. 1.

Engraved for Rees's Cyclopedia Perthensis.

it ſides from one maſt to the other; this beam is therefore always kept well greaſed. *p*, *k*, *g*, *g*, ſhrowds extending from the ſides of the bridge to the tops of the maſts. M, The horſe or croſs-piece, over which the cable paſſes to the roll or windleſs E.

(9.) BRIDGES, MODERN. Amongſt the numerous bridges erected in modern times, we think the following merit particular notice: viz.

i. BRIDGE OF BLACKFRIARS, ſituated near the centre of London, and built according to a plan drawn by Mr Robert Mylne. It is an exceeding light and elegant ſtructure. The arches are only 9 in number; but very large, and of an elliptical form. The centre arch is 100 feet wide; thoſe on the ſides decreaſe in a regular gradation; and the width of that near the abutment at each end is 70 feet. It has an open baluſtrade at the top, and a foot way on each ſide, with room for 5 carriages abreaſt in the middle. It has alſo receſſes on the ſides for the foot paſſengers, each ſupported by two lofty Ionic columns.

ii. BRIDGE OF LONDON, conſiſts of 20 locks or arches, 19 of which are open, and one filled up or obſcured. It is 900 feet long, 60 high, and 74 broad, with almoſt 20 feet aperture in each arch. It is ſupported by 18 piers, from 25 to 34 feet thick; ſo that the greateſt water way when the tide is above the ſterlings is 450 feet, ſcarce half the width of the river; and below the ſterlings, the water-way is reduced to 194 feet. Thus a river 900 feet wide is here forced through a channel of 194 feet. London bridge was firſt built of timber, ſome time before the year 994, by a college of prieſts, to whom the profits of the ferry of St Mary Overy's had deſcended; it was repaired, or rather new built of timber, in 1163. The ſtone bridge was begun by king Henry in 1176, and finiſhed by king John in 1209. The architect was Peter of Colechurch, a prieſt. For the keeping it in repair, a large houſe is allotted, with a great number of offices, and a vaſt revenue in land, &c. The chief officers are two bridge-maſters, choſen yearly out of the body of the livery. The defects of this bridge are the narrowneſs and irregularity of the arches, and the largeneſs of the piers, which, together with the ſterlings, turn the current of the Thames into many frightful cataracts, which muſt obſtruct and endanger the navigation through the bridge. The ſterlings have been added, to hinder the piers from being undermined by the rotting of the piles on which they are built: for by means of theſe ſterlings the piles are kept conſtantly wet; and thus the timber is kept from decaying, which always happens when it is ſuffered to be alternately wet and dry.

iii. BRIDGE OF PERTH. It would doubtleſs appear an unpardonable omiſſion in an ENCYCLOPEDIA PERTHENSIS, were we to ſay nothing, under this article of the bridge of Perth. Mr Dunbar, miniſter of Kinnoul gives the following account of it. "The old bridge over the Tay, at this place, having been carried away by a great flood in the river, in the year 1621, the communication between Kinnoul and Perth, was afterwards carried on by means of ferry boats, which were always attended with conſiderable inconvenience and expence; and frequently with great danger. No fewer than 30 boats, and as many boat-men, were employed on this ferry, as it was one of the moſt frequented paſſes in Scotland. Some of theſe boats were occaſionally employed as lighters, for veſſels in the river. In this ſtate things continued until 1765, when a ſubſcription for a new bridge was opened, chiefly by the patronage of the late Earl of Kinnoul, to whoſe patriotic exertions, it is well known, the preſent bridge over the Tay at Perth, owed its exiſtence. It was reared under his auſpices; he pledged a conſiderable part of his private fortune to carry on the work; and it will remain a laſting monument to the honour of that great and worthy nobleman. The ſubſcription ſoon amounted to L 11,298 : 17 : 6, of which government furniſhed no leſs a ſum than L 4000. The foundation ſtone was laid on the 13th September 1766, by its principal promoter, the Earl of Kinnoul, in preſence of the ſheriff-depute of the county, the provoſt and magiſtrates of Perth, and ſeveral other gentlemen, amidſt the applauſes of thouſands of ſpectators. The bridge was compleated, and the laſt of the workmen paid off, 13th of November 1771. The Earl of Errol's coach was the firſt that paſſed along the bridge, in the winter between 1770 and 1771. The plan was drawn by Mr Smeaton architect, and the work executed according to his orders, by Meſſrs Guyn, Morton, and Jamieſon. The bridge conſiſts of ten arches, one of which is a land arch. The clear water way, is 589 feet 9 inches. The extent of all the arches, 730·9. The wing walls, 176. So that the total length of the bridge is 906 feet 9 inches; and to the credit of the architect and undertakers, it has remained hitherto firm and unſhaken. The utility of this bridge is not confined to Perth and its neighbourhood, but extends to the country at large; as all are more or leſs concerned in an eaſy and ſafe communication, at ſo centrical a ſituation, between the northern and ſouthern parts of Scotland. The whole expence of the bridge, was L 26,446 : 12 : 3."

iv. BRIDGE OF SUNDERLAND. The IRON BRIDGE over the Wear, at Sunderland, in Durham, is quite a new invention in bridge-building. An obliging correſpondent has favoured us with the following deſcription of it. "The principles, upon which this ſtupendous work is conſtructed, are entirely different from thoſe of any former bridge which has been attempted with the ſame materials: It does not conſiſt of long ribs of metal, which reſt upon the abutments, and approach towards the centre; but it is built upon the principles of a ſtone arch; the inventor availing himſelf of the power, which caſt iron afforded him, of rendering the arch infinitely lighter than it could have been, if conſtructed of ſtone, by reaſon of the great voids which that metal will permit, and the eaſe with which it can be made to adopt any form. The blocks, which ſerve as arch ſtones, are caſt of the ſhape and dimenſions delineated on *Plate* XLI. *Fig.* 6. Their thickneſs is only 4 inches, and they weigh about 400 weight each; they are bound together by bars of wrought iron, which run along the grooves, *a a a*, on each ſide of the blocks, and are bolted through at equal diſtances, to croſs braces of caſt iron, paſſing be-

tween the ribs; of 6 of which, placed 5 feet from each other, the bridge conſiſts. The ſpandrels are filled up with iron circles, gradually diminiſhing from the ſides towards the centre; the whole is braced and tied together at top by a ſtrong frame of timber, on which a lead roof and the material of the road are laid. The ſpan of the arch is 236 feet; its height, from the ſurface of the river at low water, is 100 feet; ſpring of the arch 33 feet, and the breadth 32. The whole weight of iron is 250 tons, 210 of which are caſt, and 40 tons wrought iron. It is worthy of remark, that the whole of the metal part of the bridge was put together in 12 days. The iron work was caſt by Meſſrs Walker and Co. of Rotheram, under the direction of Rowland Burdon, Eſq. M. P. the inventor and patentee. The foundation ſtone was laid Sept. 24th, 1793, and the bridge was opened for the uſe of the public, Auguſt 9th, 1796.

v. BRIDGE OF WESTMINSTER. Among modern bridges, that of Weſtminſter, built over the river Thames, may be accounted one of the fineſt in the world: it is 44 feet wide, a commodious foot way being allowed for paſſengers, on each ſide, of about 7 feet broad, raiſed above the road allowed for carriages, and paved with broad moorſtones, while the ſpace left behind them is ſufficient to admit three carriages and two horſes to go a-breaſt, without any danger. Its extent from wharf to wharf is 1220 or 1223 feet, being full 300 feet longer than London bridge. The free water-way under the arches of this bridge is 870 feet, being 4 times as much as the free water-way left between the ſterlings of London bridge: this diſpoſition, together with the gentleneſs of the ſtream, are the chief reaſons why no ſenſible fall of water can ever ſtop, or in the leaſt endanger, the ſmalleſt boats in their paſſage through the arches. It conſiſts of 13 large and 2 ſmall arches, together with 14 intermediate piers. Each pier terminates with a ſaliant right angle againſt either ſtream: the two middle piers are each 17 feet in thickneſs at the ſpringing of the arches, and contain 3000 cubic feet, or near 200 tons, of ſolid ſtone; and the others decreaſe in width equally on each ſide by one foot. All the arches of this bridge are ſemicircular; they all ſpring from about two feet above low-water mark; the middle arch is 76 feet wide, and the others decreaſe in breadth equally on each ſide by 4 feet. This bridge is built of the beſt materials; and the ſize and diſpoſition of theſe materials are ſuch, that there is no falſe bearing, or ſo much as a falſe joint in the whole ſtructure; (See ARCHITECTURE, INDEX;) beſides that it is built in a neat and elegant taſte, and with ſuch ſimplicity and grandeur, that, whether viewed from the water, or by the paſſengers who walk over it, it fills the mind with an agreeable ſurprize. The ſemiocTangular towers which form the receſſes of the foot-way, the manner of placing the lamps, and the height of the baluſtrade, are at once the moſt beautiful, and, in every other reſpect, the beſt contrived.

vi. BRIDGES, EXTRAORDINARY. The longeſt bridge in England is that over the Trent at Burton, built by Bernard abbot of Burton, in the 12th is all of ſquared free ſtone, ſtrong and lofty, 1545 feet in length, and conſiſting of 34 arches. Yet this comes far ſhort of the wooden bridge over the Drave, which according to Dr Brown is at leaſt 5 miles long. But the moſt ſingular bridge in Europe is that built over the Tave in Glamorganſhire. It conſiſts of one ſtupendous arch, the diameter of which is 175 feet, the chord 140, the altitude 35, and the abutments 32. This magnificent arch was built by William Edward, a poor country maſon, in 1756. The famous bridge of Venice, called the RIALTO, conſiſts of but a ſingle arch, and that a flat or low one, and paſſed for a maſterpiece of art. It was built in 1591, on the deſign of Michael Angelo; the ſpan of the arch is 98¼ feet, and its height above the water only 23.—Poulet mentions a bridge of a ſingle arch in the city of Munſter in Bothnia, much bolder than that of the Rialto at Venice. But theſe are nothing to a bridge in China, built from one mountain to another, conſiſting of a ſingle arch 400 cubits long and 300 in height, whence it is called the *flying bridge*. A figure of it is given in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. Kircher alſo ſpeaks of a bridge in the ſame country, 360 perches long, and ſupported by 300 pillars.

vii. BRIDGES OF EDINBURGH. Theſe bridges differ from moſt other bridges in being built, not over waters, but dry land. They are diſtinguiſhed by the names of the North and South Bridge, and afford an eaſy and elegant communication, between the inhabitants of the New Town, and thoſe in the extended royalty, and the ſuburbs on each ſide of it. They have contributed very much to the rapid improvement of the metropolis of Scotland ſince they were erected. See EDINBURGH. There is alſo a bridge of communication towards the caſtle between the Old and New Town, conſiſting of an immenſe mound of earth, above 800 feet in length, acroſs a deep morafs; —"a work unrivalled, (ſays Mr Creech, in his account of Edinburgh,) by any but Alexander the Great's at Tyre." *Sir J. S's Stat. Acc.* VI. 585.

(10.) BRIDGES, NATURAL, are ſuch as are not conſtructed by art, but the reſult of ſome operation of nature. Our own country is not deſtitute of theſe natural curioſities. The rev. Mr Arkle in his account of the pariſh of Caſtletown in Roxburghſhire, gives the following deſcription of a natural bridge in that pariſh. "One of the greateſt curioſities," (ſays he,) "to be ſeen in this country, or perhaps in Scotland, is a bridge of ſtone over the river Blackburn. It ſtretches acroſs the ſtream, and joins the hills on each ſide. It is 55 feet long, 10 feet wide, and the thickneſs of the arch is 2 feet 4 inches of ſolid ſtone. It is not compoſed of one entire rock, but has the appearance of many ſtones, about a foot and a half ſquare, ſet neatly together. The bridge ſlopes a little downwards, and the water ruſhes under the arch, through an opening of 31 feet." (*Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Vol.* XVI. *p.* 79.) We have already deſcribed another on the coaſt of Caithneſs. See BORROWSTON. Mr Jefferſon, (now vice-preſident of the United States of America,) gives a particular deſcription of a moſt wonderful work of this kind, in his *State of Virginia*. It is on the aſcent of a hill, which ſeems to have been cloven through its length by ſome great convul-

ſion.

ſion. The fiſſure, juſt at the bridge, is, by ſome admeaſurements, 270 feet deep, by others only 205. It is about 45 feet wide at the bottom, and 90 feet at the top; this of courſe determines the length of the bridge, and its height from the water. Its breadth in the middle is about 60 feet, but more at the ends, and the thickneſs of the maſs at the ſummit of the arch about 40 feet. A part of this thickneſs is conſtituted by a coat of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. The reſidue, with the hill on both ſides, is one ſolid rock of lime-ſtone. The arch approaches the ſemi-elliptical form; but the larger axis of the ellipſis, which would be the cord of the arch, is much longer than the tranſverſe. Though the ſides of this bridge are provided in ſome parts with a parapet of fixed rocks, yet few men have a reſolution to walk to them and look over into the abyſs. One involuntarily falls on his hands and feet, creeps to the parapet, and peeps over it. Looking down from this height about a minute, gave Mr Jefferſon a violent headach. If the view from the top be painful and intolerable, that from below is delightful in an equal extreme. It is impoſſible for the emotion ariſing from the ſublime to be felt beyond what they are here: ſo beautiful an arch, ſo elevated, ſo light, and ſpringing as it were up to heaven, the rapture of the ſpectator is really indeſcribable! The fiſſure continuing narrow, deep, and ſtraight for a conſiderable diſtance above and below the bridge, opens a ſhort but very pleaſing view of the North mountain on one ſide and Blue-ridge on the other, at the diſtance of about 5 miles each. This bridge is in the county of Rockbridge, to which it has given name, and affords a public and commodious paſſage over a valley, which cannot be croſſed elſewhere for a conſiderable diſtance. The ſtream paſſing under it is called CEDAR-CREEK. It is a water of James River, and ſufficient in the drieſt ſeaſons to turn a griſt mill, though its fountain is not more than two miles above. Don Ulloa mentions a break ſimilar to this, in the province of Anguaez, in South America. It is from 16 to 21 feet wide, 111 feet deep, and of 1.3 miles continuance, Engliſh meaſure. Its breadth at top is not ſenſibly greater than at bottom. Don Ulloa inclines to the opinion, that this channel has been effected by the wearing of the water which runs through it, rather than that the mountain ſhould have been broken open by any convulſion of nature. But if it had been worn by the running of water, would not the rocks which form the ſides have been worn plain? Or if, meeting in ſome parts with veins of harder ſtone, the water had left prominences on one ſide, would not the ſame cauſe have ſometimes, or perhaps generally, occaſioned prominences on the other ſide alſo? Yet Don Ulloa tells us, that on the other ſide there are always correſponding cavities, and that theſe tally with the prominences ſo perfectly, that, were the two ſides to come together, they would fit in all their indentures, without leaving any void. In fact, this does not reſemble the effect of running water, but looks rather as if the two ſides had parted aſunder. The ſides of the break, over which is the Natural bridge of Virginia, conſiſting of a veiny rock which yields to time, the correſpondence between the ſalient and re-entering qualities, if it exiſted at all, has now diſappeared. This break has the advantage of the one deſcribed by Don Ulloa in its fineſt circumſtance; no portion in that inſtance having held together, during the ſeparation of the other parts, ſo as to form a bridge over the abyſs.

(11.) BRIDGES OF BOATS are either made of copper or wooden boats, faſtened with ſtakes or anchors, and laid over with planks. One of the moſt notable exploits of Julius Cæſar was his expeditious making a bridge of boats over the Rhine. Modern armies carry copper or tin boats, called *pontoons*, to be in readineſs for making bridges; ſeveral of theſe being joined ſide by ſide till they reach acroſs the river, and planks laid over them, make a plane for the men to march on. There are fine bridges of boats at Beaucaire and Rouen, which riſe and fall with the water; and that at Seville is ſaid to exceed them both. The bridge of boats at Rouen, built in lieu of the ſtately ſtone bridge erected there by the Romans, is repreſented by a modern writer as the wonder of the preſent age. It always floats, and riſes and falls with the tide, or as the land waters fill the river. It is near 300 yards long, and is paved with ſtone, like ſtreets; carriages with the greateſt burdens go over it with eaſe, and men and horſes with ſafety, though there are no rails on either hand. The boats are very firm, and well moored with ſtrong chains, and the whole well looked after and conſtantly repaired, though now very old.

(12.) BRIDGES OF COMMUNICATION are thoſe made over rivers, by which armies, or forts, ſeparated by rivers, have a free communication with one another.

(13.) BRIDGES, PENDENT, or PHILOSOPHICAL, are thoſe not ſupported either by poſts or pillars, but hung at large in the air, only ſupported at the two ends or butments. Inſtances of ſuch bridges are given by Palladio and others. Dr Wallis gives the deſign of a timber bridge 70 feet long, without any pillars, which may be uſeful in ſome places where pillars cannot be conveniently erected. Dr Plot aſſures us, that there was formerly a large bridge over the caſtle ditch at Tilbury in Staffordſhire, made of pieces of timber, none much above a yard long, and yet not ſupported underneath either with pillars or archwork, or any ſort of prop whatever.

(14.) BRIDGES, RUSHEN, &c. *Ponts de jonc*, are made of large ſheaves of ruſhes growing in marſhy grounds, which they cover with boards or planks; they ſerve for croſſing ground that is boggy, miry, or rotten. The Romans had alſo a ſort of ſubitaneous bridges made by the ſoldiers, of boats, or ſometimes of caſks, leathern bottles, or bags, or even of bullocks bladders blown up and faſtened together, called *aſcogafri*. M. Couplet gives the figure of a portable bridge 200 feet long, eaſily taken aſunder and put together again, and which 40 men may carry. Frezier ſpeaks of a wonderful kind of bridge at Apurima in Lima, made of ropes, formed of the bark of a tree.

(II.) BRIDGE, in geography, the name of two villages; 1. in Kent, 4 miles S. E. of Canterbury: 2. in Weſtmoreland, near Appleby.

(III.) BRIDGE, in gunnery, the two pieces of

timber which go between the two transums of a gun-carriage, on which the bed rests.

(IV.) BRIDGE, in music. See § 1. *def.* 3. The bridge of a violin is about one inch and a quarter high, and near an inch and a half long.

* *To* BRIDGE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To raise a bridge over any place.—

Came to the sea; and over Hellespont
Bridging his way, Europe with Asia join'd. *Milt.*

BRIDGE-BOTE, *n. s.* a tax formerly levied for repairing bridges.

BRIDGE-BUILDING, *n. s.* the art of building bridges. See ARCHITECTURE, INDEX, and BRIDGE, § I, 3.

BRIDGE-COURT, a village in E. Medina, in the Isle of Wight.

BRIDGE-END, a thriving village of Perthshire, in the parish of Kinnoul, situated at the E. end of Perth bridge, along the eastern banks of the Tay, at the foot of Kinnoul hill. In 1794–5, by the rev. Mr Dunbar's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it consisted of 98 houses; some of which rent at 50l. a-year, and many of them at 10l. and upwards. It has a tannery, a brewery, and a malt-house; in the last of which 2008 bolls of barley were malted in 1794; which paid 761l. 10s. 9d. of duty. By the Earl of Kinnoul's charter, this village is appointed to be called *the burgh of* KINNOUL.

(1.) BRIDGEFORD, a village in Devonshire, 4 miles E. of Chegford.

(2.) BRIDGEFORD, EAST, in Nottinghamshire, N. of Bingham.

(3.) BRIDGEFORD, GREAT, and (4.) BRIDGEFORD, LITTLE, } 3 miles N. W. of Stafford.

(5.) BRIDGEFORD, WEST, near Nottingham.

BRIDGEHAM, near E. Harling, Norfolkshire.

BRIDGEHAMPTON, a post town of New-York, in Suffolk county, Long Island, between E. and S. Hampton; 196 miles from Philadelphia. It has a presbyterian church.

BRIDGEHOUSE BAY, a bay on the coast of Kirkcudbright, where vessels of light burden anchor occasionally.

BRIDGE-MASTER, *n. s.* one who is entrusted with the care of a bridge, to keep it in repair.

BRIDGEMORE, a village in Cheshire, 6 miles S. E. of Namptwitch.

(1.) BRIDGEND, a town of S. Wales in Glamorganshire, seated on the Ogmore, which divides it into two parts, connected by a bridge. It is 7 miles W. by N. of Cowbridge, 27 from Cardiff, and 177½ W. from London. It has a considerable market on Saturday for cattle and provisions: with 2 fairs on 17 November and Holy Thursday. Lon. 3. 38. W. Lat. 51. 30. N.

(2.) BRIDGEND, a village of Scotland in Kirkcudbrightshire, in the parish of Troquire, containing 1302 inhabitants, in 1790.

(3.) BRIDGEND. See BRIDGE-END.

BRIDGENORTH, or BRUGES, a town of Shropshire, seated on the Severn, which divides it into two parts, united by a handsome stone bridge, and called the *upper* and *lower town*. It is said to have been built by Ethelfleda, widow of Ethelred king of the Mercians, about A. D. 675. Robert de Belizma, son of Robert de Montgomery, built the castle, and maintained it against king Henry I. by which means it was forfeited to the crown, and remained so till the reign of Richard III. who gave it to John Sutton lord Dudley. This town has undergone several sieges; and in the civil war it suffered very much, many fine buildings, and the whole town, being almost destroyed by fire, when Sir Lewis Kirke defended the citadel for king Charles. There are now no other remains of the castle than a small part of the towers, and a place yet called the *castle*, within the walls of the old one; within which stands one of the churches, dedicated to St Mary Magdalen, which was made a free chapel, and exempted from episcopal jurisdiction. The other church is at the N. end of the town, on the highest part of the hill. Near its church-yard stood a college, which was burnt during the civil wars, together with the church, which has been since rebuilt by the inhabitants. On the W. bank of the river are the remains of a magnificent convent, under which were several remarkable vaults and caverns running to a great length. Part of the cow-gate street is a rock, rising perpendicularly, in which are several houses and tenements that make a very agreeable grotesque appearance. In many other places there are also caves and dwellings for families, in the rocks; and indeed the whole town has an appearance surprisingly singular. This town sends two members to parliament. It is 20 miles W. by N. of Birmingham, and 139 N. W. of London. Lon. 2. 28. W. Lat. 52. 36. N.

BRIDGEREVEL, a village in Devonshire, W. of Houlsworthy.

BRIDGERULE, in Cornwall, near Devonshire.

BRIDGESELLERS, W. of Hereford.

BRIDGESTOCK, in Northamptonshire, near Oundle, 3 miles from Thrapston. It has fairs May 6, September 5, and November 22.

BRIDGET, or BRIGIT, ST, a Swedish lady of the 14th century, famous for her revelations, and for being the founder of the order of the BRIGITTINES. Some represent her as a queen, but Fabricius on better grounds, says she was only a princess, and the daughter of king Birgenes of Upland.

BRIDGETINES, See BRIGITTINES.

(1.) BRIDGETON, or BRIDGETOWN, } a thriving village in the barony of Glasgow, containing, along with that of Calton, 6695 inhabitants, in 1792.

(2.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of England, in Warwickshire, near Stratford upon Avon.

(3.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

(4.) BRIDGETOWN, in Clare, 90 m. from Dublin.

(5.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of Maryland, in the eastern shore, seated on the Chester, partly in Kent, and partly in Queen Anne's county. It is 14 miles E. by N. of the town of Chester, and 65 S. W. of Philadelphia.

(6.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of New-Jersey, 74 miles from Philadelphia.

(7.) BRIDGETOWN, a village of Scotland, in Fifeshire, 2 miles N. E. of Kinghorn.

(8.) BRIDGE-TOWN, the capital of Barbadoes, situated in the inmost part of Carlisle bay, which is capable of containing 500 ships. This was originally a most unwholesome situation, and was chosen entirely for its convenience for trade; but is now deemed as healthy as any place in the island. The town would make a figure in any European

European kingdom. It contains 1500 houſes, and ſome contend that it is the fineſt the Britiſh poſſeſs in America. The houſes in general are well built and finiſhed, and their rent as high as ſuch houſes would let for in London. The wharfs and quays are well defended from the ſea, and very convenient. The harbour is ſecured from the N. E. wind, which is the conſtant trade wind there. But what renders Bridge-town the fineſt and moſt deſirable town in the Weſt Indies, is its ſecurity againſt the attacks from foreign enemies. It is defended on the W. by James fort, which mounts 18 guns. Near this is Willoughby's fort, which is built upon a tongue of land running into the ſea, and mounts 12 guns. Needham's fort has three batteries, and is mounted with 20 guns; and St Anne's fort, which is the ſtrongeſt in the iſland, ſtands more within land. In ſhort, according to Mr Douglas, there is all along the lee-ſhore a breaſt-work and trench, in which, at proper places, were 29 forts and batteries, having 308 cannon mounted, while the windward ſhore is ſecured by high rocks, ſteep cliffs, and foul ground. Such was the ſtate of the fortifications in 1717; but ſince that time they have been much ſtrengthened. Bridge-town has all the elegancies and conveniences of life that any city of Europe can afford. The church of St Michael exceeds many Engliſh cathedrals in beauty, largeneſs, and convenience; and has a fine organ, bells, and clock. It has a free ſchool for the inſtruction of poor boys, an hoſpital, and a college. The latter was erected by the ſociety for propagating the Chriſtian religion, in purſuance of the will of Colonel Chriſtopher Codrington, who left about 2000 l. a year for its endowment, for maintaining profeſſors and ſcholars to ſtudy and practiſe divinity, ſurgery, and phyſic. See CODRINGTON. Lon. 59. 36. W. Lat. 13. 5. N.

(9.) BRIDGE-TOWN, the capital of Cumberland county in New-Jerſey. It is ſituated on Cohanzy creek, 12 miles N. E. of Greenwich. The county court is held in it quarterly. It is 54 miles S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 2. E. Lat. 39. 29. N.

BRIDGEWATER, a town of Somerſetſhire, ſeated on the river Parret, over which there is a ſtone bridge, near which ſhips of 100 tons burden may ride with eaſe. It is a large well frequented place, and ſends two members to parliament. There are in it ſeveral large inns, and the market is well ſupplied with proviſions. It is 31 miles S. S. W. of Briſtol, 137 W. by S. of London, and 2 from Star-point. Lon. 3. 10. W. Lat. 51. 7. N.

BRIDGUME, *n. ſ. obſ.* A bridegroom.

(1.) * BRIDLE. *n. ſ.* [*bride*, Fr.] 1. The head-ſtall and reins by which a horſe is reſtrained and governed.—

They ſeiz'd at laſt
His courſer's *bridle*, and his feet embrac'd. *Dryd.*

2. A reſtraint; a curb; a check.—The king reſolved to put that place, which ſome men fancied to be a *bridle* upon the city, into the hands of ſuch a man as he might rely upon. *Clarend.*—A bright genius often betrays itſelf into many errours, without a continual *bridle* on the tongue. *Watts.*

(2.) BRIDLE, PARTS OF A, &c. Theſe are the bit or ſnaffle; the head-ſtall, or leathers from the top of the head to the rings of the bit; the fillet, over the fore-head and under the fore-top; the throat-band, which buttons from the head-band under the throat; the reins, or long thongs of leather that come from the rings of the bit, and being caſt over the horſe's head, the rider holds them in his hand; the noſe-band, going through loops at the back of the head-ſtall, and buckled under the cheeks; the trench; the caveſan; the martingal; and the chaff-halter.

(3.) BRIDLES, ANCIENT ACCOUNTS OF. Pliny aſſures us that one Pelethronius firſt invented the bridle and ſaddle; though Virgil aſcribes the invention to the Lapithæ, to whom he gives the epithet, *Pelethronii*, from a mountain in Theſſaly named PELETHRONIUM, where horſes were firſt begun to be broken. The firſt horſemen, not being acquainted with the art of governing horſes with bridles, managed them only with a rope or a ſwitch, and the accent of the voice. This was the practice of the Numidians, Getulians, Libyans, and Maſſilians. The Roman youth alſo learned the art of fighting without bridles, which was an exerciſe or leſſon in the manege; and hence it is, that on the Trajan column, ſoldiers are repreſented riding at full ſpeed without any bridles on.

(4.) BRIDLES, BOWLING. See BOWLING BRIDLES.

(5.) BRIDLES, SCOLDING. See BRANK, N° 1.

(1.) * *To* BRIDLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To reſtrain, or guide by a bridle.—

I *bridle* in my ſtruggling muſe with pain,
That longs to launch into a bolder ſtrain. *Addiſ.*

2. To put a bridle on any thing.—

The queen of beauty ſtop'd her *bridled* doves;
Approv'd the little labour of the Loves. *Prior.*

3. To reſtrain; to govern.—The diſpoſition of things is committed to them, whom law may at all times *bridle*, and ſuperiour power controul. *Hooker.*

With a ſtrong, and yet a gentle hand,
You *bridle* faction, and our hearts command. *Waller.*

(2.) * *To* BRIDLE. *v. n.* To hold up the head.

* BRIDLEHAND. *n. ſ.* [from *bridle* and *hand*.] The hand which holds the bridle in riding.—In the turning, one might perceive the *bridlehand* ſomething gently ſtir; but, indeed, ſo gently, as it did rather diſtil virtue than uſe violence. *Sidney.*—The heat of ſummer put his blood into a ferment, which affected his *bridlehand* with great pain. *Wiſeman.*

BRIDLINGTON, or BURLINGTON, a ſea-port town in the E. riding of Yorkſhire. It is ſeated on a creek of the ſea near Flamborough-head, having a commodious quay for ſhips to take in their lading. It has a ſafe harbour, and is a place of good trade. It is 36 miles N. of Hull, and 208 of London. Lon. 0. 5. W. Lat. 54. 8. N.

BRIDON, } or SNAFFLE, after the Engliſh
BRIDOON, } faſhion, is a very ſlender bit-mouth without any branches. The Engliſh make much uſe of them, and ſcarcely uſe any true bridles except in the ſervice of war. The French call them *bridons*, by way of diſtinction from bridles.

BRIDPORT, a neat and well built ſea-port town of Dorſetſhire, ſituated between two rivers, on a ſmall hill, 6 miles from Lyme. It ſends two members to parliament, who are choſen by ſuch of the inhabitants as are houſekeepers. It is noted for

for making ropes and cables for ſhipping; whence ariſes the proverb of a man that is hanged, that he is *ſtabbed with a Bridport dagger*. It is 12 miles W. of Dorcheſter, and 135 W. by S. of London. Lon. 2. 52. W. Lat. 50. 42. N.

BRIDSTOW, a village in Herefordſh. near Roſs.

(1.) BRIDY, BONVIL'S, } three Engliſh vil-
(2.) BRIDY, LITTLE, and } lages in Dorſetſh.
(3.) BRIDY, LONG, } near each other.

(1.) BRIE, a ci-devant territory of France, now comprehended in the department of Seine and Marne. It abounds in corn, cattle, and paſture; and has been long noted for excellent cheeſe.

(2.) BRIE, or } a town of France, in
BRIE COMTE ROBERT, } the department of Seine and Marne. The latter name is doubtleſs now diſuſed, as ſavouring of the ancient ariſtocracy.

BRIECH, a river of Scotland, in Mid Lothian, which falls into the Amon.

(1.) * BRIEF. *adj.* [*brevis*, Lat. *brief*, French.] 1. Short; conciſe. It is now ſeldom uſed but of words.—

A play there is, my lord, ſome ten words long,
Which is as *brief* as I have known a play;
But by ten words, my lord, it is too long,
Which makes it tedious. *Shakeſpeare.*

I will be mild and gentle in my words.—
—And *brief*, good mother, for I am in haſte.
Shakeſpeare.

I muſt begin with rudiments of art,
To teach you gamut in a *briefer* ſort,
More pleaſant, pretty, and effectual. *Shakeſp.*
—They nothing doubt prevailing, and to make it *brief* wars. *Shakeſp. Coriolanus.*—The *brief* ſtile is that which expreſſeth much in little. *Ben Jonſon.*—If I had quoted more words, I had quoted more profaneneſs; and therefore Mr Congreve has reaſon to thank me for being *brief*. *Collier.* 2. Contracted; narrow.—

The ſhrine of Venus, or ſtraight pight Minerva,
Poſtures beyond *brief* nature. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) * BRIEF. *n. ſ.* [*brief*, Dutch, a letter.] 1. A writing of any kind.—

There is a *brief*, how many ſports are ripe:
Make choice of which your highneſs will ſee first. *Shakeſpeare.*
—The apoſtolical letters are of a twofold kind and difference, *viz.* ſome are called *briefs*, becauſe they are compriſed in a ſhort and compendious way of writing. *Ayliffe.* 2. A ſhort extract, or epitome.—

But how you muſt begin this enterprize,
I will your highneſs thus in *brief* adviſe.
Fairy Queen.
—I doubt not but I ſhall make it plain, as far as a ſum or *brief* can make a cauſe plain. *Bacon.*—The *brief* of this tranſaction is, theſe ſprings that ariſe here are impregnated with vitriol. *Woodward.* 3. [In law.] A writ whereby a man is ſummoned to anſwer to any action; or it is any precept of the king in writing, iſſuing out of any court, whereby he commands any thing to be done. *Cowel.* 4. The writing given the pleaders, containing the caſe.—

[illegible] with weighty crimes was charg'd,
[illegible] pleader much enlarg'd. *Swift.*

5. Letters patent, giving licence to a charitable collection for any publick or private loſs. 6. [In muſick.] A meaſure of quantity, which contains two ſtrokes down in beating time, and as many up. *Harris.*

(3.) BRIEF, in Engliſh law, (§ 2. *def.* 3.) an abridgment of the client's caſe, made out for the inſtruction of council on a trial at law; wherein the caſe of the plaintiff, &c. is to be briefly but fully ſtated: the proofs muſt be placed in due order, and proper anſwers made to whatever may be objected to the client's cauſe by the oppoſite ſide; and herein great care is requiſite, that nothing be omitted, to endanger the cauſe.

(4.) BRIEF, in Scots law, a writ iſſued from the chancery, directed to any judge ordinary, commanding and authoriſing that judge to call a jury to inquire into the caſe mentioned in the brief, and upon their verdict to pronounce ſentence.

(5.) BRIEFS, APOSTOLICAL, letters which the pope diſpatches to princes, or other magiſtrates, relating to any public affair.—Theſe briefs are diſtinguiſhed from bulls, the latter being more ample, always written on parchment, and ſealed with lead or green wax; whereas briefs are very conciſe, written on paper, ſealed with red wax, and with the ſeal of a fiſherman, or St Peter in a boat.

* BRIEFLY. *adv.* [from *brief*.] Conciſely; in few words.—I will ſpeak in that manner which the ſubject requires; that is, probably, and moderately, and *briefly*. *Bacon.*—

The modeſt queen a while, with downcaſt eyes,
Ponder'd the ſpeech; then *briefly* thus replies.
Dryden.

* BRIEFNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brief*.] Conciſeneſs; ſhortneſs.—They excel in grandity and gravity, in ſmoothneſs and propriety, in quickneſs and *briefneſs*. *Camden.*

(1.) BRIEG, a territory of Sileſia in Germany.

(2.) BRIEG, a town in the above territory. (N° 1.) It was a handſome place before the laſt ſiege; the caſtle, the college, and the arſenal, being very great ornaments, and moſt of the houſes very well built. But the Pruſſians, who beſieged it in 1741, threw 2172 bombs into it, and 4714 cannon bullets, which reduced a great part of the town to aſhes, and quite ruined a wing of the caſtle. It was obliged to ſurrender, after ſuſtaining a continual fire, for 7 days. The Pruſſians, to whom it was ceded by the peace, augmented the fortifications, and built a new ſuburb. It ſtands upon the Oder; on the other ſide of which there are plenty of fallow deer, and large foreſts of beech and oak trees. It has a fair, at which above 12,000 horned cattle are annually ſold. Since 1728, a manufacture of fine cloth has been eſtabliſhed. It is 20 miles S. E. of Breſlaw. Lon. 17. 20. E. Lat. 50. 50. N.

BRIEL, or BRILL, a maritime town of the United Provinces, and capital of the iſland of Vuorn. It was one of the cautionary towns which was delivered into the hands of Q. Elizabeth, and garriſoned by the Engliſh during her reign and part of the next. The Dutch took it from the Spaniards, in 1572, which was the foundation of their republic. It is ſeated at the mouth of the Meuſe, 13 miles S. W. of Rotterdam. Lon. 3. 56. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

BRIENNE,

BRIENNE, a town of France, in the ci-devant province of Champagne.

BRIENNOIS, a ci-devant territory of France, on the Loire. It was the S. diviſion of Burgundy.

BRIENTZ, a lake of Switzerland in Bern.

(1.) * BRIER. *n. ſ.* [*brær*, Sax.] A plant. The ſweet and the wild ſorts are both ſpecies of the *roſa*.—

What ſubtle hole is this,
Whoſe mouth is cover'd with rude growing *briers?* *Shakeſpeare.*

Then thrice under a *brier* doth creep,
Which at both ends was rooted deep,
And over it three times doth leap;
Her magick much availing. *Drayton's Nymph.*

(2.) BRIER, in botany. See ROSA.

BRIERLEY, the name of three Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Herefordſhire, S. E. of Leominſter: 2. in Staffordſhire, E. of Sedgley: and 3. in Yorkſhire, near Barnſley.

* BRIERY. *adj.* [from *brier*.] Rough; thorny; full of briers.

BRIESCIA, a palatinate of Poland, in the duchy of Lithuania; by ſome called POLESIA. It is bounded on the N. by Novogrode and Troki; on the W. by Bielſko and Lublin; on the S. by Chelm and Upper Volhinia; and on the E. by the territory of Rziczica. It is of conſiderable extent from E. to W. and is watered by the rivers Bug and Pripeſe: it is full of woods and marſhes; and has lakes that yield large quantities of fiſh, which are ſalted by the inhabitants, and ſent into the neighbouring provinces.

BRIETIUS, Philip, a learned French geographer, born at Abbeville, in 1601. He became a Jeſuit in 1619, and died librarian of their college at Paris in 1668. His *Parallela Geographiæ Veteris et Novæ*, publiſhed in 3 vols. 4to, 1648–9, is a very exact methodical work. He publiſhed alſo *Annales Mundi*, in 7 vols. 12mo, from the creation to A. D. 1663: and *Theatrum Geographiæ Europæ Veteris*, in 1653, fol. He was likewiſe concerned in a Chronological work with father Labbé.

BRIEUX, ST, a town of France, in the department of Finiſterre, and ci-devant province of Upper Brittany. It is ſeated in a bottom, ſurrounded with mountains, which deprive it of a proſpect of the ſea, though it is not above a mile and a quarter from it, and there forms a ſmall port. The churches, ſtreets, and ſquares, are tolerably handſome; but the town is without walls and ditches. The church of Michael is in the ſuburb of the ſame name, and is the largeſt in the place. The convent of the Cordeliers is well built, and the garden is ſpacious. The college, which is very near, is maintained by the town for the inſtruction of youth. Lon. 2. 38. W. Lat. 48. 31. N.

BRIEY, a town of France, in the department of Moſelle, and ci-devant province of Lorrain; 30 miles N. E. of St Michael.

(1.) * BRIG, and poſſibly alſo BRIX, is derived from the Saxon *brieg*, a bridge; which, to this day, in the northern counties, is called a *brigg*, and not a *bridge*. *Gibſon's Camden.*

(2.) BRIG, or BRIGANTINE, a merchant ſhip with two maſts. This term is not univerſally confined to veſſels of a particular conſtruction, or which are maſted and rigged in a manner different from all others. It is variouſly applied, by the mariners of different European nations, to a peculiar ſort of veſſel of their own marine. Amongſt Britiſh ſeamen, this veſſel is diſtinguiſhed by having her main-ſails ſet nearly in the plane of her keel; whereas the mainſails of larger ſhips are hung athwart, or at right angles with the ſhip's length, and faſtened to a yard which hangs parallel with the deck: but in a brig, the foremoſt edge of the mainſail is faſtened in different places to hoops which encircle the mainmaſt, and ſlide up and down it as the ſail is hoiſted or lowered: it is extended by a gaff above and a boom below.

(3.) BRIG, BRIGG, or GLANDFORD BRIDGES, a town in Lincolnſhire, ſeated on the river Ankam; 25 miles N. of Lincoln, and 153 N. of London. Lon. 0. 20. W. Lat. 53. 40. N.

BRIGA, *n. ſ.* in old records, a quarrel.

(1.) * BRIGADE. *n. ſ.* [*brigade*, Fr. It is now generally pronounced with the accent on the laſt ſyllable.] A diviſion of forces; a body of men, conſiſting of ſeveral ſquadrons of horſe, or battalions of foot.—

Or fronted *brigades* form. *Milton.*

Here the Bavarian duke his *brigades* leads,
Gallant in arms, and gaudy to behold. *Philips.*

(2.) BRIGADES. An army is divided into brigades of horſe and brigades of foot. A brigade of horſe is a body of 8 or 10 ſquadrons; a brigade of foot conſiſts of 4, 5, or 6 battalions. The eldeſt brigade has the right of the firſt line, and the ſecond the right of the ſecond; the two next take the left of the two lines, and the youngeſt ſtand in the centre.

* BRIGADE MAJOR. An officer appointed by the brigadier to aſſiſt him in the management and ordering of his brigade; and he there acts as a major does in an army. *Harris.*

(1.) * BRIGADIER GENERAL. An officer who commands a brigade of horſe or foot in an army; next in order below a major general.

(2.) BRIGADIER GENERAL is a poſt to which the eldeſt colonels are generally advanced. He that is upon duty is brigadier of the day.—They march at the head of their own brigades, and are allowed a ſerjeant and ten men of their own brigade for their guard.—But the rank of brigadier general in the Britiſh ſervice is now aboliſhed.

BRIGADIERS, or SUB-BRIGADIERS, are poſts in the horſe-guards.

* BRIGAND. *n. ſ.* [*brigand*, Fr.] A robber; one that belongs to a gang of robbers.—There might be a rout of ſuch barbarous thieviſh *brigands* in ſome rocks; but it was a degeneration from the nature of man, a political creature. *Bramhall againſt Hobbes.*

* BRIGANDINE, BRIGANTINE. *n. ſ.* [from *brigand*.] 1. A light veſſel; ſuch as has been formerly uſed by corſairs or pirates.—

Like as a warlike *brigandine*, apply'd
To fight, lays forth her threatful pikes afore
The engines, which in them ſad death do hide.
Spenſer.

In your *brigantine* you ſail'd to ſee
The Andriatick wedded. *Otway's Veniee Preſ.*

—The conſul obliged him to deliver up his fleet, and

and reſtore the ſhips, reſerving only to himſelf two *brigantines*. *Arbuthnot*. 2. A coat of mail.—

Then put on all thy gorgeous arms, thy helmet
And *brigandine* of braſs, thy broad habergeon,
Vantbraſs, and greves. *Milt. Samſon Agoniſtes*.

(2.) BRIGANDINES, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) were a kind of ancient defenſive armour, conſiſting of thin jointed ſcales of plate, pliant and eaſy to the body.

(1.) BRIGANTES, an ancient people of Britain, who occupied the territory from ſea to ſea, the whole breadth of the iſland; now called Yorkſhire, Lancaſter, Durham, Weſtmoreland, and Cumberland.

(2.) BRIGANTES, an ancient people of Ireland, of uncertain poſition.

(1.) BRIGANTIA, or BRIGANTIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Vindelicia; now called BREGENTZ.

(2.) BRIGANTIA. See BRIGANTINUS, N. 1.

BRIGANTII, an ancient people of Rhætia, who dwelt near the Brigantine lake.

BRIGANTINE. See BRIG, and BRIGANDINE.

(1.) BRIGANTINUS LACUS, in ancient geography, a lake of Rhætia, or Vindelicia, which Tacitus includes in Rhætia. Ammianus calls it BRIGANTIA. It took its name either from the BRIGANTII, or from the adjoining town. It is now called CONSTANCE or BODENZEE.

(2.) BRIGANTINUS PORTUS, in ancient geography, a port of the Hither Spain; ſo called from Flavium Brigantium; now *El Poerto de la Coruna*, and more commonly the GROYNE.

(1.) BRIGANTIUM, in ancient geography, a town in the Alpes Cottiæ, now thought to be BRIANCON.

(2.) BRIGANTIUM. See BRIGANTIA, No. 1.

BRIGG. See BRIG, No. 3.

BRIGGE, *n. ſ. obſ.* A bridge. *Chaue.*

BRIGGENS, a village in Hertfordſhire, near Hunſdon and Epping Foreſt.

BRIGGESLEY, 6 m. S. of Grimſby, Lincolnſhire.

(1.) BRIGGS, a range of rocks on the N. ſide of Carrickfergus bay, in Down, Ireland.

(2.) BRIGGS, Henry, one of the greateſt mathematicians in the 16th century, was born at Warley Wood, Yorkſhire, in 1556. In 1592, he was made examiner and lecturer in mathematics, and ſoon after reader of the phyſical lecture founded by Dr Linacer. When Greſham college in London was eſtabliſhed, he was choſen the firſt profeſſor of geometry there, in 1596. In 1609, he contracted an intimacy with Mr Uſher afterwards Abp. of Armagh, which continued many years by letters, two of which, written by Mr Briggs, are yet extant. In one of theſe letters, dated Aug. 1610, he tells his friend, he was engaged in the ſubject of eclipſes; and in the other, dated March 20th, 1615, he acquaints him with his being wholly employed about the noble invention of logarithms, then lately diſcovered, in the improvement of which, he had afterwards a large ſhare. In 1619, he was made Savilian profeſſor of geometry at Oxford; and reſigned his profeſſorſhip of Gresham college on the 25th of July, 1620. Soon after going to Oxford, he was made M. A. in that univerſity; where he continued till his death, on Jan. 26, 1630. Dr Smith gives him the character of a man of great probity; a contemner of riches, and contented with his own ſtation; preferring a ſtudious retirement to all the ſplendor of life. He wrote, 1. *Logarithmorum chilias prima*. 2. *Arithmetica logarithmica*. 3. *Trigonometria Britannica*. 4. A ſmall tract on the north-weſt paſſage; and ſome other works.

(3.) BRIGGS, William, an eminent phyſician in the latter end of the 17th century, was the ſon of Auguſtine Briggs, Eſq; 4 times member for the city of Norwich, where our author was born. He ſtudied phyſic at Cambridge, and travelled into France, where he attended the lectures of the famous anatomiſt M. Vieuſſens at Montpelier. After his return, he publiſhed his *Ophthalmographia* in 1676. In 1677, he was created M. D. at Cambridge; and ſoon after was made fellow of the college of phyſicians, at London. In 1682, his *Theory of Viſion* was publiſhed by Hooke. In 1683, ſent to the Royal Society a continuation of this diſcourſe, which was publiſhed in their tranſactions; and the ſame year, he was, by K. Charles II. appointed phyſician to St Thomas's hoſpital. In 1684, he communicated to the Royal Society two remarkable caſes relating to viſion, which were alſo printed in their tranſactions; and, in 1685, he publiſhed a Latin verſion of his *Theory of Viſion*, at the deſire of Mr Newton, afterwards Sir Iſaac, profeſſor of mathematics at Cambridge, with a recommendatory epiſtle from him prefixed to it. He was afterwards made phyſician in ordinary to K. William, and continued in great eſteem for his ſkill in his profeſſion till Sept. 4, 1704, when he died.

BRIGGS's LOGARITHMS are that ſpecies of them in which 1 is the logarithm of the ratio of 10 to 1, or the logarithm of 10.

BRIGHAM, two villages, viz. 1. in Cumberland, 2 m. W. of Cockermouth: 2. in Yorkſhire, near Frodlingham.

* BRIGHT. *adj.* [*beort*, Sax.] 1. Shining; full of light.—

Through a cloud
Drawn round about thee like a radiant ſhrine,
Dark, with exceſſive *bright*, thy ſkirts appear. *Milton*
Then ſhook the ſacred ſhrine, and ſudden light
Sprung through the roof, and made the temple *bright*. *Dryden*

2. Shining as a body reflecting light.—

Bright braſs, and brighter doomes. *Chapman*
Thy eyes are ſeen in diamonds *bright*. *Gay*
Bright as the ſun her eyes the gazers ſtrike. *Pope*

3. Clear; conſpicuous.—

From the *brighteſt* wines
He'd turn abhorrent. *Thomſon*
While the *bright* Seine t' exalt the ſoul,
With ſparkling plenty crowns the bowl. *Fenton*

4. Clear; evident.—He muſt not proceed too ſwiftly, that he may with more eaſe, and with *brighter* evidence, and with ſurer ſucceſs, draw the learner on. *Watts's Improvement of the Mind*. 5. Reſplendent with charms.—

Thy

Thy beauty appears,
In its graces and airs,
All *bright* as an angel new drop'd from the ſky.
Parnel.

O Liberty, thou goddeſs heav'nly *bright*,
Profuſe of bliſs, and pregnant with delight!
Addiſon.

Bright as the ſun, and like the morning fair,
Such Chloe is, and common as the air. *Granv.*

To-day black omens threat the *brighteſt* fair
That e'er engag'd a watchful ſpirit's care.
Pope.

Thou more dreaded foe, *bright* beauty, ſhine.
Young.

6. Illuminated with ſcience; ſparkling with wit.—
Gen'rous, gay and gallant nation,
Great in arms, and *bright* in art. *Anonymous.*

If parts allure thee, think how Bacon ſhin'd,
The wiſeſt, *brighteſt*, meaneſt of mankind. *Pope.*

7. Illuſtrious; glorious.—
This is the worſt, if not the only ſtain,
I' th' *brighteſt* annals of a female reign. *Cotton.*

(1.) * *To* BRIGHTEN. *v. a.* [from *bright.*]
1. To make bright; to make to ſhine.—
The purple morning riſing with the year,
Salutes the ſpring as her celeſtial eyes
Adorn the world, and *brighten* up the ſkies.
Dryden.

2. To make luminous by light from without.—
An ecſtaſy, that mothers only feel,
Plays round my heart, and *brightens* all my ſorrow,
Like gleams of ſunſhine in a louring ſky.
Philips.

3. To make gay, or cheerful.—
Hope elevates, and joy
Brightens his creſt. *Milton's Paradiſe Loſt.*

4. To make illuſtrious.—The preſent queen would *brighten* her character, if ſhe would exert her authority to inſtil virtues in her people. *Swift.*—
Yet time ennobles, or degrades each line;
It *brighten'd* Craggs's, and may darken thine.
Pope.

5. To make acute, or witty.

(2.) * *To* BRIGHTEN. *v. n.* To grow bright; to clear up: as, the ſky *brightens.*—
But let a lord once own the happy lines,
How the ſtile *brightens*, how the ſenſe refines.
Pope.

BRIGHTHELMSTONE, or BRIGHTON, a ſea port town of Suſſex in England. It is a pretty large and populous town, though ill built, and has a pretty good harbour. At this place, King Charles II. embarked for France, 1651, after the battle of Worceſter. It has lately been conſiderably extended and embelliſhed, in conſequence of its being become a place of great reſort for ſea bathing. The Prince of Wales has erected a ſeat in it. It lies very low; which protected it on different occaſions from the cannon of the French, whoſe balls flew over it, when they attempted to demoliſh it; but expoſes it to a ſtill more formidable enemy, viz. the ſea, which is continually encroaching on it. Within theſe 45 years, it has deſtroyed above 150 tenements, to the value of near L.40,000. In Nov. 1786, in particular, it deſtroyed the block houſe and ſeveral other houſes worth many thouſand pounds. Brighton has a market on Thurſday, and two fairs on holy Thurſ. and Sept. 4. Before the war, it was the ſtation of the packet boats to and from Dieppe, in France. It is 74 m. N. W. from Dieppe; 56 S. of London, and 12 from Lewes. Lon. 0. 6. W. Lat. 50. 52. N.

BRIGHTLEY, a village of Devonſhire, S. W. of Moulton.

BRIGHTLING, a town in Suſſex.

* BRIGHTLY. *adv.* [from *bright.*] Splendidly; with luſtre.—
Safely I ſlept, till *brightly* dawning ſhone
The morn, conſpicuous on her golden throne.
Pope.

* BRIGHTNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bright.*] 1. Luſtre; ſplendour; glitter.—
The blazing *brightneſs* of her beauty's beam,
And glorious light of her ſun-ſhining face,
To tell, were as to ſtrive againſt the ſtream.
Fairy Queen.

—A ſword, by long lying ſtill, will contract a ruſt, which ſhall deface its *brightneſs*. *South.*—
The moon put on her vail of light,
Myſterious veil, of *brightneſs* made,
That's both her luſtre and her ſhade. *Hudibras.*

Vex'd with the preſent moment's heavy gloom,
Why ſeek we *brightneſs* from the years to come?
Prior.

2. Acuteneſs.—The *brightneſs* of his parts, the ſolidity of his judgment, and the candour and generoſity of his temper, diſtinguiſhed him in an age of great politeneſs. *Prior.*

BRIGHTON. See BRIGHTHELMSTONE.

BRIGHT-WALTON, a village in Berkſhire.

BRIGHTWELL, 3 villages; 1. in Berkſhire, near Wallingford: 2. in Oxfordſhire, near Aſtrop-Wells: and 3. in Suffolk, E. of Ipſwich.

BRIGITTINS, or BRIDGETINS, a religious order, denominated from their founder St BRIDGET. The Brigittins are ſometimes alſo called the *order of our Saviour*; it being pretended that Chriſt himſelf dictated their rules and conſtitutions to St Bridget. In the main, the rule is that of St Auguſtine; only with additions pretended to have been revealed by Chriſt. The firſt monaſtery of the Bridgetin order was erected by the foundreſs A. D. 1344, in the diocele of Lincopen; on the model of which all the reſt were formed. The conſtitution of theſe houſes was very ſingular: though the order was principally intended for nuns, who were to pay a ſpecial homage to the holy Virgin, there are alſo many friars of it, to miniſter to them ſpiritual aſſiſtance. The number of nuns is fixed at 60 in each monaſtery, and that of friars to 13, anſwerable to the number of apoſtles, of whom St Paul made the 13th; beſides which there are 4 deacons, to repreſent the 4 doctors of the church, St Ambroſe, St Auguſtin, St Gregory, and St Jerome; and 8 lay brothers; making, together with the nuns, the number of the 72 diſciples. The order being inſtituted in honour of the Virgin, the direction is committed to an abbeſs, who is ſuperior both of the nuns and of the friars. Each houſe conſiſts of 2 convents or monaſteries, ſeparately incloſed, but having one church in common; the nuns being placed above, and the friars on the ground. The Bridgetins profeſs great mortification, [illegible] and ſelf-

denial, as well as devotion: and they are not to poſſeſs any thing they can call their own, not ſo much as an halfpenny; nor even to touch money on any account. This order ſpread much through Sweden, Germany, the Netherlands, &c. In England we read of but one monaſtery of Brigittines, built by Henry V. in 1415, oppoſite to Richmond, now called *Sion houſe*; the ancient inhabitants of which, after the diſſolution, ſettled at Liſbon. The revenues were reckoned at 1495 l. per annum.

BRIGLEY, a town N. of Bradford, Yorkſhire.

BRIGMILSTON, a village in Wiltſhire, oppoſite to Ablington.

BRIGNEL, 2 miles from Barnard-Caſtle, Yorkſhire.

BRIGNOLES, a town of France, in the department of Var, and ci-devant province of Provence, famous for its prunes. It is ſeated among mountains, in a pleaſant country, 325 miles S.S.E. of Paris. Lon. 6. 15. E. Lat. 43. 24. N.

BRIGOWNE, a town of Ireland in Cork.

BRIGSTER, a village in Weſtmoreland.

BRIGSTOCK, in Northamptonſhire, near Weldon. It has 3 fairs; May 6, Sep. 5. Nov. 22.

BRIHUEGA, a town of Spain, in New Caſtile, where Gen. Stanhope with 8 ſquadrons and 8 battalions of the Engliſh army were taken priſoners, in 1710, after they had ſeparated themſelves from that commanded by count Staremberg. It is ſeated at the foot of the mountain Tajuna, 43 miles N. E. of Madrid. Lon. 3. 20. W. Lat. 41. 6. N.

BRIKE, *adj. obſ.* Strait; narrow. *Chauc.*

(1.) BRIL, Matthew, a native of Antwerp, and a good painter, born in 1550, and educated at Rome. He was eminent for his performances in hiſtory and landſcape, in the galleries of the Vatican; where he was employed by Pope Gregory XIII. He died in 1584, aged only 34.

(2.) BRIL, Paul, was born in 1554; followed his brother Matthew (N. 1.) to Rome; painted ſeveral things in conjunction with him; and after his deceaſe, raiſed his own fame by his landſcapes; owing to his having ſtudied the manner of Hannibal Carrache, and copied ſome of Titian's works of the ſame kind. He was much in favour with Pope Sixtus V.: and painted for his ſucceſſor Clement VIII. the famous piece, about 68 feet long, wherein St Clement is repreſented caſt into the ſea with an anchor about his neck. He died at Rome in 1526, aged 72.

BRILL, two villages; 1. in Buckinghamſhire, near Aſhenden: and 2. in Middleſex, between London and Pancres.

BRILLEY, a village in Herefordſhire, near Eardiſley.

* BRILLIANCY. *n. ſ.* [from *brilliant.*] Luſtre; ſplendour.

(1.) * BRILLIANT. *adj.* [*brillant*, Fr.] Shining; ſparkling; ſplendid; full of luſtre.—

So have I ſeen in larder dark
Of veal a lucid loin,
Replete with many a *brilliant* ſpark,
As wiſe philoſophers remark,
At once both ſtink and ſhine. *Dorſet.*

(2.) * BRILLIANT. *n. ſ.* A diamond of the fineſt cut, formed into angles, ſo as to refract the light, and ſhine more.—

In deference to his virtues, I forbear
To ſhew you what the reſt in orders were;
This *brilliant* is ſo ſpotleſs and ſo bright,
He needs not foil, but ſhines by his own proper light. *Dryden.*

(3.) BRILLIANT, in the manege, is applied to a briſk, high mettled, ſtately, horſe, having a raiſed neck, a fine motion, and excellent haunches, upon which he riſes, though ever ſo little put on.

* BRILLIANTNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brilliant.*] Splendour; luſtre.

* BRILLS. *n. ſ.* The hairs on the eye-lids of a horſe. *Diſt.*

(1.) * BRIM. *n. ſ.* [*brim*, Icelandiſh.] 1. The edge of any thing.—His hat being in the form of a turban, daintily made, the locks of his hair came down about the *brims* of it. *Bacon.* 2. The upper edge of any veſſel.—

How my head in ointment ſwims!
How my cup o'erlooks her *brims*! *Craſhaw.*
So when with crackling flames, a cauldron fries,
The bubbling waters from the bottom riſe,
Above the *brims* they force their fiery way.
Dryden's Æn.

Thus in a baſon drop a ſhilling,
Then fill the veſſel to the *brim*,
You ſhall obſerve, as you are filling,
The pond'rous metal ſeems to ſwim. *Swift.*

3. The top of any liquour.—The feet of the priests that bare the ark, were dipped in the *brim* of the water. *Joſhua*, iii. 15. 4. The bank of a fountain.

It told me it was Cynthia's own,
Within whoſe cheerful *brims*
That curious nymph had oft been known
To bathe her ſnowy limbs. *Drayton.*

(2.) BRIM denotes the outmoſt verge or edge, eſpecially of round things. The brims of veſſels are made to project a little over, to hinder liquors, in pouring out, from running down the ſide of the veſſel. The brimming of veſſels was contrived by the ancient potters, in imitation of the ſupercilium or drip of the cornices of columns: it is done by turning over ſome of the double matter when the work is on the wheel.

(1.) * *To* BRIM. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fill to the top.—

May the *brimmed* waves, for this,
Their full tribute never miſs,
From a thouſand rills. *Milton.*

This ſaid, a double wreath Evander twin'd;
And poplars black and white his temples bind:
Then *brims* his ample bowl; with like deſign
The reſt invoke the gods, with ſprinkled wine.
Dryden.

(2.) * *To* BRIM. *v. n.* To be full to the brim.—

Now horrid frays
Commence, the *brimming* glaſſes now are hurl'd
With dire intent. *Philips.*

(3.) *To* BRIM, in country affairs. A ſow is ſaid to *brim*, or, *to go to brim*, when ſhe is ready to take the boar.

BRIMA, a name of Proſerpine.

* BRIMFUL. *adj.* [from *brim* and *full.*] Full to the top; overcharged.—

Meaſure my caſe, how by thy beauty's filling,
With ſeed of woes my heart *brimful* is charg'd.
Sidney.

We

We have try'd the utmoſt of our friends;
Our legions are *brimful*, our cauſe is ripe.
Shakeſp. J. Cæſar.

Her *brimful* eyes, that ready ſtood,
And only wanted will to weep a flood,
Releas'd their watry ſtore. *Dryden's Fables.*

The good old king at parting wrung my hand,
His eyes *brimful* of tears; then ſighing cry'd,
Prithee be careful of my ſon. *Addiſon's Cato.*

* BRIMFULNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brimful.*] Fulneſs to the top.—

The Scot, on his unfurniſh'd kingdom,
Came pouring like a tide into a beach,
With ample and *brimfulneſs* of his force.
Shakeſp. Hen. V.

BRIMINGTON, a village in Derbyſhire, near Cheſterfield.

BRIMLEY, a town near Little Hereford.

* BRIMMER. *n. ſ.* [from *brim.*] A bowl full to the top.—

When healths go round and kindly *brimmers* flow,
Till the freſh garlands on their foreheads glow.
Dryden.

*BRIMMING. *adj.* [from *brim.*] Full to the brim.

And twice beſides her beeſtings never fail,
To ſtore the dairy with a *brimming* pale. *Dryd.*

BRIMPSFIELD, a village in Glouceſterſhire, 7 miles from Glouceſter, and 6 from Cheltenham.

BRIMPTON, a ſmall towns; viz. 1. in Berkſhire: and 2. in Somerſetſhire, near Yeovil.

BRIMSLEY, a village in Nottinghamſhire.

BRIMSTAGE, in Cheſhire, near Barnſton.

(1.) * BRIMSTONE. *n. ſ.* [corrupted from *brin* or *brenſtone*, that is, fiery ſtone.] Sulphur. See SULPHUR.—

From his infernal furnace forth he threw
Huge flames, that dimmed all the heaven's light,
Enroll'd in duſkiſh ſmoke and *brimſtone* blue.
Fairy Queen.

—The vapour of the *grotto del Cane* is generally ſuppoſed to be ſulphureous, though I can ſee no reaſon for ſuch a ſuppoſition: I put a whole bundle of lighted *brimſtone* matches to the ſmoke, they all went out in an inſtant. *Addiſon on Italy.*

(2.) BRIMSTONE MEDALS, FIGURES, &c. may be caſt in the following manner: Melt half a pound of brimſtone over a gentle fire: with this mix half a pound of fine vermillion; and after clearing the top, take it off the fire, ſtir it well together, and it will diſſolve like oil: then caſt it into the mould which ſhould be firſt anointed with oil. When cool, the figure may be taken out; and if it ſhould change to a yelloviſh colour, it need only be wiped over with aquafortis, and it will look like the fineſt coral.

* BRIMSTONY. *adj.* [from *brimſtone.*] Full of brimſtone; containing ſulphur; ſulphureous.

BRIN, or BRINN, a ſtrong town of Bohemia, in Moravia. It is pretty large, and well built: the aſſembly of the ſtates is held alternately there and at Olmutz. The caſtle of Spilberg is on an eminence, out of the town, and is its principal defence. It was inveſted by the king of Pruſſia in 1742, but he was obliged to raiſe the ſiege.—It is near the Swart. Lon. 7. 8. E. Lat. 49. 8. N.

* BRINDED. *adj.* [*brin*, Fr. a branch.] Streaked; tabby; marked with ſtreaks.—

Thrice the *brinded* cat hath mew'd.
Shakſp. Macbeth.

She tam'd the *brinded* lioneſs,
And ſpotted mountain pard. *Milton.*

My *brinded* heifer to the ſtake I lay;
Two thriving calves ſhe ſuckles twice a-day.
Dryden.

BRINDICE, *n. ſ.* [from *brinde*, Fr.] A health; health. *Scott.*

BRINDISI, anciently BRUNDUSIUM, a celebrated town of Naples, in the Terra d'Otranto, with an archbiſhop's ſee. Its walls are ſtill of great extent, but the inhabited houſes do not fill above half the enclоſure. The ſtreets are crooked and rough; the buildings poor and ruinous; without any remarkable church or edifice. The cathedral, dedicated to St Theodore, is a work of king Roger, but not equal in point of architecture to many churches founded by that monarch, who had a ſtrong paſſion for building. Little remains of ancient Brunduſium, except innumerable broken pillars fixed at the corners of ſtreets to defend the houſes from carts; fragments of coarſe Moſaic, the floors of former habitations; the column of the lighthouſe; a large marble baſon, into which the water runs from brazen heads of deer; ſome inſcriptions, ruins of aqueducts, coins, and other ſmall furniture for an antiquary's cabinet. Its caſtle, built by the emperor Frederick II. to protect the northern branches of the harbour, is large and ſtately. Charles V. repaired it. The port is double, and the fineſt in the Adriatic. The outer part is formed by two promontories, which ſtretch off gradually from each other as they advance into the ſea, leaving a very narrow channel at the baſe of the angle. The iſland of St Andrew, on which Alphonſus I. built a fortreſs, lies between the capes, and ſecures the whole road from the fury of the waves. In this triangular ſpace, large ſhips may ride at anchor. At the bottom of the bay the hills recede in a ſemicircular ſhape, to leave room for the inner haven; which, as it were, claſps the city in its arms, or rather encircles it, in the figure of a ſtag's head and horns.—This form is ſaid to have given riſe to the name of *Brunduſium*, which, in the old Meſſapian language, ſignified *the head of a deer.* In ancient days the communication between the two havens was marked by lights placed upon columns of the Corinthian order, ſtanding on a riſing ground, in a direct line with the channel. Of theſe one remains entire upon its pedeſtal. Its capitals is adorned with figures of Syrens and Tritons, intermingled with the acanthus leaf, and upon it a circular vaſe, which formerly held the fire. Near it is another pedeſtal of ſimilar dimenſions, with one piece of the ſhaft lying on it. The ſpace between theſe pillars anſwered to the entrance of the harbour. "The whole kingdom of Naples (ſays Mr Swinburne) cannot ſhow a more complete ſituation for trade than Brindiſi. Here goodneſs of ſoil, depth of water, ſafety of anchorage, and a centrical poſition, are all united; yet it has neither commerce, huſbandry nor populouſneſs. From the obſtructions in the channel, which communicates with the two havens, ariſes the tribe of evils that afflict and deſolate this unhappy town. Julius Cæſar may be ſaid to have begun its ruin, by

attempting to block up Pompey's fleet. He drove piles into the neck of land between the two ridges of hills; threw in earth, trees, and ruins of houſes; and had nearly accompliſhed the blockade, when Pompey ſailed out and eſcaped to Greece. In the 15th century, the prince of Taranto ſunk ſome ſhips in the middle of the paſſage, to prevent the royaliſts from entering the port, and thereby provided a reſting place for ſea-weeds and ſand, which ſoon accumulated, choaked up the mouth, and rendered it impracticable for any veſſels whatſoever. In 1752 the evil was increaſed, ſo as to hinder even the waves from beating through; and all communication was cut off, except in violent eaſterly winds, or rainy ſeaſons, when an extraordinary quantity of freſh water raiſes the level. From that period the port became a fetid green lake, full of infection and noxious inſects; no fiſh but eels could live in it, nor any boats ply except canoes made of a ſingle tree. They can hold but one perſon, and overſet with the leaſt irregularity of motion. The low grounds at each end were overflowed and converted into marſhes, the vapours of which created every ſummer a real peſtilence; and in the courſe of very few years, ſwept off, or drove away the largeſt portion of the inhabitants. From the number of 18,000 they were reduced, in 1766, to that of 5000 livid wretches, tormented with agues and malignant fevers. In 1755, above 1500 perſons died during the autumn; a woeful change of climate! Thirty years ago, the air of Brindiſi was eſteemed ſo wholeſome and balſamic, that the convents of Naples were wont to ſend their conſumptive friars to this city for the recovery of their health. This ſtate of miſery and deſtruction induced the remaining citizens to apply for relief to Don Carlo Demarco, one of the king's miniſters, and a native of Brindiſi. In conſequence of this application, Don Vito Caravelli was ordered to draw up plans, and fix upon the means of opening the port afreſh: Don Andrea Pigonati was laſt year ſent to execute his projects; and, by the help of machines and the labour of the galley-ſlaves, has ſucceeded in ſome meaſure. The channel has been partly cleared, and has now 2 fathom of water. It can admit large boats, a great ſtep towards the revival of trade; but what is of more immediate importance, it gives a free paſſage to the ſea, which now ruſhes in with impetuoſity, and runs out again at each tide; ſo that the water of the inner port is ſet in motion, and once more rendered wholeſome. The canal is to be 700 yards long, and drawn in a ſtraight line from the column. At preſent its parapets are defended by piles and faſcines; but if the original plan be purſued, ſtone piers will be erected on both ſides. When the canal ſhall be ſcooped out to a proper depth, and its piers ſolidly eſtabliſhed, veſſels of any burden may once more enter this land-locked port, which affords room for a whole navy. Docks wet and dry may be dug, goods may be ſhipped at the quay, and convenient watering places be made with great eaſe. "If merchants ſhould think it a place of riſing trade, and worthy of their notice, there is no want of ſpace in the town for any factory whatever. Circulation of caſh would give vigour to huſbandry, and proviſions would ſoon abound in this market. The ſands at the foot of the hills, which form the channel, are to be laid out in beds for muſcles and oyſters. Some eccleſiaſtics are raiſing nurſeries of orange and lemon trees; and other citizens intend introducing the cultivation of the mulberry trees, and breeding of ſilk-worms. The engineer would have done very little for the health of Brindiſi, had he only opened a paſſage, and given a free courſe to the water; and marſhes at each extremity of the harbour would ſtill have infected the air: he, therefore, at the expence of about 1000 ducats, had the ſens filled up with earth, and a dam raiſed to confine the waters, and prevent their flowing back upon the meadows. The people of Brindiſi, who are ſenſible of the bleſſings already derived from their operations, who feel a return of health, and ſee an opening for commerce and opulence, ſeem ready to acknowledge the obligation. They intend to erect a ſtatue to the king, with inſcriptions on the pedeſtal in honour of the miniſter and agents. The workmen, in cleaning the channel, have found ſome medals and ſeals, and have drawn up many of the piles that were driven in by Cæſar. They are ſmall oak ſtripped of their bark, and ſtill as freſh as if they had been cut only a month, though buried above 18 centuries, 7 feet under the ſand. The ſoil about the town is light and good. It produces excellent cotton, with which the Brindiſians manufacture gloves and ſtockings. It is impoſſible to determine who were the founders of Brunduſium, or when it was firſt inhabited. The Romans took early poſſeſſion of a harbour ſo convenient for their enterprifes againſt the nations dwelling beyond the Adriatic. In the year of Rome 509, they ſent a colony hither. Pompey took refuge here; and finding his poſt untenable, made a precipitate retreat to Greece. In this city, Octavianus firſt aſſumed the name of Cæſar, and here he concluded one of his ſhort lived peaces with Antony. Brunduſium had been already celebrated for giving birth to the tragic poet Pacuvius, and about this time became remarkable for the death of Virgil. The barbarians, who ravaged every corner of Italy, did not ſpare ſo rich a town; and, in 836, the Saracens gave a finiſhing blow to its fortunes. The Greek emperors, ſenſible of the neceſſity of having ſuch a port as this in Italy, would have reſtored it to its ancient ſtrength and ſplendor, had the Normans allowed them time and leiſure. The Greeks ſtruggled manfully to keep their ground; but, after many varieties of ſucceſs, were finally driven out of Brindiſi by William I. The frenzy for expeditions to Paleſtine, though it drained other kingdoms of their wealth and ſubjects, contributed powerfully to the re-eſtabliſhment of this city, one of the ports where pilgrims and warriors took ſhipping. It alſo benefited by the reſidence of the emperor Frederick, whoſe frequent armaments for the Holy Land required his preſence at this place of rendezvous. The loſs of Jeruſalem, the fall of the Grecian empire, and the ruin of all the Levant trade after the Turks had conquered the Eaſt, reduced Brindiſi to a ſtate of inactivity and deſolation, from which it has never been able to emerge." Lon. 17. 45. E. Lat. 40. 25. N.

(1.) BRINDLE, a village in Lancaſhire.

(2.) * BRINDLE,

(2.) * BRINDLE. *n. f.* [from *brinded*.] The ſtate of being brinded.—A natural *brindle*. *Clariſſa*.

* BRINDLED. *adj.* [from *brindle*.] Brinded; ſtreaked.—

The boar, my ſiſters! aim the fatal dart,
And ſtrike the *brindled* monſter to the heart.
Addiſon's Ovid.

BRINDLEY, James, a moſt uncommon genius for mechanical inventions, and particularly excellent in planning and conducting inland navigations, was born in 1716, at Tunſted in Derbyſhire. Through the miſmanagement of his father, (for here was ſome little property in his houſe,) his education was totally neglected; and, at 17, he found himſelf an apprentice to a mill-wright, near Macclesfield, in Cheſhire. He ſerved his apprenticeſhip; and, afterwards ſetting up for himſelf, advanced the mill-wright buſineſs by inventions and contrivances of his own, to a degree of perfection which it had not attained before. His fame, as a moſt ingenious mechanic, ſpreading widely, his genius was no longer confined to the buſineſs of his profeſſion: for, in 1752, he erected a very extraordinary water engine at Clifton, in Lancaſhire, for the purpoſe of draining coal mines; and, 1755, was employed to execute the larger wheels for a new ſilk mill, at Congleton, in Cheſhire. The potteries of Staffordſhire were alſo, about this time, indebted to him for ſeveral valuable additions in the mills uſed by them for grinding flint ſtones. In 1756, he undertook to erect a ſteam engine near Newcaſtle under Line upon a new plan; and it is believed he would have brought this engine to a great degree of perfection, if ſome intereſted engineers had not oppoſed him. His attention, however, was ſoon afterwards called off to another object, which, in its conſequences, has proved of high importance to trade and commerce; namely, the projecting and executing "inland navigations." By theſe navigations, the expence of carriage is leſſened; a communication is opened from one part of the kingdom to another, and from each of theſe parts to the ſea; and hence, products and manufactures are afforded at a moderate price. The duke of Bridgewater had, at Worſley, about 7 miles from Mancheſter, a large eſtate abounding with coal, which had hitherto lain uſeleſs, becauſe the expence of land carriage was too great to find a market for conſumption. The duke, wiſhing to work theſe mines, perceived the neceſſity of a canal from Worſley to Mancheſter; upon which occaſion Brindley, now become famous, was conſulted; and declaring the ſcheme practicable, an act for this purpoſe was obtained in 1758 and 1759. It being, however, afterwards diſcovered, that the navigation would be more beneficial, if carried over the river Irwell to Mancheſter, another act was obtained to vary the courſe of the canal agreeable to the new plan, and likewiſe to extend a ſide branch to Longford bridge in Stretford. Brindley, in the mean time, had begun theſe great works, being the firſt of the kind every attempted in England, with navigable ſubterraneous tunnels and elevated aqueducts; and as, in order to preſerve the level of the water, it ſhould be free from the uſual obſtructions of locks, he carried the canal over rivers, and many large and deep valleys. When it was completed as far as Barton, where the Irwell is navigable for large veſſels, he propoſed to carry it over that river, by an aqueduct of 39 feet above the ſurface of the water; and though this project was treated as wild and chimerical, yet, ſupported by his noble patron, he began his work in Sept. 1760, and the firſt boat ſailed over it in July, 1761. The duke afterwards extended his ideas to Liverpool; and obtained, in 1762, an act for branching his canal to the tideway in the Merſey: this part of the canal is carried over the rivers Merſey and Bolland, and over many wide and deep valleys. The ſucceſs of the duke of Bridgewater's undertakings encouraged a number of gentlemen and manufacturers in Staffordſhire, to revive the idea of a canal navigation through that country; and Brindley was therefore engaged to make a ſurvey from the Trent to the Merſey. In 1766, this canal was begun, and conducted under Brindley's direction as long as he lived; but finiſhed after his death by his brother-in-law Mr Henſhall, of whom he had a great opinion, in May, 1777. The proprietors called it, "the canal from the Trent to the Merſey;" but the engineer, more emphatically, "the Grand Trunk Navigation," on account of the numerous branches, which, as he juſtly ſuppoſed, would be extended every way from it. It is 93 miles in length; and beſides a great number of bridges over it, has 76 locks and five tunnels. The moſt remarkable of the tunnels is the ſubterraneous paſſage of Harecaſtle, being 2880 yards in length, and more than 70 yards below the ſurface of the earth. The ſcheme of this inland navigation had employed the thoughts of the ingenious part of the kingdom for upwards of 20 years before; and ſome ſurveys had been made; but Harecaſtle hill, through which the tunnel is conſtructed, could neither be avoided nor overcome by any expedient the moſt able engineers could deviſe. It was Brindley alone who ſurmounted this and other ſimilar difficulties, ariſing from the variety of ſtrata and quickſands, as no one but himſelf would have attempted to conquer. Brindley was engaged in many other ſimilar undertakings; for a fuller account of which, we refer our reader to the "Biographia Britannica;" or rather to a curious and valuable pamphlet, publiſhed ſome years ago, and intitled, "The Hiſtory of Inland Navigations, particularly that of the Duke of Bridgewater." He died at Turnhurſt in Staffordſhire, Sept. 27th 1772, in his 56th year: ſomewhat immaturely, as it ſhould ſeem; but he is ſuppoſed to have ſhortened his days by too intenſe application, and to have brought on a hectic fever, which continued on him for ſome years before he died. He never indulged and relaxed himſelf in the common diverſions of life, as not having the leaſt reliſh for them; and, though once prevailed on to ſee a play in London, yet he declared that he would on no acount be preſent at another; becauſe it ſo diſturbed his ideas for ſeveral days after, as to render him unfit for buſineſs. When any extraordinary difficulty occurred to him in the execution of his works, he generally retired to bed; and has been known to lie there one, 2, or 3 days, till he had ſurmounted it. He would

would then get up, and execute his deſign without any drawing or model: for he had a prodigious memory, and carried every thing in his head. As his ſtation in life was low, and his education totally neglected, ſo his exterior accompliſhments were ſuitable. He could indeed read and write, but both very indifferently; and he was perhaps, as *abnormis ſapens*—as much "of mother-wit, and wiſe without the ſchools"—as any man that ever lived. "He is as plain a looking man as one of the boors in the Peake, or one of his own carters: but when he ſpeaks, all ears liſten; and every mind is filled with wonder, at the things he pronounces to be practicable." His biographer gives us alſo no ungracious idea of his moral make: "being great in himſelf, he harbours no contracted notions, no jealouſy of rivals: he conceals not his methods of proceeding, nor aſks patents to ſecure the ſole uſe of the machines, which he invents and expoſes to public view. Senſible that he muſt one day ceaſe to live, he ſelects men of genius, teaches them the power of mechanics, and employs them in carrying on the various undertakings in which he is engaged. It is not to the duke of Bridgwater only that his ſervices are confined; he is of public utility, and employs his talents in rectifying the miſtakes of deſpairing workmen, &c. His powers ſhine moſt in the midſt of difficulties; when rivers and mountains ſeem to thwart his deſigns, then appears his vaſt capacity, by which he makes them ſubſervient to his will."

(2, 3.) BRINDLEY, 2 villages; viz. 1. in Cheſhire, near Namptwich: 2. in Staffordſhire, N. of Brewood.

BRINDONES, in natural hiſtory, the name of a fruit of the Eaſt Indies, called by John Bauhine, and ſome other botanical writers, *Indici fructus rubentes acidi*. It is by many accounted delicious, notwithſtanding its great ſharpneſs; and is uſed in dyeing, and in making vinegar.

(1.)* BRINE. *n. ſ.* 1. Water impregnated with ſalt.—The encreaſing of the weight of water, will encreaſe its power of bearing; as we ſee *brine*, when it is ſalt enough, will bear an egg. *Bacon's Nat. Hiſt.*—Diſſolve ſheeps dung in water, and add to it as much ſalt as will make a ſtrong *brine*, in this liquor ſteep your corn. *Mort.* 2. The ſea, as it is ſalt.—

All, but mariners,
Plung'd in the foaming *brine*, did quit the veſſel,
Then all afire with me. *Shakeſp. Tempeſt.*

The air was calm, and, on the level, *brine*,
Sleek Panope, with all her ſiſters, play'd. *Milt.*

As when two adverſe winds
Engage with horrid ſhock, the ruffled *brine*
Roars ſtormy. . . *Philips.*

3. Tears, as they are ſalt.—

What a deal of *brine*
Hath waſh'd thy ſallow cheeks for Roſaline!
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) BRINE alſo denotes a pickle pregnant with ſalt, wherein things are ſteeped to keep.

(3.) BRINE, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Brine is either native, as the ſea-water, which by coction turns to ſalt; or factitious, formed by diſſolving ſalt in water. In the ſalt-works at Upwick in Worceſterſhire, there are found, at the ſame time, and in the ſame pit, 3 ſorts of brine, each of a different ſtrength. They are drawn by a pump; and that in the bottom, firſt brought up, is called *firſt man*; the next, *middle man*; and the third, *laſt man*.

(4.) BRINE, LAW RESPECTING. Brine taken out of brine-pits, or brine-pans, uſed by ſome for curing or pickling of fiſh, without boiling it into ſalt; and rock ſalt, without refining it into white ſalt; are prohibited by 1 Ann. cap. 21.

(5.) BRINE, LEACH, a name given to what drops from the corned ſalt in draining and drying, which they preſerve and boil again; being ſtronger than any brine in the pit. There is ſand found in all the Staffordſhire briues after coction; but naturaliſts obſerve, it did not pre-exiſt in the water, but rather is the product of the boiling. Some ſteep their ſeed-wheat in brine, to prevent the ſmut. Brine is alſo commended as of efficacy againſt gangrenes.

(6.) BRINE PANS, the pits wherein the ſalt water is retained, and ſuffered to ſtand, to bear the action of the ſun, whereby it is converted into ſalt. There are divers ſorts of ſalt pans, as the water pans, ſecond pan, ſun pan; the water being tranſferred only from one to another.

(7.) * BRINEPIT. *n. ſ.* [from *brine* and *pit*.] Pit of ſalt water.—

Then I lov'd thee,
And ſhew'd thee all the qualities o' th' iſle,
The freſh ſprings, *brinepits*, barren place, and fertile. *Shakeſpeare.*

(8.) BRINE-PIT, in ſalt-making, is the ſalt ſpring from whence the water to be boiled into ſalt is taken. There are of theſe ſprings in many places; that at Namptwich, in Cheſhire, is alone ſufficient, according to the account of the people of the place, to yield ſalt for the whole kingdom; but it is under the government of certain lords and regulators, who, that the market may not be overſtocked, will not ſuffer more than a certain quantity of the ſalt to be made yearly! See § 9.

(9) BRINE SPRINGS are fountains which flow with ſalt water inſtead of freſh. Of theſe there are a good number in South Britain, but though not peculiar to this iſland, they are far from being common on the continent. There is a remarkable one at Eaſt Chennock in Somerſetſhire, about 20 miles from the ſea. There is another at Leamington in Warwickſhire, very near the river Learn; which, however, is but weak. A third runs into the river Cherwell in Oxfordſhire; and there are ſeveral more in Weſtmoreland and Yorkſhire: but as they are weak, and the fuel in moſt of thoſe counties is ſcarce and dear, no ſalt is prepared from them. At Barrow-deal near Grange, 3 miles from Keſwick in Cumberland, a pretty ſtrong ſpring riſes in a level near a moſs; 16 gallons of the water of which yield one of pure ſalt; which is remarkable, as the ſame quantity of ſalt cannot be obtained from leſs than 22 gallons of the waters of the German ocean. At Salt-water Haugh, near Butterby, in Durham, there are a multitude of ſalt ſprings which riſe in the middle of the river Weare, for the ſpace of about 40 yards in length and ten in breadth; but particularly one out of a rock, which is ſo ſtrong that in a hot ſummer's day the ſurface is covered with a pure white ſalt.

At

At Weſton, in Staffordſhire, there are brine ſprings which afford about a 9th part of very fine white ſalt. There are others at Enſon, St Thomas, and in the pariſh of Ingeſtre, but ſo weak that they are not wrought; though it is believed, that by boring, ſtronger ſprings might be found in the neighbourhood. In Lancaſhire there are ſeveral ſalt ſprings, but (if we except thoſe at Barton, which are as rich as the ſpring at Norwich) by no means ſo famous as thoſe of Cheſhire, called in general by the name of the WICHES. Namptwich on the river Weever, has a noble ſpring not far from the river, which is ſo rich as to yield one 6th part of pure white ſalt. At Northwich, ſix miles diſtant, at the confluence of the Weever and the Dan, the brine is ſtill richer; for 6 ounces of ſalt are obtained from 16 of water. The inhabitants of Wales, who, before that country was incorporated with England, were ſupplied chiefly, if not ſolely, with that neceſſary commodity from theſe two towns, called the former HELLATH WEN, and the latter HELLATH DU; i. e. the white and black ſalt pit. In 1670, a rock of ſalt was diſcovered at a ſmall diſtance from Norwich, which has been wrought to a great depth, and to a vaſt extent, ſo as to be juſtly eſteemed one of the greateſt curioſities in England; and it is highly probable, that there is an immenſe body of foſſile ſalt in the bowels of the earth, under this whole county; for, upon boring, brine pits have been found in many places on both ſides of the Weever. This is the more likely, ſince at Middlewich, which ſtands at the confluence of the Croke and the Dan, there are ſalt ſprings with a freſh brook running between them. The brines from theſe pits are of unequal ſtrength; but when mixed, they commonly obtain 4 ounces of ſalt from a pound of brine. In theſe ſprings the water is ſtrongeſt neareſt the bottom, richer in dry weather than in wet, and when long drawn than when firſt wrought. But theſe are no rules in reſpect to other ſalt ſprings, for in thoſe of Franche Comte the brine is ſtrongeſt in wet weather. There are ſeveral other bodies diſſolved in theſe brines beſides ſalt; in ſome a ſulphureous ſubſtance, which ſublimes as the brine heats; a ſort of dirty ochre which diſcolours the brine, but, if ſuffered to ſtand, ſpeedily ſubſides; and in moſt brines a calcareous, or rather ſelenitic earth, which ſettles to the bottom of the pans. See SALT, and SPRING.

To BRINE, *v. a.* To ſteep in brine. See BRINING.

BRINEK, or BRINETI, } in aſtronomy, the bright ſtar in the conſtellation Lyra; more frequently called *Lucida Lyræ*.

(1.) * *To* BRING. *v. a.* [*bringan*, Sax. preter. *I brought*; part. paſſ. *brought*; *broht*, Sax.] 1. To fetch from another place; diſtinguiſhed from to *carry*, or convey to another place.—

I was the chief that rais'd him to the crown,
And I'll be chief to *bring* him down again. *Shak.*

—And as ſhe was going to fetch it, he called to her, and ſaid, *Bring* me, I pray thee, a morſel of bread in thy hand. *Kings.*—A regiſtry of lands may furniſh eaſy ſecurities of money, that ſhall be *brought* over by ſtrangers. *Temple.* 2. To convey in one's own hand; not to ſend by another.—

And if my wiſh'd alliance pleaſe your king,
Tell him he ſhould not ſend thee peace, but *bring*. *Dryden.*

3. To produce; to procure, as a cauſe.—There is nothing will *bring* you more honour, and more eaſe, than to do what right in juſtice you may. *Bacon.* 4. To reduce; to recal.—*Bring* back gently their wandering minds, by going before them in the train they ſhould purſue, without any rebuke. *Locke.*—Nathan's fable had ſo good an effect, as to bring the man after God's own heart to a right ſenſe of his guilt. *Spectator.* 5. To attract; to draw along.—In diſtillation, the water aſcends difficultly, and *brings* over with ſome part of the oil of vitriol. *Newton's Opticks.* 6. To put into any particular ſtate or circumſtances, to make liable to any thing.—Having got the way of reaſoning, which that ſtudy neceſſarily *brings* the mind to, they might be able to transfer it to other parts of knowledge, as they ſhall have occaſion. *Locke.*—The queſtion for *bringing* the king to juſtice was immediately put, and carried without any oppoſition, that I can find. *Swift's Preſb. Plea.* 7. To lead by degrees.—A due conſideration of the vanities of the world, will naturally *bring* us to the contempt of it; and the contempt of the world will as certainly *bring* us home to ourſelves. *L'Eſtrange.*—The underſtanding ſhould be *brought* to the difficult and knotty parts of knowledge, by inſenſible degrees. *Locke.* 8. To recal; to ſummons.—

But thoſe, and more than I to mind can *bring*,
Menalcas has not yet forgot to ſing. *Dryden.*

9. To induce; to prevail upon.—The nature of the things, contained in thoſe words, would not ſuffer him to think otherwiſe, how, or whenſoever, he is *brought* to reflect on them. *Locke.*—It ſeems ſo prepoſterous a thing to men, to make themſelves unhappy in order to happineſs, that they do not eaſily *bring* themſelves to it. *Locke.*—Profitable employments would be no leſs a diverſion than any of the idle ſports in faſhion, if men could but be *brought* to delight in them. *Locke.* 10. *To bring about.* [See ABOUT.] To bring to paſs; to effect.—

This he conceives not hard to *bring about*,
If all of you would join to help him out.
Dryden's Ind. Emp.

—This turn of mind threw off the oppoſitions of envy and competition; it enabled him to gain the moſt vain and impracticable into his deſigns, and to *bring about* ſeveral great events, for the advantage of the publick. *Addiſon's Freeholder.* 11. *To bring forth.* To give birth to; to produce.—

The good queen,
For ſhe is good, hath *brought* you *forth* a daughter:
Here 'tis; commends it to your bleſſing. *Shak.*

More wonderful
Than that which, by creation, firſt *brought forth*
Light out of darkneſs! *Paradiſe Loſt.*

Bewail thy falſehood, and the pious works
It hath *brought forth*, to make thee memorable
Among illuſtrious women, faithful wives.
Milton's Agoniſt.

Bellona leads thee to thy lover's hand,
Another queen *brings forth* another brand,
To burn with foreign fires her native land! *Dryd.*

—Idleneſs

—Idleneſs and luxury *bring forth* poverty and want; and this tempts men to injuſtice; and that cauſeth enmity and animoſity. *Tillotſon.*—The value of land is raiſed, when it is fitted to *bring forth* a greater quantity of any valuable product. *Locke.* 12. *To bring forth.* To bring to light.—The thing that is hid, *bringeth* he *forth* to light. *Job* xxxviii. 11. 13. *To bring in.* To place in any condition.—

He proteſts he loves you,
And needs no other ſuitor, but his liking,
To *bring* you *in* again. *Shakeſp. Othello.*

14. *To bring in.* To reduce.—Send over into that realm ſuch a ſtrong power of men as ſhould perforce *bring in* all that rebellious rout, and looſe people. *Spenſer on Irel.* 15. *To bring in.* To afford gain.—The ſole meaſure of all his courteſies is, what return they will make him, and what revenue they will *bring* him *in*. *South.*—Trade *brought* us *in* plenty and riches. *Locke.* 16. *To bring in.* To introduce.—Entertain no long diſcourſe with any; but, if you can, *bring in* ſomething to ſeaſon it with religion. *Taylor.*—There is but one God, who made heaven and earth, and ſea and winds; but the folly and madneſs of mankind *brought in* the images of gods. *Stillingfleet.*—The fruitfulneſs of Italy, and the like, are not *brought in* by force, but naturally ariſe out of the argument. *Addiſon.*—Since he could not have a ſeat among them himſelf, he would *bring in* one who had more merit. *Tatler.*—Quotations are beſt *brought in*, to confirm ſome opinion controverted. *Swift.* 17. *To bring off.* To clear; to procure to be acquitted; to cauſe to eſcape.—I truſted to my head, that has betrayed me; and I found fault with my legs, that would otherwiſe have *brought* me *off*. *L'Eſtr.*—Set a kite upon the bench, and it is forty to one he'll *bring off* a crow at the bar. *L'Eſtrange.*—The beſt way to avoid this imputation, and to *bring off* the credit of our underſtanding, is to be truly religious. *Tillotſon.* 18. *To bring on.* To engage in action.—If there be any that would reign, and take up all the time, let him find means to take them off, and *bring* others *on*. *Bacon.* 19. *To bring on.* To produce as an occaſional cauſe.—The fountains of the great deep being broke open, ſo as a general deſtruction and devaſtation was *brought upon* the earth, and all things in it. *Burn. Theory.*—The great queſtion, which, in all ages, has diſturbed mankind, and *brought on* them thoſe miſchiefs. *Locke.* 20. *To bring over.* To convert; to draw to a new party.—This liberty ſhould be made uſe of upon few occaſions of ſmall importance, and only with a view of *bringing over* his own ſide, another time, to ſomething of greater and more publick moment. *Swift on the Sentiments of a Church of Engl. man.*—The proteſtant clergy will find it, perhaps, no difficult matter to *bring* great numbers *over* to the church. *Swift.* 21. *To bring out.* To exhibit; to ſhew.—If I make not this cheat *bring out* another, and the ſhearers prove ſheep, let me be unrolled. *Shakeſp. Winter's Tale.*—

Which he could *bring out*, where he had,
And what he bought them for, and paid. *Hudib.*
Theſe ſhake his ſoul, and, as they boldly preſs,
Bring out his crimes, and force him to confeſs.
Dryden.

—Another way made uſe of, to find the weight of the denarii, was by the weight of Greek coins; but thoſe experiments *bring out* the denarius heavier. *Arbuth.* 22. *To bring under.* To ſubdue; to repreſs.—That ſharp courſe which you have ſet down, for *bringing under* of thoſe rebels of Ulſter, and preparing a way for their perpetual reformation. *Spenſer.*—To ſay, that the more capable, or the better deſerver, hath ſuch right to govern, as he may compulſorily *bring under* the leſs worthy, is idle. *Bacon.* 23. *To bring up.* To educate; to inſtruct; to form.—The well *bringing up* of the people, ſerves as a moſt ſure bond to hold them. *Sidney.*—He that takes upon him the charge of *bringing up* young men, eſpecially young gentlemen, ſhould have ſomething more in him than Latin. *Locke.*—They frequently converſed with his lovely virgin, who had been *brought up* by her father in knowledge. *Addiſon's Guardian.* 24. *To bring up.* To introduce to general practice.—Several obliging deferences, condeſcenſions, and ſubmiſſions, with many outward forms and ceremonies, were firſt of all *brought up* among the politer part of mankind, who lived in courts and cities. *Spectator.* 25. *To bring up.* To cauſe to advance.—

Bring up your army; but, I think, you'll find,
They've not prepar'd for us. *Shakeſpeare.*

26. *Bring* retains in all its ſenſes the idea of an agent, or cauſe producing a real or metaphorical motion of ſomething towards ſomething; for it is oft ſaid, that *he* brought *his companion* out. The meaning is, that he was *brought to* ſomething that was likewiſe *without*.

(2.) *To* BRING IN A HORSE, in the menage, is the ſame as to keep down the noſe of one that boars and toſſes his noſe in the wind. This is done by means of a branch.

(3.) *To* BRING TO, in navigation, to check the courſe of a ſhip when ſhe is advancing, by arranging the ſails in ſuch a manner, that they ſhall counteract each other, and prevent her either from retreating or moving forward. In this ſituation the ſhip is ſaid to lie by, or lie to; having, according to the ſea-phraſe, ſome of her ſails *aback*, to oppoſe the force of thoſe which are full; or having them otherwiſe ſhortened by being *furled*, or *hauled up in the brails*. Bringing to is generally uſed to detain a ſhip in any particular ſtation, in order to wait the approach of ſome other that may be advancing towards her; or to retard her courſe occaſionally near any port in the courſe of a voyage.

(1.) * BRINGER. *n. ſ.* [from *bring*.] The perſon that brings any thing.—

Yet the firſt *bringer* of unwelcome news
Hath but a loſing office: and his tongue
Sounds ever after as a ſullen bell,
Remember'd tolling a dead friend. *Shakeſ.*
Beſt you ſee ſafe the *bringer*
Out of the hoſt: I muſt attend mine office.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) * BRINGER UP. Inſtructor; educator.—Italy and Rome have been breeders and *bringers up* of the worthieſt men. *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter.*

BRINGHURST, a town near Weſton, Leiceſter.

BRINGTON GREAT, and BRINGTON LITTLE, two villages in Northamptonſh. near Althorp.

BRING-

BRINGWIN, in Monmouthſh. near Ragland.

BRINHAM, near Putly-bridge, Yorkſhire.

(1.) BRINING OF CORN, in huſbandry, an operation performed on the wheat ſeed, to prevent the ſmut. A liquor is to be prepared for this purpoſe, by putting 70 gallons of water into a tub (like a maſh-tub uſed for brewing), and a corn buſhel of unſlacked lime-ſtone. This is to be well ſtirred till the whole is diſſolved, and left to ſtand for 30 hours; after which it is to be drained off into another tub, in the manner practiſed for beer. In this way about a hogſhead of ſtrong lime-water will be obtained, to which muſt be added 3 pecks of ſalt. The wheat muſt be ſteeped in this prickle, by running it gently, and in ſmall quantities, into a broad bottomed baſket of about 24 inches in diameter, and 20 inches deep, and ſtirring it. The light ſeed that floats muſt be ſtrained off with a ſtrainer, and muſt not be ſown. When the baſket has been drawn up, and drained of the prickle, the wheat will be fit for ſowing in two hours after the brining.

(2.) BRINING OF HAY RICKS, a practice common in America, of mixing ſalt with the hay as it is ſtacked.

* BRINISH. *adj.* [from *brine.*] Having the taſte of brine; ſalt.—

Nero would be tainted with remorſe
To hear and ſee her plaints, her *briniſh* tears.
Shakeſpeare.

For now I ſtand, as one upon a rock,
Environ'd with a wilderneſs of ſea,
Who marks the waxing tide grow wave by wave;
Expecting ever when ſome envious ſurge
Will, in his *briniſh* bowels, ſwallow him. *Shakeſ.*

* BRINISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *briniſh.*] Saltneſs; tendency to ſaltneſs.

* BRINK. *n. ſ.* [*brink*, Daniſh.] The edge of any place, as of a precipice or a river.—

Th' amazed flames ſtand gather'd in a heap,
And from the precipice's *brink* retire,
Afraid to venture on ſo large a leap. *Dryden.*

—We ſtand therefore on the *brinks* and confines of thoſe ſtates at the day of doom. *Atterbury.*—

So have I ſeen, from Severn's *brink*,
A flock of geeſe jump down together,
Swim where the bird of Jove wou'd ſink;
And, ſwimming, never wet a feather. *Swift.*

BRINKHILL, a village in Lincolnſhire, near Somerby.

BRINKLEY, two villages; viz. 1. in Cambridge, near Carlton: 2. in Northumberland near Fakedon.

BRINKLOW, in Warwickſ. near Cumberland.

BRINKWORTH, S. of Brandon foreſt, Wilts.

BRINLEY, James. See BRINDLEY, N. 1.

BRINN. See BRIN.

To BRINNE, *v. a. obſ.* to burn. *Chaucer.*

BRINNY, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

BRINSAP, in Lancaſhire, N. of Wigan.

BRINSOP, 4 m. N. W. of Hereford.

BRINSUPDELL, near Afpiddle, Dorſetſhire.

BRINTON, two ſmall towns; viz. 1. in Huntingdonſhire, near Moleſworth: 2. in Norfolkſhire, near Holt.

* BRINY. *adj.* [from *brine.*] Salt.—

He, who firſt the paſſage try'd,
In harden'd oak his heart did hide;
Or his, at leaſt, in hollow wood,
Who tempted firſt the *briny* flood. *Dryden.*

Then, *briny* ſeas, and taſteful ſprings, farewel,
Where fountain nymphs, confus'd with Nereids, dwell. *Addiſon.*

—A muriatick or *briny* taſte ſeems to be produced by a mixture of an acid and alkaline ſalt; for ſpirit of ſalt, and ſalt of tartar, mixed, produce a ſalt like ſea ſalt. *Arbuthnot.*

BRIOCH, INCH. See INCH-BRAYOCK.

BRIONNE, a town of France, in the department of Lower Seine, and ci-devant province of Normandy, ſeated on the river Rille. Lon. 0. 51. E. Lat. 49. 51. N.

* BRIONY. See BRYONY.

BRIOUDE, a town of France, in the department of Upper Loire, and ci-devant province of Lower Auvergne. The houſes are built after the antique manner, and are badly diſpoſed. Under the old conſtitution it was ranked in no dioceſe, but depended immediately on the Pope; and the canons were all counts and temporal lords. One half of it had the name of *Church Brioude.* The church of St Ferrol, is highly celebrated. Near the Old Town is a ſtone bridge over the Allier, of one arch. It is a ſtupendous ſtructure, and is thought to be a work of the Romans. Brioude is ſituated 16 m. S. of Iſſoire, and 225 S. by E. of Paris. Lon. 2. 50. E. Lat. 46. 15. N.

BRIQUERAS, a town in Piedmont, ſeated in the valley of Lucern, 3 miles from the town of that name, and 4 from Pignerol. It had a very ſtrong caſtle towards the end of the 12th century; but when the French got footing in it, it was ruined, before they delivered it up to the duke of Savoy in 1696. Lon. 7. 24. E. Lat. 44. 41. N.

(1.) BRISACH, or OLD BRISACH, a town of Germany, and capital of Briſgaw. It was twice in poſſeſſion of the French; but reſtored to the houſe of Auſtria, in conſequence of treaties of peace. It was a very ſtrong place, but the fortifications have been demoliſhed. It is ſeated on the Rhine, where there is a bridge of boats; 25 m. S. of Straſburg. The French took this town in 1795; but were driven from it by a party of Auſtrians under Prince Charles, in 1796. A party of the republicans, however, under Gen. St Cyr, expelled the Auſtrians, and again took poſſeſſion of it on the 13th Oct. 1796. Lon. 7. 49. E. Lat. 48. 8. N.

(2.) BRISACH, NEW, a town of France, in the department of Upper Rhine, and ci-devant province of Alſace, built by order of Lewis XIV. over againſt Old Briſach, and fortified by Vauban It is 32 miles S. of Straſburg, and one from the Rhine. Lon. 7. 46. E. Lat. 48. 5. N.

BRISÆUS, in mythology, a name of Bacchus.

(1.) BRISCO, a village near Carliſle.

(2.) BRISCO, EAST, } two villages in Yorkſhire
(3.) BRISCO, WEST, } W. of Barnard's caſtle.

BRISCOIDES. See BRISSOIDES.

BRISE, *adj.* in heraldry, broken.

BRISEIS, or HIPPODAMIA, in fabulous hiſtory, the wife of Mynes king of Lyrneſſa. After Achilles had taken the city, and killed her huſband, ſhe became his captive. The hero loved her tenderly; but Agamemnon taking her from him, ſhe became the accidental cauſe of [illegible]

leſs diſorders in the Grecian army. Achilles, enraged, retired to his tent; and, till the death of Patroclus, refuſed to fight againſt the Trojans. The reſentment of this prince is finely painted in the Iliad.

BRISE-NORTON, a town in Oxfordſhire.

BRISET, in Suffolk, near Bliſton.

BRISGAW, a territory of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, on the eaſtern banks of the Rhine, about 50 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The principal places are Old and New Briſach, Freyburgh, Rhinmark, and an iſland in the Rhine. This country has been a ſcene of frequent and bloody conteſts between the French and Auſtrians during the preſent war. The French took Fribourg, the capital, after a very hard fought battle in June, 1796. Upon the retreat of Gen. Moreau's army in October 1796, the Archduke Charles became once more maſter of Briſgaw.

BRISIACUS MONS, in ancient geography, a town on the right or E. ſide of the Rhine; ſituated on a round hill; a fortified town of Suabia; now called OLD BRISAC.

* BRISK. *adj.* [*bruſque*, French.] 1. Lively; vivacious; gay; ſprightly: applied to men.—

Pr'ythee, die, and ſet me free,
Or elſe be
Kind and *briſk*, and gay like me. *Denham.*

—A creeping young fellow, that had committed matrimony with a *briſk* gameſome laſs, was ſo altered in a few days, that he was liker a ſkeleton than a living man. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Why ſhou'd all honour then be ta'en
From lower parts, to load the brain:
When other limbs we plainly ſee,
Each in his way, as *briſk* as he? *Prior.*

2. Powerful; ſpirituous.—

Our nature here is not unlike our wine;
Some ſorts, when old, continue *briſk* and fine. *Denham.*

Under ground, the rude Riphæan race
Mimick *briſk* cyder, with the brake's product wild,
Sloes pounded, hips, and ſervis' harſheſt juice. *Philips.*

—It muſt needs be ſome exterious cauſe, and the *briſk* acting of ſome objects without me, whoſe efficacy I cannot reſiſt. *Locke.* 3. Vivid; bright. This is not uſed.—Objects appeared much darker, becauſe my inſtrument was overcharged; had it magnified thirty or twenty-five times, it had made the object appear more *briſk* and pleaſant. *Newton.*

* BRISKET. *n. ſ.* [*brichet*, Fr.] The breaſt of an animal.—See that none of the wool be wanting, that their gums be red, teeth white and even, and the *briſket* ſkin red. *Mortimer.*

* BRISKLY. *adv.* [from *briſk.*] Actively; vigorouſly.—We have ſeen the air in the bladder ſuddenly expand itſelf ſo much, and ſo *briſkly*, that it manifeſtly lifted up ſome light bodies that leaned upon it. *Boyle.*—I could plainly perceive the creature to ſuck in many of the moſt minute animalcula, that were ſwiming *briſkly* about in the water. *Ray on the Creation.*

* BRISKNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *briſk.*] 1. Livelineſs; vigour; quickneſs.—Some remains of corruption, though they do not conquer and extinguiſh, yet will ſlacken and allay the vigour and *briſkneſs* of the renewed principle. *South.* 2. Gayety.—But the moſt diſtinguiſhing part of his character ſeems to me, to be his *briſkneſs*, his jollity, and his good humour. *Dryden.*

* *To* BRISK UP. *v. n.* To come up briſkly.

BRISLEY, a town near Lytcham, Norfolkſh.

BRISLINGTON, in Somerſetſh. near Briſtol.

BRISSAC, a town of France, in the department of Maine and Loire, ſeated on the Aubence, 13 m. S. of Angers. Lon. 0. 27. W. Lat. 47. 20. N.

BRISSOIDES, in natural hiſtory, a genus of the echini marini. The diſtinguiſhing characters are, that they are of an oval figure, and have their backs ſtriated, not furrowed, and their rays ſmooth, not marked with ridges. Of this genus there are two known ſpecies.

BRISSONIUS, Barnaby, an eminent French lawyer and preſident of the parliament of Paris, born at Fontenay about the middle of the 16th century. He was much eſteemed and honoured by Henry III. who boaſted of him, as the moſt learned man in Chriſtendom. He employed him in various negociations, particularly ambaſſador to England. Being at Paris, when it was beſieged by Henry IV. and remonſtrating againſt the treaſonable practices of the Leaguers, they fell upon him, dragged him to priſon, and ſtrangled him, Nov. 15, 1591. He wrote, 1. *De Verborum ſignificatione*: 2. *De formulis ſolennibus populi Romani verbis*: 3. *De Regio Perſarum principatu*; and ſome other works.

(1.) BRISSOT, Peter, one of the ableſt phyſicians of the 16th century, was born at Fontenai le Comte in Poictou. He ſtudied at Paris; and, having taken his degree of M. D. bent his thoughts to the reforming of phyſic, by reſtoring the precepts of Hippocrates and Galen, and exploding the maxims of the Arabians. For this purpoſe he publicly explained Galen's works, inſtead of thoſe of Avicenna, Rhaſis, and Meſſue. He afterwards travelled to acquire the knowledge of plants; and going to Portugal, practiſed phyſic in Ebora. His new method of bleeding in pleuriſies, on the ſide where the pleuriſy was, raiſed a kind of civil war among the Portugueſe phyſicians; it was brought to the univerſity of Salamanca, who at laſt gave judgment, that the opinion aſcribed to Briſſot was the pure doctrine of Galen. The partizans of Denys, his opponent, appealed in 1529 to the emperor, to prevent the practice, as being attended with deſtructive conſequences; but Charles III. duke of Savoy happening to die at this time of a pleuriſy, after having been bled on the oppoſite ſide, the proſecution dropped. He wrote an Apology for his practice; but died before it was publiſhed, in 1552; but Anthony Luceus, his friend, printed it at Paris in 1555. Renatus Moreau procured a new edition of it at Paris, in 1613, and annexed to it a treatiſe, intitled *De ſuperfluo ſanguinis in pleuritide*, together with the Life of Briſſot.

(2.) BRISSOT DE WARVILLE, J. P. an eminent French author and politician, who had an active hand in the late revolution, to the convulſions attending which, however, he at laſt fell a ſacrifice. As we wiſh to do juſtice to a character ſo diſtinguiſhed, both in the political and literary world, of whom we have not yet met with a per-

per

per and impartial account, we muſt refer our readers for farther information reſpecting this great man to the SUPPLEMENT.

BRISSOTINES, a political party in France, during its revolutionary ſtate, ſo denominated from citizen Briſſot, their chief leader. They were keen republicans, but wiſhed to eſtabliſh a federal government in France like that of America.

BRISSUS, in natural hiſtory, a genus of the echini marini. The characters are, that they are of an oval figure, and have the aperture of the anus on one of the ſides of the ſuperficies; their back is ſmooth and even, not furrowed; but on the vertex they have ſeveral very elegant crenated and dotted lines. Their baſe is as if cut off on the end neareſt the mouth, and is not flat as in the SPATANGI, but raiſed in the manner of a cuſhion.

* BRISTLE. *n. ſ.* [*briſtl*, SAX.] The ſtiff hair of ſwine.—I will not open my lips ſo wide as a *briſtle* may enter. *Shakeſpeare.*—He is covered with hair, and not as the boar, with *briſtles*, which probably ſpend more upon the ſame matter, which, in other creatures, makes the horns; for *briſtles* ſeem to be nothing elſe but a horn ſplit into a multitude of little ones. *Grew.*—

Two boars whom love to battle draws,
With riſing *briſtles*, and with forthy jaws,
Their adverſe breaſts with tuſks oblique they wound. *Dryden.*

(1.) * *To* BRISTLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To erect in briſtles.—

Now for the bare pickt bone of majeſty,
Doth dogged war *briſtle* his angry creſt,
And ſnarleth in the gentle eyes of peace. *Shakeſ.*
Which makes him plume himſelf, and *briſtle* up
The creſt of youth againſt your dignity. *Shakeſ.*

(2.) * *To* BRISTLE. *v. n.* To ſtand erect as briſtles.—

Be it ounce, or cat, or bear,
Pard, or boar with *briſtled* hair,
In thy eye that ſhall appear,
When thou wak'ſt, it is thy dear. *Shakeſ.*
Stood Theodore ſurpriz'd in deadly fright,
With chatt'ring teeth, and *briſtling* hair upright;
Yet arm'd with inborn worth. *Dryden.*
Thy hair ſo *briſtles* with unmanly fears,
As fields of corn that riſe in bearded ears. *Dryd.*

(3.) * *To* BRISTLE A THREAD. To fix a briſtle to it.

* BRISTLY. *adj.* [from *briſtle.*] Thick ſet with briſtles.—The leaves of the black mulberry are ſomewhat *briſtly*, which may help to preſerve the dew. *Bacon.*—If the eye were ſo acute as to rival the fineſt microſcope, the ſight of our own eyes would affright us; the ſmootheſt ſkin would be beſet with rugged ſcales and *briſtly* hairs. *Bentley.*—

Thus maſtful beech the *briſtly* cheſnut bears,
And the wild aſh is white with bloomy pears. *Dryden.*
The careful maſter of the ſwine,
Forth haſted he to tend his *briſtled* care. *Pope.*

(1.) BRISTOL, a city of England, inferior to none, except London, in wealth, trade, and number of inhabitants. Briſtol is a corruption of BRIGHTSTOW, the name given it by the Saxons. It is thought to have ſtood anciently altogether on the Somerſetſhire or W. ſide of the Avon, before the bridge was built; but afterwards, it came to be partly in Somerſetſhire and partly in Glouceſterſhire, until it was made a county of itſelf. Before that, in the parliament rolls, it was always placed in Somerſetſhire. At preſent, the E. ſide is by much the largeſt and moſt populous. It had anciently a caſtle, built by Robert E. of Glouceſter, natural ſon to Henry I. which was demoliſhed by Cromwell; and the ground is now laid out into ſtreets. The corporation conſiſts of a mayor; recorder; and 12 aldermen, of whom the recorder is one; two ſheriffs; and 28 common council men. The recorder is generally a ſerjeant at law, and fits as judge in all criminal cauſes. The mayor, to ſupport his dignity, is intitled to certain fees from ſhips, which long ago amounted to L. 500 or L. 600. Briſtol is a biſhop's ſee, being one of the ſix erected by Henry VIII. out of the ſpoils of the monaſteries. The cathedral church was the church of the abbey of St Auſtin in Briſtol, founded by Robert Fitzharding ſon to a king of Denmark, once a citizen here, and by him filled with canons regular in 1148. At the reformation, Henry VIII. placed therein a dean and ſix prebendaries, which mode of government ſtill continues. During a great part of Q. Elizabeth's reign, his ſee was held *in commendam* by the biſhop of Glouceſter. This dioceſe was formed chiefly out of that of Saliſbury, with a ſmall part from thoſe of Wells and Worceſter. It contains moſt of the city of Briſtol, and all the county of Dorſet, in which are 236 pariſhes. It has only one archdeaconry, viz. of Dorſet; is valued in the king's books L. 338 : 8 : 4, and is computed to be annually worth L. 1500, including its *commendams.* The tenths of the clergy, L. 353, 18 s. o¼d. The revenue of the abbey of St Auguſtine, or St Auſtin, in Briſtol, was valued at the diſſolution at L. 670 : 13 : 11, when it was erected into a cathedral by king Henry VIII. by the name of the *Cathedral Church of the Holy Trinity.* To this cathedral belongs a biſhop, a dean, an archdeacon, a chancellor, ſix prebendaries, and other inferior officers and ſervants. Beſides the cathedral, there are 18 pariſh churches; and diſſenters of all denominations, of whom the Quakers are very reſpectable both for wealth and numbers. Among the pariſh churches, that of St Mary Ratcliff is reckoned one of the fineſt in the kingdom. In this church, beſides two monuments of the founder, William Cannings, who had been 5 times mayor, one in the habit of a magiſtrate, and another in that of a prieſt, (for in his latter days he took orders,) there is one of Sir William Penn, father to the famous quaker. The old bridge over the Avon conſiſted of 4 broad arches, with houſes on both ſides like thoſe formerly on London bridge; but this has been lately pulled down, and another erected in its place. No carts or waggons are admitted into Briſtol, leſt they ſhould damage the ſubterraneous vaults and ſewers. Sledges are uſed in their ſtead. Queen's-ſquare is larger than any ſquare in London, except Lincoln's-inn-fields, and has in the centre an equeſtrian ſtatue of William III. All the gates of this city remain entire, and a part of the walls; the reſt were razed in the reign of William II. It is almoſt as broad as long, about 7 miles in circum-

ference, and contains about 13,000 houſes, and 95,000 inhabitants. Of the hoſpitals, the chief are, 1. Q. Elizabeth's, in which 100 boys are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and navigation; ſix of whom, when they go out, have L. 10, and the reſt L. 8, 8s. to bind them apprentices: the maſter is allowed L. 450 a year for their maintenance. 2. Colſton's hoſpital; in which 100 boys are maintained for 7 years, and taught and apprenticed, as in the other. 3. Another founded alſo by Mr Colſton, in 1691, for 12 men and 12 women, with an allowance of 3s. per week, and 24 ſacks of coals in the year. This charity coſt the founder L. 25,000. 4. Another founded partly by Mr Colſton and partly by the merchants, in which 18 men on account of the merchants, and 12 men and women on account of Mr Colſton, are maintained. 5. An infirmary, which was opened in 1736 for the ſick, lame, and diſtreſſed poor, is maintained by ſubſcription, beſides L. 5000 bequeathed to it by John Eldridge, Eſq; formerly comptroller of the cuſtoms at this port. There are alſo a bridewell, ſeveral alm houſes, and charity ſchools; a guildhall for the ſeſſions and aſſizes; the mayor's and ſheriffs courts; a council-houſe, where the mayor and aldermen meet daily, to adminiſter juſtice; a handſome new exchange, with 3 entrances, about two thirds as large as that of London; and a quay half a mile in length, the moſt commodious in England for ſhipping and landing goods; for which purpoſe it is provided with ſeveral cranes. In College-green is a ſtately high croſs, with the effigies of ſeveral kings round it. In Winch-ſtreet is a guard-houſe, with barracks for ſoldiers. The trade of this city was computed many years ago to be much greater in proportion, eſpecially to America and the Weſt Indies, than that of London. Fifty ſail, ſome of them ſhips of conſiderable burthen, have arrived here at one time, or very near one another from the Weſt Indies. For this trade, and that to Ireland, it is much better ſituated than London, beſides the great advantage it poſſeſſes of an inland navigation by the Wye and Severn: and it is reckoned that 2000 veſſels ſail annually from this port. Their trade extends to the Baltic, Norway, Holland, Hamburgh, Guinea, and the Straits. The largeſt ſhips are diſcharged at Hungroad, 4 miles below the city, and the goods are brought to the quay by lighters. For building, equipping, and repairing ſhips, there are docks, yards, ropewalks, and ſhip-wrights. Briſtol has ſome conſiderable woollen manufactures; and no fewer than 15 glaſs-houſes, for which Kingſwood and Mendip furniſh the coals. The city companies are 13: 1. Merchant adventurers. 2. Merchant tailors. 3. Mercers. 4. Soap-boilers. 5. Tobacconiſts. 6. Butchers. 7. Barbers. 8 Tylers. 9. Hollers, or fled-men. 10. Shoemakers. 11. Coopers. 12. Bakers. 13. Smiths. For ſupplying the city with water there are 6 public conduits; and handſome hackney coaches may be hired at very reaſonable rates, but they do not ply in the ſtreets. There are alſo ſtage coaches, which ſet out every day for Bath, London, and other places; and a theatre, where plays are acted almoſt every night during the receſs of the comedians from the metropolis. There are two annual fairs, to which the concourſe is ſo great, that the neighbouring inns have filled 100 beds a-piece with their gueſts. In winter there is an aſſembly every Thurſday for the gayer part of the citizens of both ſexes. About half way betwixt Briſtol and Bath, at a place called WARMLY, a company of Briſtol merchants have erected a noble manufacture of pins and other braſs utenſils, which employs a great number of hands, including about 200 children of both ſexes from 7 to 12 or 13 years of age. All the different operations of melting, plitting, drawing, hammering, turning, &c. are performed by wheels worked with water, which is raiſed by two fire-engines of a very curious mechaniſm. Briſtol ſends two members to parliament. Whoever marries a citizen's daughter becomes free of the city. It has 3 markets, on Wed. Frid. and Sat. It is 40 m. S. of Hereford, 60 N. E. of Exeter, 34 S. W. by S. of Glouceſter, 50 S. S. W. of Worceſter, 13 W. N. W. of Bath, and 124 W. of London. Lon. 2. 36. W. Lat. 51. 28. N.

(2.) BRISTOL, a maritime county of the United States, in Maſſachuſetts; bounded on the N. by Norfolk, on the S. W. by the State of Rhode-Iſland, on the S. and S. E. by Buzzard's bay, and on the N. E. by Plymouth county. It is 42 m. in length, and 32 in breadth; and is divided into 15 townſhips, viz. Taunton, Norton, Eaſton, Mansfield, Attleborough, Swanzy, Somerſet, Dighton, Raynham, Berkley, Freetown, Weſtport, Dartmouth, New-Bedford, and Rehoboth. It contains 4,514 houſes, and 31,709 inhabitants. This county contains valuable mines of iron ore, which are worked to a large amount. Copper ore has been diſcovered in Attleborough townſhip. The chief town is Taunton.

(3.) BRISTOL, a maritime county of the ſtate of Rhode-Iſland, 7 miles in length and 3 in breadth. It is bounded on the E. by Mount-Hope, or Briſtol-bay, on the W. by Warwick-bay, on the N. by the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts, and on the S. by part of Narraganſet bay. It is divided into three townſhips, viz. Briſtol, Warren, and Barrington; and contains 3,113 free inhabitants, and 98 ſlaves.

(4.) BRISTOL, a poſt town, and the capital of the preceding county; (N. 3.) It is ſituated on the main, 12 miles N. N. E. of Newport, and contains about 250 dwellings, a handſome court-houſe, a church for Epiſcopalians, and one for Congregationaliſts. This town was bombarded by captain Wallace, commanding a ſmall Britiſh ſquadron, in October, 1775, and laid under contribution; no lives were loſt on the occaſion, except the miniſter of the congregational church, who left his houſe at the commencement of the bombardment, and being ſick and very weak, periſhed in the fields. Several of the houſes were deſtroyed; but they have been ſince rebuilt. It is now flouriſhing, and carries on a conſiderable trade to Africa, the Weſt Indies, and the different States. Within the juriſdiction of this town, is Mount Hope, the laſt reſidence of the famous king Philip. It is now the ſeat of Mr Bradford, ſenator in Congreſs. This place is remarkable for the large quantities of fine vegetables, with which it furniſhes the neighbouring towns, upwards of 300,000 ropes of onions, beſides immenſe quan-

tities

ities of beets, carrots, turnips, &c. &c. are raiſed here annually. A ſupreme court is held here the 1ſt Monday in April, and October, and a court of common pleas the 1ſt Monday in January and July. It is 4 miles S. of Warren, 14 S. E. by E. of Providence, and 300 from Philadelphia.

(5.) BRISTOL, or BRISTOL, NEW, the capital of the county of Bucks in Pennſylvania, ſituated on the river Delawar, about 20 miles N. of Philadelphia. It contains about 50 dwellings, ſome of which are neat and commodious. It is an agreeable handſome place; and is the reſort of much company in ſummer. It was incorporated by Sir William Keith, in 1720; and was governed by a burgeſs and common council men, until the revolution. Lon. 75. 0. W. Lat. 40. 45. N.

(6.) * BRISTOL STONE. A kind of ſoft diamond found in a rock near the city of Briſtol.—Of this kind of cryſtal are the better and larger ſort of *Briſtol ſtones*, and the Kerry ſtones of Ireland. *Woodward.*

(7.) BRISTOL STONES are found in St Vincent's rock above the hot well of BRISTOL: (§ 8.) They are ſix-cornered, and very beautiful and tranſparent; but they are not ſo plentiful now as in Camden's days, when he ſays whole buſhels might have been eaſily gathered.

(8.) BRISTOL WELLS. A mile below the city, (N. 1.) cloſe by the river, is the hot well, whoſe waters are good in pthifical, ſcorbutic, and inflammatory diſorders. To this there is a great reſort in the ſummer, of invalids, as well as other company; for whoſe accommodation and entertainment there is a pump-room, ball-room, coffee-houſe, with taverns, and a great number of elegant lodging houſes, both below on a level with the well, and above, in the delightful village of CLIFTON, which is ſituated on the brow of a hill, from whence there are downs extending ſeveral miles, where the company ride out for exerciſe. Nothing can be more pure and ſalutary than the air of theſe downs, which afford many romantic and agreeable proſpects, comprehending Kingroad, with the ſhips at anchor, the mouth of the Severn, and the mountains of Wales. Of the 4 principal warm waters naturally produced in England thoſe of this well are the leaſt ſo. As the Bath waters are proper where the ſecretions are defective, ſo the Briſtol water is of ſervice where they exceed the requirements of health. The Bath water warms; the Briſtol cools. Bath water helps the ſtomach, inteſtines, and nerves; the Briſtol favours the lungs, kidneys, and bladder. Except a jaundice attend, the Briſtol water may be of uſe in dropſies by its drying and diuretic qualities. Dr Winter aſſerts, that there is no iron in Briſtol water; and that its mineral contents are chalk, lapis calcareus, and calaminaris. Five gallons of this water, after evaporation, afforded only ʒ iii. and gr. ii. of a mineral-like ſubſtance. The diſeaſes in which this water is uſeful are internal hæmorrhagies, immoderate menſes, internal inflammations, ſpitting blood, dyſentery, purulent ulcers of the viſcera, conſumption, dropſy, ſcurvy with heat, ſtone, gravel, ſtrangury, habitual gout, atrophy, ſlow fever, ſcrophula, gleets, and diabetes, in which laſt it is a ſpecific, and may be drunk as freely as the thirſt requires it. The hot months are the beſt for uſing it.—The Briſtol and Matlock waters are of exactly the ſame qualities. Doctors Mead and Lane firſt eſtabliſhed the reputation of Briſtol waters in diſeaſes of the kidneys and bladder. Beſides the hot well, there is a cold ſpring which guſhes out of a rock on the ſide of the Avon, and ſupplies the cold bath.

BRISTOW-CAUSEWAY, a village in Surry, near Clapham.

BRISTOW-PARK, in Leiceſterſhire.

BRISURE, in fortification, a line of 4 or 5 fathoms, parallel to the line of defence.

* BRIT. *n. ſ.* the name of a fiſh.—The pilchards were wont to purſue the *brit*, upon which they feed, into the havens. *Carew.*

(1.1.) BRITAIN, or GREAT BRITAIN, the moſt conſiderable of all the European iſlands, extends from the Lizard Point, in the latitude of about 50° to Duneſbay Head, in latitude 58. 40. N. or, taking it in a ſtraight line from N. to S. about 8° or 550 miles; and from Dover Head on the E. to Lands-end on the W. comprehends about 7° of longitude; which may be computed at about 290 miles. Others eſtimate its length at 700 miles, and its breadth at 300; but the form being very irregular, and leſſening continually towards the north, proper allowances muſt be made in computing its dimenſions.

(2.) BRITAIN, ANCIENT NAMES AND ETYMOLOGIES OF. The ancient name of this iſland was ALBION, the name *Britain* being then common to all the iſlands round it. Hence Agathemerus, ſpeaking of the Britiſh iſlands, "They are many in number, (ſays he,) but the moſt conſiderable among them are Hibernia and Albion." And Ptolemy, to the chapter wherein he deſcribes this iſland, prefixes the following title; "The ſituation of *Albion*, a Britiſh iſland." But as this far excelled the other Britiſh iſlands, the name of *Albion* in time was laid quite aſide, and that of *Britain* uſed in its ſtead. By this name it was known in Pliny's time, and even in Cæſar's.—The origin of both theſe names is very uncertain. Some derive that of Albion from the Greek word *alphon*, which, according to Feſtus, ſignifies *white*, the chalky cliffs, that in ſeveral places riſe on the ſouthern coaſts having that colour; while others pretend this name was borrowed from a fabulous giant, the ſon of Neptune, mentioned by ſeveral ancient authors. Some etymologiſts have recourſe to the Hebrew, and others to the Phœnician; *alben* in the former ſignifying *white*, and *alp* in the latter ſignifying *high*. The origin of the name *Britain* is no leſs uncertain than that of *Albion*. Nennius and ſome other Britiſh writers derive it from BRUTUS, or BRITO, the 5th in deſcent from the celebrated Æneas. Others derive it from the Britiſh words *pryd cain*, that is a *white form*, ſoftened by degrees into *Britannia*. Camden derives it from the word *brith*, which, in the ancient language of the iſland, ſignifies *painted*; and *tania*, importing, in Greek, a region or country; ſo that the word *Brithania*, changed in proceſs of time into *Britannia*, expreſſes what the Britons really were, that is, *painted*. Somner, ſays, that the name *Britain* comes from *brydio*; ſignifying, in the Britiſh tor

and pointing out the violent motion of the ſea that ſurrounds the iſland. Mr Whittaker, in his hiſtory of Mancheſter, derives it from the word *brith*, *briet*, *brit*, *bris*, or *brig*, which, he ſays, ſignifies *divided* or *ſtriped*. Againſt the firſt of theſe etymologies it may be objected, that it is founded on a fable: and againſt the other 4, lies one common and unanſwerable objection; which is, that the name of *Britain* was given to the iſland by foreigners, who could not borrow it from the Britiſh tongue, with which they were in all likelihood unacquainted. That the iſland received the name of *Britain* from foreigners is evident, ſince the natives never ſtyled themſelves *Britons*, nor their country *Britain*; their true name being *Cumri*, or *Cumbri*; whence *Cambria* the name of Wales to this day among the Welſh. The learned Bochart, ſpeaking of the colonies and language of the Phœnicians, offers a conjecture, which moſt of our modern writers have adopted as the moſt natural. The Phœnicians, according to that writer, called this iſland and ſome others near it, *Barat Anac*, that is, *the land or country of tin or lead*, and more contractedly *Bratanac*; which name, paſſing from the Phœnicians to the Greeks, and from theſe to the Romans, might have been ſoftened into thoſe of *Britannicæ*, and *Britannia*. That the Phœnicians firſt diſcovered theſe iſlands, which were afterwards by the Greeks called *Caſſiterides*, and are proved by Camden to be our Scilly iſlands, appears both from Strabo and Pliny; of whom the former tells us, that the Phœnicians firſt brought tin from the Caſſiterides, which they ſold to the Greeks; but kept the trade to themſelves, and the place private; and the latter writes, that Mediocritus was the firſt who brought lead from the Caſſiterides; where Bochart ſhows that we ought to read *Melichartus*, who is the Phœnician Hercules of Sanchoniatho, to whom that nation aſcribe their firſt weſtern diſcoveries. But notwithſtanding the care of the Phœnicians to conceal theſe iſlands, the Greeks at laſt diſcovered them; and gave them the name of *Caſſiterides*, which in the Greek tongue, ſignifies the ſame with *Barat Anac* in the Phœnician. This name was at firſt given to the iſlands of Scilly already mentioned, but by degrees communicated to all the others lying in the ſame ſea. Thus Bochart.—But after all, his opinion, however plauſible, may be as far from the truth as any of the reſt; many inſtances of names given to new diſcovered countries ſhowing, that the origin of ſuch names is not always owing to reaſon, but often to chance or caprice.

(3.) BRITAIN, ANCIENT NATIONS OF. The Romans, upon their arrival in this iſland, found the people, who inhabited the various parts of it, divided into a number of different tribes. The chief nations, as denominated by the Romans, were the *Cantii*, who inhabited Kent; *Trinobantes*, Middleſex; *Belgæ*, or *Regni*, in Hampſhire, Wiltſhire, and Somerſetſhire; *Durotriges*, in Dorſetſhire; *Damnonii*, in Devonſhire and Cornwall; *Atrebates*, in Berkſhire; *Silures*, in South Wales; *Ordovices*, in North Wales; *Iceni*, in Eſſex, Suffolk, Norfolk, &c.; *Brigantes*, in Yorkſhire; and ſeveral others. *Caledonia*, or *Britannia Barbara*, ſubdued by the Romans, who did not penetrate farther than the *montes Grampii*. It was inhabited by the *Caledonians* and *Picts*, ſo called, becauſe they painted their bodies; which practice indeed was common to all the Britons, as well as to other barbarous nations. *Scoti*, the Scots, are only mentioned by later writers, after the time of Theodoſius; and generally ſuppoſed to have come from Ireland. The S. E. part of Britain is thought to have been peopled from Gaul. Tacitus imagines that the Caledonians, from their ſize and the colour of their hair, were of German extraction. The *Silures*, or Welſh, for ſimilar reaſons, are believed to have come from Spain.

(4.) BRITAIN, ANCIENT ROMAN DIVISIONS OF, &c. The Romans divided our iſland into two parts; BRITANNIA ROMANA, and BRITANNIA BARBARA. Theſe were of different extent at different times, according to the progreſs of their conqueſts. *Britannia Romana* was ſubdivided into *Superior*, anſwering to Wales, and *Inferior*, comprehending the reſt of it: likewiſe into *Britannia prima*, *ſecunda*, *Valentia*, *Maxima Cæſarienſis*, and *Flavia Cæſarienſis*; but the limits of theſe are not known. The principal rivers of Britain, they denominated *Tamēſis*, the Thames; *Sabrina*, the Severn; *Abus*, the Humber, compoſed of the Ouſe, Trent, and other branches; *Vedra*, the Were; *Tina*, the Tyne; *Ituna*, the Eden, which runs into the *Æſtuarium Ituna*, the Solway frith; *Tuaeſis*, or *Tueſis*, the Tweed; *Bodotria*, or *Boderia*, the Forth; *Glota*, the Clyde; *Tau*, the Tay; *Devana*, the Dee, &c. The W. & N. parts of the iſland are in general mountainous. The only mountain, however, or rather range of mountains, which, the Romans have diſtinguiſhed by a name, is *Mons Grampius*, the Grampian mountains, which, beginning near the mouth of the Dee, not far from Aberdeen, run weſtward to Cowal, in Argyllſhire, almoſt the whole breadth of the iſland.

(5.) BRITAIN, ANCIENT STATE OF GOVERNMENT IN. When the Romans invaded Britain, it was divided into a number of ſmall independent ſtates, which facilitated the conqueſt of it. Each ſtate was governed by a king or chief magiſtrate, and under him by ſeveral chieftains, who ruled each his own tribe with a kind of ſubordinate authority. One of the chief parts of the regal office was to command in war; which theſe ſovereigns always executed in perſon, whether they were kings or queens; for in this reſpect, as in ſucceeding to the crown, there was no diſtinction of ſexes. Theſe kings were frequently at war with one another, though Diodorus Siculus ſays they uſually lived in peace. The authority of the kings of Britain was greatly controuled by the prieſts called DRUIDS, who were not only the miniſters of religion, but alſo poſſeſſed the right of making laws, of explaining and executing them. Their power, and conſequently the honour paid them, was incredibly great. They were conſidered as the interpreters of the Gods; they were exempted from all taxes and military ſervices; and their perſons were held ſacred and inviolable.

(6.) BRITAIN, ANCIENT TOWNS OF. The Britons had ſcarcely any towns of note when invaded by the Romans. The termination *Cheſter*, which is common to ſo many towns in England, is thought to be derived from the Latin *caſtra*, and that theſe

were

were places of Roman encampments. LONDINUM, London, was early remarkable for a great reſort of merchants. *Camelodunum*, Malden, or according to others, Colcheſter, was the firſt Roman colony in Britain. The ports moſt frequented under the emperors, were *Rutupiæ*, Richborough, in Kent; the *Portus Dubris*, Dover, and *Lemanis*, Lyme, near which, Cæſar is ſuppoſed to have landed. Other remarkable places were, *Durovernum*, Canterbury; *Durobrivis* Rocheſter; *Venta Belgarum*, Wincheſter; *Durnium*, or *Durnovaria*, Dorcheſter; *Iſca*, Exeter; *Verulamium*, Verulam, near St Alban's; *Aquæ Solis*, or *Calidæ*, Bath; *Glanum*, Glouceſter; *Deva*, Cheſter, on the river Dee, where the ancient walls and fortifications ſtill remain; *Lindum Colonia*, Lincoln; *Eboracum*, York; *Luguvallum*, Carliſle; *Alata caſtra*, ſuppoſed to be Edinburgh, called anciently *Edinodunum*, from its Celtic appellation, *Dun Aidan*, the eminence or citadel of Aidan; *Burg*, Saxon, anſwering to *dune* in the Celtic; or, according to others, from *Eden*, a Northumbrian king who built or poſſeſſed it.

(7.) BRITAIN, CUSTOMS AND MANNERS OF THE ANCIENT INHABITANTS OF. Beſides the Druids, (§ 5.) there were two other claſſes highly reſpected both in Gaul and Britain, the one called BARDS, who ſang hiſtorical and heroic ſongs in praiſe of brave warriors; and the other, PROPHETS, who foretold future events, from omens and the entrails of victims; for the Druids were much addicted to divination, and to gratify that propenſity committed acts of the greateſt cruelty. The Britons were much more united with reſpect to religious than political matters. The conſtant jealouſy and frequent hoſtility which ſubſiſted between the different ſtates were very unfavourable to external defence. To this want of union Tacitus aſcribes their ſubjection to the Romans, who, with their uſual policy firſt formed alliances with ſome of the ſtates, and uſed their aſſiſtance to cruſh the reſt; then quarrelling with their allies, they reduced them alſo; which was ſooner or later the fate of all the allies of Rome. The dwellings of the ancient Britons were ſcattered over the country, like thoſe of the ancient Germans, and generally ſituated on the brink of ſome rivulet, for the ſake of water, and on the ſkirt of ſome wood or foreſt, for the convenience of hunting, and paſture for their cattle. For moſt of the inhabitants of the interior parts of Britain lived on milk and fleſh, without corn; and had no clothing but ſkins. The principal ſtrength of the Britiſh forces conſiſted in infantry; although they alſo had a numerous cavalry; and ſome nations likewiſe fought from chariots armed with ſcythes, which they managed with great dexterity. The chieftains managed the reins, while their dependents fought from the chariot. The cruel policy of the Romans in diſarming the inhabitants of the conquered provinces, produced a wonderful change of character in the Britons; which the more humane tho' artful conduct of Agricola contributed greatly to accelerate. See AGRICOLA, No. 1. By degrees, they acquired a taſte for thoſe refinements which ſtimulate to vice (*delinimenta vitiorum*,) porticos, baths, and elegant entertainments; and what conſtituted part of their ſlavery was, through inexperience, termed by them *humanity* or politeneſs. Thus the Britons, after being ſubjected to the Roman yoke, although greatly increaſed in numbers, and improved in point of domeſtic enjoyment, ſunk in a ſhort time from being one of the braveſt of nations into feebleneſs and effeminacy; ſo that when the Romans left them, they were in a manner quite defenceleſs, and thus became an eaſy prey to the firſt invaders.

(8.) BRITAIN, HISTORY OF. The hiſtory of Britain, or rather of SOUTH BRITAIN, (for the northern part was for many ages only known by the name of CALEDONIA,) is naturally divided into ſix periods, viz. 1. Before the Roman Invaſion: 2. From that invaſion to the Union of all England under Egbert the Great: 3. From that period to the overthrow of the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution and government, by William the Norman: 4. From the Norman Conqueſt to the Union of the two crowns under James I.: 5. From the acceſſion of James I. to the revolution: and, 6. From that grand æra, to the preſent important period. The firſt of theſe periods being filled with nothing but fabulous legends, merits little or no notice: the hiſtory of the 2d, 3d, and 4th periods, belongs properly to ENGLAND, and will therefore be found under that article, although South Britain was not known by that name, till long after the Roman Invaſion. The hiſtory of GREAT BRITAIN, therefore is properly reſtricted to the two laſt periods. But, though we by no means approve of the compliment *too generally* paid to ENGLAND, by ſtiling the kingdom, conſtitution, government, inhabitants, army, navy, revenues, &c. &c. of GREAT BRITAIN, *Engliſh* inſtead of *Britiſh*, (a mode of expreſſion that ought to have been long ago dropt, at leaſt by the *repreſentatives of the* BRITISH NATION) yet to avoid making a chaſm in the Engliſh hiſtory, by ſtopping at the death of Elizabeth, and more eſpecially as the preſent war, (the moſt important in its origin, progreſs and probable conſequences, that ever Britain was engaged in,) is not brought to a concluſion, we ſhall refer the reader, for the hiſtory of both theſe intereſting periods to the article ENGLAND.

(9.) BRITAIN, ISLANDS OF. The chief iſlands round Britain, as denominated by the Romans are, *Veſtis*, Wight; *Caſſiterides*, ſuppoſed to be the Scilly Iſlands, ſo called, from their producing tin, by the Phœnician Greeks, who gave this name likewiſe to *promontorium Bolerium*, Landſend, and *Damnonium* or *Ocrinum*, the Lizard point, as alſo a part of Cornwall; *Mona*, Angleſey, the ſeat of the Druids, and *Mona* or *Monæda*, Man; *Ebūdæ*, or *Hebrides*, the weſtern iſles of Scotland; *Orcădes*, the Orkneys, oppoſite to the promontory *Orcas*, Dungſby: to which add the Shetland iſlands, ſuppoſed to be the *Ultima Thule* of the ancients, which they imagined the moſt remote part of the earth towards the north.

(10.) BRITAIN, MODERN DIVISION OF. The whole iſland of Great Britain has long been divided into ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, and WALES; all of which were formerly under different ſovereigns, though now happily united under one. For a particular deſcription and hiſtory of each, ſee theſe articles.

(11.) BRITAIN, NORTH. See SCOTLAND.

(12.) BRI-

(12.) BRITAIN, SOUTH. See ENGLAND.

(II.) BRITAIN, CAPE. See BRETON, CAPE.

(III.) BRITAIN, NEW, a large country of North America, called alſo *Terra Labrador*, has Hudſon's bay and ſtrait, on the N. and W.; Canada and the river St Lawrence, on the S.; and the Atlantic ocean on the E. It is ſubject to Great Britain, but yields only ſkins and furs. The following is the beſt deſcription of this country that we have met with. It was drawn up by the commander of the Otter ſloop, and communicated to the Royal Society by the hon. Daines Barrington, in 1774. "There is no part of the Britiſh dominions ſo little known as the immenſe country of Labrador. So few have viſited the northern parts of this vaſt country, that almoſt from the ſtraits of Belleiſle until you come to the entrance to Hudſon's bay, for more than 10° of lat. no chart which can give any tolerable idea of the coaſt hath been hitherto formed. The barrenneſs of the country explain why it has been ſo ſeldom frequented. Here avarice has but little to feed on. Perhaps, without an immoderate ſhare of vanity, I may venture to preſume, that as far as I have been, which is to the latitude of 59. 10. the draught which I have been able to form is by much the beſt of any that has hitherto been made. Others have gone before me bleſt with abilities ſuperior to mine, and to whom I hope to be thought equal in aſſiduity. But I had advantages which they were deſtitute of; with a ſmall veſſel, and having an Indian with me, who knew every rock and ſhoal upon the coaſt, I was enabled to be accurate in my obſervations; and theſe are the reaſons why I deem my own ſketch preferable to all others. As this country is one of the moſt barren in the whole world, ſo its ſea coaſt is the moſt remarkable. Bordered by innumerable iſlands, and many of them being a conſiderable diſtance from the main land, a ſhip of burden would ſail a great way along the coaſt without being able to form any notion of its true ſituation. Hence it is that all charts of it have been ſo extremely erroneous; and hence aroſe thoſe opinions that ſome of the inlets extended a vaſt diſtance into the country, if not quite into the ſea of Hudſon's bay. Davis's inlet, which has been ſo much talked of, is not 20 leagues from the entrance of it to its extremity. The navigation here is extremely hazardous. Towards the land, the ſea is covered with large bodies and broken pieces of ice; and the farther you go northward, the greater is the quantity you meet with. Some of thoſe maſſes, which the ſeamen call *iſlands of ice*, are of a prodigious magnitude; and they are generally ſuppoſed to ſwim two thirds under water. You will frequently ſee them more than 100 feet above the ſurface; and to ſhips in a ſtorm, or in thick weather, nothing can be more terrible. Thoſe prodigious pieces of ice come from the north, and are ſuppoſed to be formed by the freezing of cataracts upon the lands about Eaſt Greenland and the pole. As ſoon as the ſeverity of the winter begins to abate, their immenſe weight breaks them from the ſhore, and they are driven to the ſouthward. To the miſerable inhabitants of Labrador, their appearance upon the coaſt ſerves as a token of the approach of ſummer. This vaſt tract of land is extremely barren, and altogether incapable of cultivation. The ſurface is every where uneven and covered with large ſtones, ſome of which are of amazing dimenſions. There are few ſprings; yet throughout the country there are prodigious chains of lakes or ponds, which are produced by the rains and the melting of the ſnow. Theſe ponds abound in trout, but they are very ſmall. There is no ſuch thing as level land. It is a country formed of frightful mountains, and unfruitful valleys. The mountains are almoſt devoid of every ſort of herbage. A blighted ſhrub and a little moſs is ſometimes to be ſeen upon them, but in general the bare rock is all you behold. The valleys are full of crooked low trees, ſuch as the different pines, ſpruce, birch, and a ſpecies of cedar. Up ſome of the deep bays, and not far from the water, it is ſaid, however, there are a few ſticks of no inconſiderable ſize. In a word, the whole country is nothing more than a prodigious heap of barren rocks. The climate is extremely rigorous. There is but little appearance of ſummer before the middle of July; and in September the approach of winter is very evident. It has been remarked, that the winters within theſe few years have been leſs ſevere than they have been known heretofore. The cauſe of ſuch an alteration it would be difficult to diſcover. All along there are many rivers that empty themſelves into the ſea, yet there are are but few of any conſideration; and you muſt not imagine, that the largeſt are any thing like what is generally underſtood by a river. Cuſtom has taught us to give them this appellation; but the greateſt part of them are nothing more than broad brooks or rivulets. As they are only drains from the ponds, in dry weather they are every where fordable; for, running upon a ſolid rock, they become broad without having a bed of any depth below the ſurface of the banks. The ſuperficial appearance of this country is extremely unfavourable. What may be hidden in its bowels, we cannot pretend to ſuggeſt: probably it may produce ſome copper; the rocks in many places are impregnated with an ore of that reſemblance. Something of a horny ſubſtance, which is extremely tranſparent, and which will ſcale out into a multitude of ſmall ſheets, is often found amidſt the ſtones; there are both black and white of this ſort, but the black is the moſt rare. It has been tried in fire, but ſeems to be noways affected by heat. The ſpecies of wood here are not very various: excepting a few ſhrubs which have as yet received no name from the Europeans, the principal produce of the country is the different ſorts of ſpruce and vine. Of theſe, even in the more ſouthern parts, there is not abundance; as you advance northwards they gradually diminiſh; and by the time you arrive at 60° lat. the eye is not delighted with any ſort of herbage. Here the wretched reſidents build their miſerable habitations with the bones of whales. If ever they cheer their aching limbs with a fire, they gather a few ſticks from the ſea ſhore, which have probably been waſhed from Norway or Lapland. Here a vaſt quantity of ſnow remains upon the land throughout the year. Although the winter here is ſo exceſſively rigid, in ſummer the heat is ſometimes diſagreeable; and in that ſeaſon the

weather

ther is very moderate, and remarkably ſerene. It is but ſeldom foggy, ſpeaking comparatively, between this and Newfoundland; nor are you ſo frequently liable to thoſe deſtructive gales of wind which viſit many other parts of the globe. It is in general high land, and ſometimes you meet with mountains of an aſtoniſhing height; you are alſo frequently preſented with proſpects that are really awful, and extremely romantic. The inhabitants of New Britain are called ESKIMAUX." *Phil. Tranſ.* lxiv. p. 372. See GREENLAND and HUDSON'S BAY.

(IV.) BRITAIN, NEW, an iſland in the S. Pacific ocean, ſituated N. of New Guinea. Capt. Dampier firſt ſailed through the ſtrait which ſeparates it from New Guinea: and in 1767, Capt. Carteret ſailed through another ſtrait, which ſeparates it from another iſland, on the N. of it, which he called NEW IRELAND. New Britain on the N. and W. extends to 152. 19. lon. E. and 4. 0. lat. S. But its ſouthern and eaſtern limits are not ſo well aſcertained. New Ireland extends from lon. 149. E. and lat. 20. 30. S. The coaſts of both are rocky; the inland parts high and mountainous; and covered with various trees; ſuch as the nutmeg, the cocoa nut, and different kinds of palm trees. The natives are black and woolly headed, like negroes, but have not their flat noſes and thick lips.

(1.) BRITANNIA, in ancient geography, Great Britain and all the iſlands belonging to it.

(2.) BRITANNIA MINOR, the ci-devant province of BRITTANY, or BRETAGNE, in France.

(1.) BRITANNIC, *adj.* belonging to Britain.

(2.) BRITANNIC PLAGUE, a name given by ſome writers to the *Anglicanus ſudor*, or ſweating diſeaſe.

BRITANNICA, in the botany and materia medica of the ancients, the name of a plant deſcribed as having leaves of a dark colour, very large, and the ſhape reſembling thoſe of the common wild-dock, but ſomewhat hairy and of an aſtringent taſte; the root ſmall and ſlender, and the ſtalk not large. This is the deſcription of Dioſcorides, who attributes to its inſpiſſated juice great virtues as an aſtringent, and a remedy for ulcers of the mouth and tonſils; and Pliny acquaints us of its prodigious efficacy in a diſtemper attending the army of Germanicus, who, when they had croſſed the Rhine, encamped in a place where there was only one ſpring of water, the drinking of which affected them in a terrible manner in their mouths, and made their teeth drop out; and that the phyſicians, who called the diſeaſe *ſtomacace* and *ſcelotyre*, were at length directed to the herb Britannica, as a remedy, by the Friſians who were in their camp. The virtues attributed to this plant are obſerved, by later phyſicians, to agree with thoſe of the *hydrolopathum majus*, or great water-dock, a plant produced very abundantly with us, but at preſent neglected in the practice of phyſic; and Muntingius, who has written profeſſedly of the Britannica of the ancients, is perſuaded that this is the genuine plant; which appears extremely probable.

(1.) BRITANNICUS, ſon of the emperor Claudius by Meſſalina, was excluded from the empire after his father had married Agrippina; who put her ſon Nero on the throne, and cauſed Britannicus to be poiſoned, A. D. 55.

(2.) BRITANNICUS, John, one of the beſt humaniſts of the 15th century, was born at Breſcia. He publiſhed notes on Perſius, Juvenal, Terence, Statius, and Ovid. He died in 1510.

* *To* BRITE. *To* BRIGHT. *v. n.* Barley, wheat, or hops, are ſaid to *brite*, when they grow over ripe.

(1.) BRITISH, *adj.* of or from Britain.

(2.) BRITISH LANGUAGE, the ſame with the Welch. The ancient Britiſh, or Cambro-Britiſh, is a dialect of the Celtic. Some pretend, but with no probability, that the Britiſh is formed immediately from the Teutonic. Cooper abſurdly enough calls the Engliſh language the Britiſh.

BRITOMARTIS, in the mythology, a daughter of Jupiter, who threw herſelf into the ſea, to avoid the purſuit of Minos.

BRITO. See BRITAIN, N° 2. and BRUTUS, N° 3.

BRITONS, the people of Britain. See BRITAIN, § 7. ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, and WALES.

BRITTANY, or BRETAGNE, a ci-devant province of France, 150 miles in length and 112 in breadth; anciently called ARMORICA. It is a peninſula, ſurrounded on all ſides by the ocean except on the E. where it joined Anjou, Maine, Normandy, and Poitou. It was divided into the upper and lower. The natives carry on great trade, by the many harbours on its coaſt. It was united to the crown of France in 1532, and abounds in large foreſts. Some authors ſuppoſe that Great Britain was firſt peopled from Brittany. It is now divided into 5 departments. See BRETAGNE.

BRITTENS, a village in Eſſex, near Hornchurch.

* BRITTLE. *adj.* [*brittan*, Sax.] Fragile; apt to break; not tough.—The wood of vines is very durable; though no tree hath the twigs, while they are green, ſo *brittle*, yet the wood dried is extremely tough. *Bacon.*—

From earth all came, to earth muſt all return;
Frail as the cord, and *brittle* as the urn. *Prior.*

Of airy pomp, and fleeting joys,
What does the buſy world conclude at beſt,
But *brittle* goods, that break like glaſs? *Granv.*

—If the ſtone is *brittle*, it will often crumble, and paſs in the form of gravel. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) * BRITTLENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brittle*.] Aptneſs to break; fragility.—A wit quick without brightneſs, ſharp without *brittleneſs*. *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter.*—Artificers, in the tempering of ſteel, by holding it but a minute of two longer or leſſer in the flame, give it very differing tempers; as to *brittleneſs* or toughneſs. *Boyle.*

(2.) BRITTLENESS may be farther defined, that quality of bodies which ſubjects them to be eaſily broken by preſſure or percuſſion. Brittle bodies are extremely hard; a very ſmall percuſſion exerts a force on them equivalent to the greateſt preſſure. This effect is particularly remarkable in glaſs ſuddenly cooled, the brittleneſs of which is thereby much increaſed. Tin, though in itſelf tough, gives a brittleneſs to all the other metals when mixed therewith. The brittleneſs of glaſs has been ſaid to ariſe from the heterogenity of the parts whereof it is compoſed, as ſalt and ſand [illegible] bind

ſufficiently together: but this cannot be the caſe; for the pure calces of metals, or any other ſimple ſubſtances when vitrified, become brittle alſo. In timbers, brittleneſs ſeems to be connected with durability; the more brittle any ſort of wood is, the more durable it is found. Thus oak is of very long duration; while beech and birch, being tough, preſently rot, and are of little ſervice in building.

(1.) BRITTON, a town near Barnſley, Yorkſh.

(2.) BRITTON, Thomas, the famous muſical ſmall coal-man, was born at Higham Ferrers in Northamptonſhire. He ſerved his time in London, where he ſet up in a ſtable, next door to the little gate of St John of Jeruſalem, on Clerkenwell-green, which he converted into a houſe. Here getting acquainted with Dr Garenciers, his near neighbour, he became an excellent chemiſt, conſtructing a moveable laboratory which was much admired by all who ſaw it. His ſkill in muſic was noways inferior to that in chemiſtry, either in the theory or practice; he had for many years a well frequented muſical club, meeting at his own little cell; and was as well reſpected as known by perſons of the firſt quality; being, above all, a valuable man in his moral character. In Ward's account of clubs, we are told, that "Britton's was firſt begun, or at leaſt confirmed, by Sir Roger L'Eſtrange, a very muſical gentleman; and that the attachment of Sir Roger and other ingenious gentlemen, lovers of the muſes, to Britton, aroſe from the profound regard he had in general to all manner of literature." This meeting was the firſt of the kind, and gave riſe to ſome of the moſt celebrated concerts in London. Ward, who was his cotemporary, ſays, that at the firſt inſtitution of it, his concert was performed in his own houſe, which is thus deſcribed. "On the ground floor was a repoſitory for ſmall coal: over that was the concert room, which was very long and narrow; and had a ceiling ſo low, that a tall man could but juſt ſtand upright in it. The ſtairs to this room were on the outſide of the houſe, and could ſcarce be aſſended without crawling. The houſe itſelf was very old and low built, and in every reſpect ſo mean as to be a fit habitation only for a very poor man." Notwithſtanding, this manſion, deſpicable as it may ſeem, attracted to it as polite an audience as ever the opera did. At thoſe concerts Dr Pepuſch, Mr Handel, Mr Banniſter, Mr Henry Needler, and other capital maſters, were performers. At the firſt inſtitution of this club, it is certain Britton would receive no gratuity whatever from his gueſts, and was offended when ever any was offered him. According to ſome, however, he departed from this; and the rules were, Britton found the inſtruments, the ſubſcription was 10s. a-year, and they had coffee at a penny a diſh. The ſingularity of his character, the courſe of his ſtudies, and the collections he made, induced ſuſpicions that Britton was not the man he ſeemed to be. Among other groundleſs conjectures, his muſical aſſembly was thought by ſome to be only a cover for ſeditious meetings; by others, for magical purpoſes; and Britton himſelf was taken for an atheiſt, a Jeſuit, &c. The circumſtances of this man's death are not leſs remarkable than thoſe of his life. There lived at that time one Samuel Honeyman, a blackſmith by trade, who became very famous for a faculty which he poſſeſſed of ſpeaking as if his voice proceeded from ſome diſtant part of the houſe where he ſtood: in ſhort, he was one of thoſe men called VENTRILOQUISTS, *i. e.* thoſe that ſpeak from their bellies. See VENTRILOQUISM. One Robe, an acquaintance of Britton's, was fooliſh enough to introduce this man, unknown to Britton, for the ſole purpoſe of terrifying him; and he ſucceeded but too well in it. Honeyman, without moving his lips, or ſeeming to ſpeak, announced, as from afar off, the death of Britton within a few hours, with an intimation that the only way to avert his doom was for him to fall on his knees immediately, and ſay the Lord's prayer: the poor man did as he was bid, went home and took to his bed, and in a few days died, leaving his friend Robe to enjoy the fruits of his fooliſh mirth. This happened in September 1714. Britton left behind him a large collection of books, muſic, and muſical inſtruments. Of the former Sir Hans Sloane was a conſiderable purchaſer. His collection of muſic, moſtly pricked by himſelf, and very neatly, ſold for near 200l. In the Britiſh Muſeum there is a painting of him taken from the life. A mezzotinto print was taken from this picture, for which Mr Hughes (author of the ſiege of Damaſcus, and a frequent performer at Britton's concerts,) wrote the following lines:

Tho' mean thy rank, yet in thy humble cell
Did gentle peace and arts unpurchas'd dwell;
Well pleas'd, Apollo thither led his train,
And muſic warbled in her ſweeteſt ſtrain.
Cyllenius ſo, as fables tell, and Jove,
Came willing gueſts to poor Philemon's grove.
Let uſeleſs pomp behold, and bluſh to find
So low a ſtation, ſuch a lib'ral mind.

BRITTONER, *n. ſ.* a boaſter.

BRITWELL, a village in Oxfordſhire, 3 miles from Maidenhead.

BRITWELL-SALOME, near Watlington, Oxford.

BRIVA ISARÆ, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Belgica on the river Iſara or Oyſe; now called PONTOYSE.

BRIVATES, in ancient geography, a port of Gallia Celtica; now called BREST.

BRIVES LA GAILLARDE, a town of France, in the department of Correze, and ci-devant province of Lower Limoſin. It ſtands in a fruitful plain, oppoſite to an iſland formed by the Correze, over which there are two handſome bridges. It has elegant buildings, fine walks, and manufactures of ſilks, muſlins, gauzes, &c. It is 7 miles S. of Limoges, and 220 S. by W. of Paris. Lon. 1. 45. E. Lat. 45. 15. N.

BRIX. See BRAG, N° 2.

BRIXELLUM, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Ciſpadana; remarkable for being the place where Otho killed himſelf after the battle of Bedriacum: now called BRESELLO.

(1.) BRIXEN, a biſhoprie of Germany, in Tirol, near the frontiers of Friuli and Carinthia, towards the E. The biſhop has a vote and ſeat in the diet of the empire, and furniſhes his contingent when any tax is laid on Tirol. The principal places are Brixen, Sertzingen, Brunneck, and Lienz.

Lientz. This country was over-run by the French army, under Gen. Buonaparte, in the beginning of 1797.

(2.) BRIXEN, the capital of the biſhopric, and the biſhop's common reſidence, is ſeated on the river Eiſache, at ſome diſtance from the mountain Brenner. It is ſurrounded with mountains, where there are plenty of vineyards, which yield good red wine. It is a populous town; and the houſes are well built with piazzas, and painted on the outſide. The public buildings are very handſome, and there are ſeveral ſpacious ſquares. It is much frequented, on account of the mineral waters near it. Lon. 11. 50. E. Lat. 46. 35. N.

BRIXHAM, a village on the coaſt of Devonſh. S. W. of Berry-Point.

BRIXIA, in ancient geography, a town of the Cenomani in the Regio Tranſpadana; now called BRESCIA.

BRIXTON, two ſmall towns; 1. in Devonſh. S. E. of Plymſtock: 2. in W. Medina, Iſle of Wight.

BRIXTON-CAUSEY, a village in Surry.

BRIXWORTH, 7 miles from Northampton.

(I.) BRIZA, in botany, QUAKING GRASS: A genus of the digynia order, and triandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 4th order, Gramina. The calyx is two-valved, and multiflorous; the ſpicula bifarious; with the ſmall valves heart-ſhaped and blunt, and the inner one ſmall in proportion to the reſt. There are 5 ſpecies of briza; two of which are natives of Britain, viz.

1. BRIZA MEDIA, the middle quaking graſs; and

2. BRIZA MINOR, the ſmall quaking graſs. Both grow in paſture grounds.

(II.) BRIZA, in the materia medica, a name uſed for the grain of the ZEA MONOCOCCUS, or St Peter's corn.

(1.) BRIZE, a town of Ireland, in Mayo.

(2.) BRIZE, in huſbandry, ground that has lain long untilled.

(3.) * BRIZE. *n. ſ.* The gadfly.—

A *brize*, a ſcorned little creature,
Thro' his fair hide his angry ſting did threaten.
Spenſer.

BRIZEN, a town of Brandenburg.

BRIZE-VENTS, ſhelters uſed by gardeners who have not walls on the N. ſide, to keep cold winds from damaging their beds of melons. They are incloſures about 6 or 7 feet high, and an inch or more thick; made of ſtraw, ſupported by ſtakes fixed into the ground, and props acroſs on both inſide and outſide; and faſtened together with willow twigs, or iron wire.

BRIZLES, a hill in Northumberland, 2 miles from Alnwick. The duke of Northumberland has erected a tower on the top of it, within ſight of his caſtle. It is 90 feet high, and has a winding ſtair-caſe. It was finiſhed in 1783.

BRIZO, in the mythology, the goddeſs of ſleep.

(1.) * BROACH. *n. ſ.* [*broche*, Fr.] 1. A ſpit.—He was taken into ſervice to a baſe office in his kitchen; ſo that he turned a *broach*, that had worn a crown. *Bacon's Henry* VII.—

Whoſe offered entrails ſhall his crime reproach,
And drip their fatneſs from the hazle *broach*.
Dryden.

2. A muſical inſtrument, the ſounds of which are made by turning round a handle. *Dict.* 3. [With hunters.] A ſtart of the head of a young ſtag, growing ſharp like the end of a ſpit. *Dict.*

(2.) BROACH, BROCHA, BROCHE, or BROTCHE, in Scotland, is the name of an utenſil, or rather ornament, which the Highlanders uſe, like the *fibula* of the Romans, to faſten their veſts. They are uſually made of ſilver; of a round figure; with a tongue croſſing its diameter, to faſten the folds of the garment; ſometimes with two tongues, one on each ſide of a croſs bar in the middle. There are preſerved, in ſeveral families, ancient brotches of very elegant workmanſhip, and richly ornamented. Some of them are inſcribed with names, to which particular virtues uſed to be attributed; others are furniſhed with receptacles for relics, ſuppoſed to preſerve from harm. So that theſe brotches ſeem to have been wore not only for uſe and ornament, but as amulets. One or two of this ſort are figured and deſcribed by Mr Pennant, in his *Tour in Scotl.* i. 90. iii. 14. edit. 3d.

(3.) BROACH, with hunters, the ſtart of a young ſtag's horn.

(1.) * *To* BROACH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſpit; to pierce as with a ſpit.—

Were now the general of our gracious empreſs,
As in good time he may, from Ireland coming,
Bringing rebellion *broached* on his ſword. *Shak.*

—He felled men as one would mow hay, and ſometimes *broached* a great number of them upon his pike, as one would carry little birds ſpitted upon a ſtick. *Hakewill.* 3. To pierce a veſſel in order to draw the liquour; to tap. 3. To open any ſtore.—I will notably provide, that you ſhall want neither weapons, victuals, nor aid; I will open the old armouries, I will *broach* my ſtore, and bring forth my ſtores. *Knolles.* 4. To let out any thing.—

And now the field of death, the liſts,
Were enter'd by antagoniſts,
And blood was ready to be *broach'd*,
When Hudibras in haſte approach'd. *Hudibras.*

5. To give out, or utter any thing.—This errour, that Piſon was Ganges, was firſt *broached* by Joſephus. *Raleigh.*—Thoſe who were the chief inſtruments of raiſing the noiſe, made uſe of thoſe very opinions themſelves had *broached*, for arguments to prove, that the change of miniſters was dangerous. *Swift's Examiner.*

(2.) *To* BROACH *to*, in ſea language, is uſed for inclining ſuddenly to windward of the ſhip's courſe, when ſhe ſails with a large wind; or for deviating from the line of her courſe, when ſhe ſails directly before the wind, ſo as to bring her ſide to windward, and expoſe her to the danger of overſetting.

* BROACHER. *n. ſ.* [from *broach*.] 1. A ſpit.

The youth approach'd the fire, and, as it burn'd,
On five ſharp *broachers* rank'd, the roaſt they turn'd;
Theſe morſels ſtay'd their ſtomachs. *Dryden.*

2. An opener, or utterer of any thing; the firſt authour.—There is much pride and vanity in the affectation of being the firſt *broacher* of an heretical opinion. *L'Eſtrange.*—Numerous parties denominate themſelves, not from the grand Authour

and Finisher of our faith, but from the first *broacher* of their idolized opinions. *Decay of Piety.*—This opinion is commonly, but falsely, ascribed to Aristotle, not as its first *broacher*, but as its ablest patron. *Cheyne.*

(1.) * BROAD. *adj.* [*brad*, Sax.] 1. Wide; extended in breadth; distinguished from length; not narrow.—

The weeds that his *broad* spreading leaves did shelter,
Are pull'd up root and all. *Shakespeare.*

—The top may be justly said to grow *broader*, as the bottom narrower. *Temple.*—

Of all your knowledge this vain fruit you have,
To walk with eyes *broad* open to your grave.
Dryden.

So lofty was the pile, a Parthian bow,
With vigour drawn, must send the shaft below,
The bottom was full twenty fathom *broad*;
Dryden.

He launch'd the fiery bolt from pole to pole,
Broad burst the lightnings, deep the thunders roll. *Pope.*

2. Large.—To keep him at a distance from falsehood and cunning, which has always a *broad* mixture of falsehood; this is the fittest preparation of a child for wisdom. *Locke.* 3. Clear; open; not sheltered, not affording concealment.—

In mean time he, with cunning to conceal
All thought of this from others, himself bore
In *broad* house, with the wooers us before.
Chapman.

—It no longer seeks the shelter of night and darkness, but appears in the *broadest* light. *Decay of Piety.*—If children were left alone in the dark, they would be no more afraid than in *broad* sunshine. *Locke.* 4. Gross; coarse.—The reeve and the miller are distinguished from each other, as much as the lady prioress and the *broad* speaking gap-toothed wife of Bath. *Dryden.*—

Love made him doubt his *broad* barbarian sound;
By love, his want of words and wit he found.
Dryden.

If open vice be what you drive at,
A name so *broad* will ne'er connive at. *Dryden.*

The *broadest* mirth unfeeling folly wears,
Less pleasing far than virtue's very tears. *Pope.*

Room for my lord! three jockeys in his train;
Six huntsmen with a shout precede his chair;
He grins, and looks *broad* nonsense with a stare.
Pope.

3. Obscene; fulsome; tending to obscenity.—As chaste and modest as he is esteemed, it cannot be denied, but in some places he is *broad* and fulsome. *Dryden.*—

Tho' now arraign'd, he read with some delight;
Because he seems to chew the cud again,
When his *broad* comment makes the text too plain.
Dryden.

6. Bold; not delicate; not reserved.—Who can speak *broader* than he that has no house to put his head in? Such may rail against great buildings. *Shakespeare.*—

From *broad* words, and 'cause he fail'd
His presence at the tyrant's feast, I hear,
Macduff lives in disgrace. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) BROAD, in geography, a river of the United States, which rises in the White Oak mountains, in N. Carolina; thence pursuing a S. by E. course, passes into S. Carolina, and uniting with Saludy river, forms the Congaree. This river may be rendered navigable about 30 miles within the state of N. Carolina.

(3.) * BROAD AS LONG. Equal upon the whole.—The mobile are still for levelling; that is to say, for advancing themselves; for it is as *broad as long*, whether they rise to others, or bring others down to them. *L'Estrange.*

BROAD-ALBIN. See BRAIDALBIN.

BROADBULL, a village in Kent, between Hythe and Romney.

BROAD-CAMPDEN, in Gloucestershire.

BROAD-CAST, as opposed to the drill husbandry, denotes the method of cultivating corn, turnips, pulse, clover, the foreign grasses, and most other field plants, that are not transplanted by sowing them with the hand; in which method they are scattered over the ground at large, and thence said to be sown in broad-cast. This is called the *old husbandry*, to distinguish it from the drill, horse-hoeing, or new husbandry. See HUSBANDRY.

BROAD-CHALK, a village in Wiltshire, near Salisbury.

* BROAD-CLOTH. † *n. s.* [from *broad* and *cloth*.] A fine kind of cloth.—

Thus, a wise taylor is not pinching;
But turns at ev'ry seam an inch in;
Or else, be sure, your *broad-cloth* breeches
Will ne'er be smooth, nor hold their stitches.
Swift.

* *To* BROADEN. *v. n.* [from *broad*.] To grow broad. I know not whether this word occurs, but in the following passage.—

Low walks the sun, and *broadens* by degrees,
Just o'er the verge of day. *Thomson.*

* BROAD-EYED. *adj.* [from *broad* and *eye*.] Having a wide survey.—

In despite of *broad-eyed* watchful day,
I would into thy bosom pour my thoughts:
But, ah! I will not. *Shakespeare.*

BROAD-

† *We have oftener than once remarked the improper use of the hyphen, in constituting compounds, of distinct substantives and adjectives; as well as the unnecessary multiplication of compound words, in general.* BROAD *and* CLOTH *are certainly two as distinct words as any two in the English language: and the former when applied to the latter, is used in its natural and original sense, as stated above in Dr Johnson's explanation of it,—"Wide—not narrow". Broad roads, narrow paths, &c. might with equal propriety be made compounds; and joined together by hyphens. But even granting* broad cloth *to be* one word *and a compound, Dr* JOHNSON *is wrong in stating it as a* substantive noun. *In the quotation from* SWIFT, *it is plainly an* adjective, *agreeing with* breeches; *and it is* in such cases only, *that the two words can be properly considered as* one. *Dr Johnson has great merit in distinguishing between* active *and* neuter verbs; *but he seems not to have paid equal attention to the difference between* simple *and* compound nouns, *—or even, at all times, to the distinction between* substantives *and* adjectives.

BROADFIELD, a village in Hertfordſhire.

BROADFORD, a town of Ireland, in Clare.

BROADHEMBURY, a village in Devonſhire, S. E. of Aſhburton. It has a fair November 30.

BROADHILL, in Suſſex, near Cuckfield.

BROAD-HOLME, in Yorkſh. N. of Hatfield.

BROADHURST, in Suſſex, N. W. of Aſhdown.

BROAD-JENESSE, a large and broad river of the United States, which riſes in N. Carolina, and running into Georgia is ſo compreſſed in its paſſage through the Cumberland Mountains, as to produce a moſt rapid whirl. Below this it ſpreads to its former breadth, and, except a ſmall interruption from ſome muſcle ſhoals, flows in a beautiful and placid ſtream, under the name of the CHEROKEE, till it mingles with the Ohio.

BROAD-LANDS, near Rumſey, in Hampſhire.

BROADLAW, a mountain of Scotland, in Tweed-dale, about 2800 feet above the level of the ſea.

* BROAD-LEAVED. *adj.* [from *broad* and *leaf*.] Having broad leaves.—Narrow and *broad-leaved* cyprus graſs. *Woodward on Foſſils.*

* BROADLY. *adv.* [from *broad*.] In a broad manner.

BROAD MAIN, a village in Dorſetſhire, 3 m. N. of Owen-Main.

BROAD-MEADOW, in Staffordſhire, between Longnor and Hartington.

* BROADNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *broad*.] 1. Breadth; extent from ſide to ſide. 2. Coarſeneſs; fulſomeneſs.—I have uſed the cleaneſt metaphor I could find, to palliate the *broadneſs* of the meaning. *Dryd.*

BROAD PIECE, a denomination given to certain gold pieces broader than a guinea; particularly Caroluſes and Jacobuſes.

BROAD RIVER, more properly an arm of the ſea, which, together with Whale-branch, and Cooſaw river, embraces the N. and N. W. ſides of Beaufort iſland. This river communicates with the ocean between Hilton-head, and St Philip's point; and forms one of the beſt harbours in the late of S. Carolina.

BROADSEA, a fiſhing village on the coaſt of Aberdeenſhire, containing about 200 inhabitants.

* BROADSHOULDERED. *adj.* [from *broad* and *ſhoulder*.] Having a large ſpace between the ſhoulders.—

Big-bon'd, and large of limbs, with ſinews ſtrong,
Broadſhoulder'd, and his arms were round and long. *Dryden.*

I am a tall, *broadſhoulder'd*, impudent, black fellow; and, as I thought, every way qualified for a rich widow, *Spectator.*

(1.) * BROADSIDE.† *n. ſ.* [from *broad* and *ſide*.] 1. The ſide of a ſhip, diſtinct from the head or ſtern.—

From vaſter hopes than this he ſeem'd to fall,
That durſt attempt the Britiſh admiral:
From her *broadſides* a ruder flame is thrown,
Than from the fiery chariot of the ſun. *Waller.*

2. The volley of ſhot fired at once from the ſide of a ſhip. 3. [In printing.] A ſheet of paper containing one large page.

(2.) *A* BROADSIDE, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) ought never to be given at a diſtance from the enemy above muſket-ſhot, at point blank.

BROADSTAIRS, a village in Kent, between N. Foreland and Ramſgate.

BROAD STONE, in building, a ſpecies of free-ſtone, thus denominated becauſe it is raiſed broad and thin out of the quarries; or not exceeding 2 or 3 inches in thickneſs; chiefly uſed for paving.

* BROADSWORD.‡ *n. ſ.* [from *broad* and *ſword*.] A cutting ſword, with a broad blade.—He, in fighting a duel, was run through the thigh with a *broadſword. Wiſeman.*

BROADSWORTH, a village in Yorkſhire, N. W. of Doncaſter.

BROADWAS, on the N. bank of the Tame, W. of Worceſter.

BROADWATER; 1. in Hertfordſh. between Welwyn and Stevonage: 2. in Suſſex, W. of New Shoreham.

(1.) BROADWAY, in Wexford, Ireland.

(2—7.) BROADWAY, the name of 6 Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Dorſetſhire, near Weymouth: 2. in Glouceſterſh. between Moreton and Eveſham: 3. in Kent, N. of Hythe: 4. in Shropſhire, between Church-ſtock and Baybury: 5. in Somerſetſh. in the pariſh of Buckland Mary; and 6. in Worceſterſh. W. of Campden.

BROADWELDON, in Somerſetſhire.

BROADWELL, 3 villages; viz. 1. and 2. in Glouceſterſh. about 2 m. from Stow: and 3. in Oxfordſh. 4 m. W. of Bampton.

BROAD-WINDSOR, in Dorſetſh. W. of Beminſter.

* BROADWISE. *adv.* [from *broad* and *wiſe*.] According to the direction of the breadth.—If one ſhould, with his hand, thruſt a piece of iron *broadwiſe* againſt the flat cieling of his chamber, the iron would not fall as long as the force of the hand preſerves to preſs againſt it. *Boyle.*

BROADWOOD-KELLY, a village in Devonſhire, N. E. of Hatherly.

BROADWOOD-WIGIER, W. of Lyſton, Devonſh.

BROAD-WORM, *lumbricus latus*, a name given to the TÆNIA, or tape worm.

BROBERRY, a village in Staffordſhire, S. W. of Stanton.

(1.) * BROCADE. *n. ſ.* [*brocado*, Span.] A ſilken ſtuff, variegated with colours of gold or ſilver.—I have the conveniency of buying and importing rich *brocades. Spectator.*—

Or ſtain her honour, or her new *brocade*,
Forget her pray'rs, or miſs a maſquerade. *Pope.*

(2.) BROCADE, or BROCADO, a ſtuff of gold, ſilver, or ſilk, raiſed and enriched with the flowers, foliages, and other ornaments, according to the fancy of the merchants or manufacturers. Formerly the word ſignified only a ſtuff, wove all of gold, both in the warp and in the woof, or all of

† *This word in the* 2d *ſenſe above ſtated*, ("a volley of ſhot,") *is a very proper compound, as the ſubſtantive* broad *in a conſiderable degree loſes its original meaning, while it ſaves circumlocution; but in the* 1ſt *ſenſe*, ("the SIDE of a ſhip,") *as well as in the illuſtration from* WALLER, broad *and* ſides *are two diſtinct words, and ought not to be joined together.*

‡ BROADSWORD *is another erroneous compound, ſimilar to* BROAD-CLOTH. *See the Note on that article.*

BROCKLEY, two villages; 1. in Somerſetſh. N. of Wrinton: and 2. in Suffolk, near Debden.

BROCKLEY-HILL, two villages; 1. in Dorſetſhire, near Abbotſbury: 2. in Hertfordſhire.

BROCKMONTON, in Herefordſhire, E. of Leominſter.

BROCKMORE HEATH, in Staffordſhire.

BROCKRUP, or BROCKTHORP, in Glouceſterſh. 3 m. from Painſwick, and 4 from Glouceſter.

BROCKSBURN, or SPOTT, a rivulet of Scotland, in E. Lothian, which falls into the German Ocean at Broxmouth, near Dunbar.

BROCKTON, the name of 5 Engliſh villages; viz. 1. near Clune Foreſt; 2. near Eaſthop; 3. near Lower-Down; and 4. between Walton and Lee; all in Shropſhire: and, 5. in Staffordſhire.

BROCKWORTH, in Glouceſterſhire, 4 m. from Glouceſter, and 5 from Painſwick.

BROD, or BRODT, a town of Hungary, in the county of Poſſega in Sclavonia, ſeated on the Save; formerly more conſiderable than at preſent. It is memorable for a victory obtained over the Turks in 1668. Lon. 18. 36. E. Lat. 45. 20. N.

BRODÆUS, or BRODEAU, John, a great critic, on whom Lipſius, Scaliger, Grotius, and all the learned, have beſtowed great encomiums, was deſcended from a noble family in France, and born at Tours in 1500. He was liberally educated, and placed under Alciat to ſtudy the civil law; but he gave himſelf up wholly to languages and the belles lettres. He travelled into Italy, where he became acquainted with Sadolet, Bembus, &c. and applied himſelf to the ſtudy of mathematics, philoſophy, and the ſacred languages, in which he made no ſmall proficiency. Then, returning to his own country, he led a retired, but not an idle, life, as his many learned lucubrations abundantly teſtify. He was a man free from all ambition and oſtentation, and ſuffered his works to be publiſhed rather under the authority of others than under his own. His chief works are, 1. A commentary on the *Anthologia*. 2. Ten books of miſcellanies. 3. Notes on Oppian, Euripides, &c. He died in 1563, aged 63.

BRODAGH, a town of Ireland, in Clare.

BRODERA, or BRODRA, a town of Aſia, in the province of Guzurat, on the great road between Surat and Ougenin; belonging to the Great Mogul. It ſtands in a large ſandy plain, on the river Waſſet; and is fortified, with pretty good walls and towers. It is inhabited by Banians and callico-weavers. The country produces cotton, wheat, rice, gum-lac and indigo. Lon. 73. 11. E. Lat. 22. 16. N.

BRODIATORES, in the middle age, a kind of *librarii*, or copyiſts, who did not write the words and letters plain, but variouſly flouriſhed and decorated, after the manner of embroidery. *Du-Cange Gloſſ. Lat.* tom. i.

BRODIUM, a term uſed by ſome writers in pharmacy, for a liquor in which any ſolid ſubſtance has been boiled, is to be preſerved, or with which a medicine too ſtrong for uſe alone is to be diluted.

BRODNAM, a village in Dorſetſhire.

BROD-NEMEKI, or TEUTSCH-BROD, a town of Bohemia on the river Sazawa, in the circle of Czaslaw.

BRODOCK, a village in the county of Cornwall, near Boconnoc.

BRODRA. See BRODERA.

BRODSTEER, a good harbour of Kent, in the iſle of Thanet.

BRODSWORTH, a village in Yorkſhire, 3 m. from Doncaſter.

BRODZIEC, a town of Poland, in Lithuania.

(1.) BROEK, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia and duchy of Berg.

(2.) BROEK, a very neat and beautiful village of Holland, 6 m. from Amſterdam. The manners of its inhabitants are ſingular. They marry invariably among themſelves. In every houſe they have one door appropriated to marriage and death. The new married couples enter in at it, and never paſs through it again but to their graves. In the interval it is kept conſtantly ſhut. The women ſcarcely ever ſtir from Broek, and "Amſterdam, (ſays Mr Walker,) is as little known to them as London or Conſtantinople." Their gardens are adorned with China vaſes, grottoes of ſhell work, &c. and their ſtreets are paved in Moſaic work, with variegated bricks. Behind their houſes and gardens are extenſive meadows, with vaſt herds of cattle. Their out-houſes are alſo behind, ſo that carts, waggons and cattle do not enter their neat ſtreets.

BROEKHUIZEN. See BROUKHUSIUS.

BROGLING for eels; the ſame with SNIGGLING.

(1.) BROGLIO, a county of Italy in Piedmont ſituated near the frontiers of France.

(2.) BROGLIO, the capital of the county, (N. 1.) ſituated near the department of Lower Alps. Lon. 7. 42. E. Lat. 44. 12. N.

* BROGUE. *n. ſ.* [*brog*, Iriſh.] 1. A kind of ſhoe.—

I thought he ſlept; and put
My clouted *brogues* from off my feet, whoſe rudeneſs
Anſwer'd my ſteps too loud. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Sometimes it is given out, that we muſt either take theſe halfpence, or eat our *brogues*. *Swift.* 2. A cant word for a corrupt dialect, or manner of pronunciation.—

His *brogue* will detect mine. *Farquhar.*

BROICHIN, CASTLE, an ancient fort of Inverneſs-ſhire, ſituated near the N. end of the iſle of Raaſay, on the E. coaſt, and well known as a land mark by mariners. "The rock on which it ſtands, nearly round and covering an area of 50 feet ſquare, is about 40 feet high; and is itſelf, caſtle-like, placed on another rock, 60 feet at leaſt above the level of the ſea. It is compoſed of different kinds of burnt ſtone, lime and ſhells, that have all the appearance of having been jumbled together, ſome time or other, by a volcanic eruption; and is of ſuch firm and ſolid conſiſtence, that the largeſt hammer, weilded by the ſtrongeſt arm, could ſcarcely make any impreſſion upon it." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Vol.* XVI. *p.* 143.

* *To* BROIDER. *v. a.* [*braidir*, Fr.] To adorn with figures of needle-work.—A robe, and a *broider'd* coat, and a girdle. *Exodus.*—

Infant Albion lay
In mantles *broider'd* o'er with gorgeous pride.
Tickell.

* BROIDERY.

* BROIDERY. *n. ſ.* [from *broider.*] Embroidery; flower-work; additional ornaments wrought upon cloth.—

The golden *broidery* tender Milkah wove,
The breaſt to Kenria ſacred, and to love,
Lie rent and mangled. *Tickell.*

* BROIL. *n. ſ.* [*brouiller*, Fr.] A tumult; a quarrel.—

Say to the king thy knowledge of the *broil*,
As thou didſt leave it. *Shakeſpeare.*

—He has ſent the ſword both of civil *broils*, and publick war, amongſt us. *Wake.*—

Rude were their revels, and obſcene their joys,
The *broils* of drunkards, and the luſt of boys.
Granville.

(1.) * *To* BROIL. *v. a.* [*bruler*, Fr.] To dreſs or cook by laying on the coals, or before the fire.—

Some ſtrip the ſkin, ſome portion out the ſpoil,
Some on the fire the reeking entrails *broil*. *Dryd.*

(2.) * *To* BROIL. *v. n.* To be in the heat.—

Where have you been *broiling*?
——Among the croud i' th' abbey, where a finger
Could not be wedg'd in more. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Long ere now all the planets and comets had been *broiling* in the ſun, had the world laſted from all eternity. *Cheyne.*

BROK, *n. ſ. obſ.* an old ſword.

BROKAGE. See BROCAGE.

(1.) BROKE, a river in Lancaſhire.

(2.) BROKE, a village in Norfolkſhire, 5 m. from Norwich.

(3.) BROKE, Sir Robert, lord chief juſtice of the common pleas, was the ſon of Thomas Broke, Eſq; of Claverly in Shropſhire, and educated at Oxford; whence he removed to the middle temple, and ſoon became a very eminent lawyer. In 1552, he was made ſerjeant at law; and in 1553, the 1ſt of queen Mary, lord chief juſtice of the common pleas; about which time he was knighted. He was alſo appointed recorder of London and ſpeaker of the houſe of commons. He died at Claverly in 1558, with the character of an upright judge. His works are, 1. An abridgment containing an abſtract of the year-books till the time of queen Mary. 2. Certain caſes adjudged in the reign of Henry VIII. Edward VI. and Q. Mary. 3. Reading on the ſtatute of limitations, 32 Henry VIII. in 2.

(4.) BROKE. *v. pret.* of *To* BREAK.

* *To* BROKE. *v. n.* [of uncertain etymology. *Skinner* ſeems inclined to derive it from *To break*, becauſe *broken* men turn factors or *brokers*. *Camden*, from *wearbe*. *Skinner* thinks, again, that it may be contracted from *procurer*. Mr *Lye* more probably deduces it from *bruccan*, Sax. to be buſy.] To tranſact buſineſs for others, or by others. It is uſed generally in reproach.—

He does, indeed,
And *brokes* with all that can, in ſuch a ſuit,
Corrupt the tender honour of a maid. *Shakeſ.*

—The gains of bargains are of a more doubtful nature, when men ſhould wait upon others neceſſity; *broke* by ſervants and inſtruments to draw them on. *Bacon.*

BROKE-HAMPTON, a town in Warwickhire, near Kyneton.

* BROKEN. [*particip. paſſ.* of *break.*] Preſerve men's wits from being *broken* with the very bent of ſo long attention. *Hooker.*

BROKEN-BACKED, in ſea language, denotes the ſtate of a ſhip which is ſo impaired, and looſened in her frame, as to droop at each end; a diſorder to which the French ſhips, are moſt expoſed, on account of their length, &c.

BROKEN BAY, a bay of New S. Wales, on the E. coaſt of New Holland.

BROKENBOROUGH, or BROKEN-BRIDGE, a town in Wiltſhire, a mile from Malmſbury, formerly called Caerberburg. It was a court of ſome of the Saxon kings under the Heptarchy.

* BROKENHEARTED. *adj.* [from *broken* and *heart.*] Having the ſpirits cruſhed by grief or fear.—He hath ſent me to bind up the *brokenhearted*. *Iſaiah.*

BROKENHURST, a village in Hampſhire.

* BROKENLY. *adv.* [from *broken.*] Without any regular ſeries.—Sir Richard Hopkins hath done ſomewhat of this kind, but *brokenly* and glancingly; intending chiefly a diſcourſe of his own voyage. *Hakewill.*

* BROKEN MEAT. Fragments; meat that has been cut.—Get three or four chairwomen to attend you conſtantly in the kitchen, whom you pay at ſmall charges; only with the *broken meat*, a few coals, and all the cinders. *Swift.*

BROKEN WIND, among farriers. See FARRIERY.

BROKEN-WINDED, *adj.* having the wind broken.

(I.) * BROKER. *n. ſ.* [from *To broke.*] 1. A factor; one that does buſineſs for another; one that makes bargains for another.—*Brokers*, who, having no ſtock of their own, ſet up and trade with that of other men; buying here, and ſelling there, and commonly abuſing both ſides, to make out a little paultry gain. *Temple.*—

Some South-ſea *broker*, from the city,
Will purchaſe me, the more's the pity;
Lay all my fine plantations waſte,
To fit them to his vulgar taſte. *Swift.*

2. One who deals in old houſehold goods. 3. A pimp; a match-maker.—

A goodly *broker!*
Dare you preſume to harbour wanton lines;
To whiſper and conſpire againſt my youth?
Shakeſpeare.

In chuſing for yourſelf, you ſhew'd your judgment;
Which being ſhallow, you ſhall give me leave
To play the *broker* in mine own behalf. *Shakeſ.*

(II.) BROKER. The origin of this word is conteſted; ſome derive it from the French *broier*, to grind; others from *brocarder*, to cavil; others from a trader broken, and that from the Saxon *broc*, misfortune, which is often the true reaſon of a man's breaking. In this view, a broker is a broken trader by misfortune; and it is ſaid none but ſuch were formerly admitted to that employment. Brokers are of 3 kinds; exchange brokers, ſtock brokers, and pawn brokers.

1. BROKERS, EXCHANGE, are a ſort of negociators, who contrive, make, and conclude bargains between merchants and tradeſmen, in matters of money or merchandiſe, for which they have

age or premium. Theſe, in old Engliſh law-books, are called *broggers*, and in Scotland, *broccarii*, *i. e.* according to Skene, mediators or interceſſors in any contract, &c. They make it their buſineſs to know the alteration of the courſe of exchange, to inform merchants how it goes, and to notify to thoſe who have money to receive or pay beyond ſea, who are proper perſons for negociating the exchange with; and when the matter is accompliſhed, that is, when the money is paid, they have for brokage 2s. per 100l. ſterling. Theſe, by ſtat. of 8. and 9. Will. III. are to be licenſed in London by the lord mayor, who gives them an oath, and takes bond for the faithful execution of their offices. If any perſon ſhall act as broker without being thus licenſed and admitted, he ſhall forfeit the ſum of 500 l.; and perſons employing him, 5l.; and brokers are to regiſter contracts, &c. under the like penalty: alſo brokers ſhall not deal for themſelves, on pain of forfeiting 200 l.—They are to carry about with them a ſilver medal, having the king's arms and the arms of the city, and pay 40s. a-year to the chamber of the city. In France, till the middle of the 17th century, their exchange brokers were called *courtiers de change*; but by arrret of council in 1639, the name was changed for that more creditable one of *agent de change, banque, et finance*; and in the beginning of the 18th century, to render the office ſtill more honourable, the title of *king's counſellors* was added. At Grand Cairo, and ſeveral places of the Levant, the Arabs, who do the office of exchange brokers, are called *conſuls*; the manner of whoſe negociating with the European merchants has ſomething in it ſo very particular, that we refer it to a diſtinct article. See CONSUL. The exchange brokers at Amſterdam, called MAKELNERS, are of two kinds; the one, like the Engliſh, called, *ſworn brokers*, becauſe of the oath they take before the burgo-maſters; but the others negociate without any commiſſion, and are called *walking brokers*. The firſt are in number 395; whereof 375 are Chriſtians, and 20 Jews: the others are near double that number; ſo that in Amſterdam there are near 1000 exchange brokers.—The difference between the two conſiſts in this: The books and perſons of the former are allowed as evidence in the courts of juſtice; whereas, in caſe of diſpute, the latter are diſowned, and their bargains diſannulled. The fee of the ſworn exchange brokers of Amſterdam is fixed by two regulations, of 1613 and 1623, with regard to matters of exchange, to 18 ſols for 100 livres de gros, or 600 florins; i. e. 3 ſols for 100 florins; payable, half by the drawer and half by the perſon who pays the money. But cuſtom has made conſiderable alterations herein. The Jews, Armenians, and Baniani, are the chief brokers throughout moſt parts of the Levant and the Indies. In Perſia, all affairs are tranſacted by a ſort of brokers whom they call *delal*, i. e. great talkers.—The manner of making their markets is very ſingular: after the brokers have launched out into long, and uſually impertinent diſcourſes, coming towards a concluſion, they only converſe with their fingers. The buyer and ſeller's broker each take the other by the right hand, which they cover with the cuff of his coat or handkerchief: the finger ſtretched out ſtands for ſix; bent for five; the tip of the finger for one; the whole hand for 100; and the hand clinched, for 1000. They will expreſs even pounds, ſhillings, and pence, by their hands. During all this myſtic commerce, the two brokers appear as cold and compoſed as if there were nothing paſſing between them. The French diſtinguiſh two kinds of brokers; one for the ſervice of merchants, the other of manufacturers, artificers, and workmen. The buſineſs of the former is to facilitate the ſale of goods in the wholeſale and mercantile way; that of the other, to procure the goods wanted for manufacturers, artificers, &c. or to ſell their goods when made. At Paris there is ſcarce a company of tradeſmen, or even mechanics, but have their brokers, who are uſually taken out of their body, and make it their ſole buſineſs to negociate in the particular kinds of goods to which ſuch company is by ſtatutes reſtrained. There are brokers for drapery, brokers for grocery, brokers for mercery, &c. There are even brokers for tanners, curriers, cutlers, and the like. Such, at leaſt, was their method of conducting buſineſs before the revolution.

2. BROKERS, PAWN, perſons who keep ſhops, and lend money upon pledges to neceſſitous perſons, and moſt commonly at an exorbitant intereſt. They are more properly ſtyled *pawn takers*, or *tally-me*; ſometimes *fripers*, or *friperers*. Theſe are meant in 1 Jac. I. cap. xxi. ſect. 5. where it is declared, that the ſale of goods wrongfully taken to any broker, or pawn broker, in London, Weſtminſter, Southwark, or within two miles of London, does not alter the property. And (ſect. 7.) if a broker, having received ſuch goods, ſhall not, upon requeſt of the owner, diſcover them, how and when he came by them, and to whom they are conveyed, he ſhall forfeit the double value thereof, to be recovered by action of debt, &c. In the cities of Italy, there are companies eſtabliſhed by authority for the letting out money on pawns, called *mounts of piety*; a title little becoming ſuch inſtitutions. In ſome parts of Italy, they have alſo mounts of piety of another kind, wherein they only receive ready money, and return it again with intereſt, at a certain ſum *per annum*. At Bologna, they have ſeveral ſuch mounts, which are diſtinguiſhed into *frank* and *perpetual*: the intereſt of the former is only four *per cent.*; that of the latter, ſeven.

3. BROKERS, STOCK, are thoſe who are employed to buy and ſell ſhares in the joint ſtock of a company or corporation, and in the public funds. As the practice of ſtock-jobbing has been carried to ſuch an exceſs as became not only ruinous to a great number of private families, but even affected, or at leaſt might ſoon affect, the public credit of the nation, the legiſlature thought fit to put a ſtop to it, or at leaſt to bring it within certain bounds, and under ſome regulation. The negociations, &c. of theſe brokers are regulated by ſtat. 6 Geo. I. cap. 18. and 7 and 10 Geo. II. cap. 8. which among other things, enacted, that contracts in the nature of wagers, &c. incur a penalty of L. 500, and by the ſale of ſtock, of which the ſeller is not poſſeſſed, a forfeit of L. 100, and that brokers keep a book, in which all contracts, with their

their dates, and the names of the parties concerned, ſhall be entered, on pain of L. 50.

(III.) BROKERS OF FURNITURE, &c. See APPRAISERS, § 2.

* BROKERAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *broker.*] The pay or reward of a broker. See BROCAGE.

BROKESBY, a village in Leiceſterſhire, 4 m. W. of Mowbray.

BROKEWER, a town in Glouceſterſhire.

To BROKIN. *v. n. obſ.* To brook. *Chaucer.*

* BROKING. *particip. adj.* Practiſed by brokers.—

Redeem from *broking* pawn the blemiſh'd crown,
Wipe off the duſt that hides our ſceptre's guilt.
Shakeſpeare.

BROLASS, a diſtrict in Argyllſhire, about 22 m. long, and from 3 to 6 broad. There are baſaltic pillars in it.

BROLL. *n. ſ. obſ.* a part; a piece. *Aſh.*

BROMAS, a name uſed by ſome botaniſts for the wild oats.

BROMBOROUGH, a town in Cheſhire.

(1.) BROME, Alexander, a poet and attorney in the reign of Charles II. was the author of the greateſt part of thoſe ſongs and epigrams which were publiſhed in favour of the royaliſts, and againſt the *rump*, both in Oliver Cromwell's time and during the rebellion. Theſe, together with his Epiſtles and Epigrams tranſlated from different authors, were all printed in one volume 8vo, after the Reſtoration. He alſo publiſhed a pretty good verſion of Horace, by himſelf and others. He left behind him a comedy intitled *The Cunning Lovers:* and the world is indebted to him for two volumes of Richard Brome's plays in 8vo. many of which, but for his care in preſerving and publiſhing them, would in all probability have been entirely loſt. He died in 1666.

(2.) BROME, Richard, a dramatic writer who lived in the reign of Charles I. and was cotemporary with Decker, Ford, Shirley, &c. He was originally a ſervant to the celebrated Ben Jonſon. He wrote himſelf, however, into high reputation, as is teſtified not only by various commendatory verſes written by his cotemporaries and prefixed to many of his plays, but alſo by ſome lines which his quondam maſter addreſſed to him, on account of his comedy called *The Northern Laſs.* Brome in imitation of his maſter, applied cloſely to the ſtudy of men and manners. His genius was entirely turned to comedy; and therefore his proper province was obſervation more than reading. His plots are all his own, and are far from being ill conducted; and his characters, which for the moſt part are ſtrongly marked, were the offspring of his own judgment and experience, and his cloſe attention to the foibles of the human heart. In a word, his plays in general are good; met with great applauſe when firſt acted; and were thought by the players worthy to be revived, to their own profit and the author's honour, in that critical age in which he himſelf lived. Nay, we have had a proof, even in our own time, of the merit of one of his comedies, which with a very little alteration has lately been revived with great ſucceſs, viz. *The Jovial Crew*, which for no leſs than 3 ſeaſons running, brought crowded audiences to the theatre-royal in Covent Garden, at all the frequent repetitions of its performance. He left 15 comedies behind him, ten of which were collected together, by his nameſake, (N. 1.) He alſo joined with Thomas Heywood in a play called *The Lancaſhire Witches.*

(3—9.) BROME, the name of 7 Engliſh villages, viz. 1. in Bedfordſh. near Biggleſwade: 2. in Durham, W. of the city: 3. in Norfolk, near Bungay: 4. in Shropſhire, near Clunbury: 5. in ditto, 3 m. W. of Wenlock: 6. in Staffordſhire, near Clent; and 7. in Suffolk, 2 m. from Dis.

BROME-BURNELL'S, in Warwickſhire, between Bitford and Saltford.

BROME-GRASS, or BROOM-GRASS. See BROMUS.

BROME-HALL, 3 villages, viz. 1. in Norfolk, between Loddon and Bungay: 2. in Shropſhire, near Oſweſtry: and, 3. in Yorkſhire, near Sheffield.

BROMEHAM, in Suſſex, near Battle-Abbey.

BROMEHILL, 3 villages; viz. 1. in Dorſetſh. near Morton: 2. in Norfolk, N. of Waliham: and, 3. in Kent, 3 m. S. W. of Lydde.

BROME-HOUSE, near Fulham, Middleſex.

(1.) BROMELIA, the PINE-APPLE: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 10th order, Coronariæ. Linnæus enumerates 7 ſpecies of which the following are the moſt remarkable:

i. BROMELIA ANANAS with leaves very like ſome ſorts of aloes, but not ſo thick and ſucculent, which are ſtrongly armed with black ſpines. From the centre of the plant ariſes the flower ſtalk, which is near 3 feet high; the lower part is garniſhed with entire leaves placed alternately at every joint. The upper part is garniſhed with flowers ſet in a looſe ſpike or thyrſe quite round: theſe are ſucceeded by oval ſeed-veſſels, having a longitudinal partition, in the centre of which are faſtened ſmooth cylindrical ſeeds. There are ſix varieties, viz.

1. BROMELIA ANANAS GLABER, with ſmall leaves:

2. BROMELIA ANANAS LUCIDUS, with very ſmooth, ſhining graſs-green leaves:

3. BROMELIA ANANAS OVATUS, the oval ſhaped pine-apple:

4. BROMELIA ANANAS PYRAMIDALIS, the pyramidal, or ſugar-loaf pine:

5. BROMELIA ANANAS SERRATINUS, with a yellowiſh coloured fleſh: and

6. BROMELIA ANANAS VIRIDIS, the green pine-apple.

ii. BROMELIA LINGULATA, with obtuſe, ſawed, and prickly leaves.

iii. BROMELIA NUDICAULIS, with the lower leaves indented and prickly. The leaves of this ſpecies are ſhorter than thoſe of the ANANAS (N. i.) They are ſharply ſawed on their edges, and of a deep green colour. The flower ſtem ariſes from the centre of the plant, which divides upward into ſeveral branches: the upper part of theſe are garniſhed with ſpikes of flowers, which come out alternately from the ſides of the branches, each having a narrow entire leaf juſt below it, which are longer than the ſpike. The flowers are

placed very close on the spikes: and when they decay, the empalement turns to an oval-pointed seed-vessel, including seeds of the same shape with the other.

(II.) BROMELIÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The BROMELIA ANANAS OVATUS (N. 3.) is the most common in Europe; but the ANANAS PYRAMIDALIS (N. 4.) is much preferable, the fruit being larger and much better flavoured. the juice of this sort is not so astringent as that of the first; so that this fruit may be eaten in greater quantity with less danger. This sort frequently produces suckers immediately under the fruit, whereby it may be increased much faster than the common sort; so that in a few years it may be the best common sort in Britain.—The ANANAS GLABER (N. 1.) is preserved by some curious persons for the sake of variety; but the fruit is not worth any thing. The ANANAS LUCIDUS (N. 2.) was raised from the seeds taken out of a rotten fruit which came from the West Indies to the late Henry Heathcote, Esq; from whom Mr Miller received one plant, which produced large fruit: this is what the people of America call the *king pine*.—The plants are propagated by planting the crowns which grow on the fruit, or the suckers which are produced either from the sides of the plants or under the fruit: both which are found to be equally good; although by some persons the crown is thought preferable to the suckers, as supposing it will produce fruit sooner than the suckers, which is certainly a mistake. The suckers and crowns must be laid to dry in a warm place for 4 or 5 days, or more (according to the moisture of the part which adhered to the old plant or fruit); for if they are immediately planted, they will rot. The certain rule of judging when they are fit to plant, is by observing if the bottom is healed over and become hard; for if the suckers are drawn off carefully from the old plants, they will have a hard skin over the lower part, and so need not lie so long as the crowns of those whose bottoms are moist. But whenever a crown is taken from the fruit, or the suckers from old plants, they should be immediately divested of their bottom leaves, so high as to allow depth for their planting; so that they may be thoroughly dry and healed in every part; left when they receive heat and moisture they should perish, which often happens when this method is not observed. If these suckers or crowns are taken off late in autumn, or during winter, or early in spring, they should be laid in a dry place in the stove for a fortnight or 3 weeks before they are planted; but in summer they will be fit for planting in a week at farthest. These should be planted in a rich good kitchen garden mould, not too heavy so as to detain the moisture too long, nor over light and sandy; but where this is wanting, some fresh earth should be procured from good pasture, which should be mixed with about a third part of rotten neats dung, or the dung of an old melon or cucumber bed which is well consumed. These should be mixed 6 or 8 months before they are used, but if it be a year it will be better; and should be often turned, that their parts may be the better united, and the clods well broken. This earth should be screened very fine; for if it is only cleared of the great stones, it will be the better for the plants than when it is made too fine. Always avoid mixing any sand with the earth, unless it be extremely stiff, and and then it will be necessary to have it mixed at least six months or a year before it is used; it must be frequently turned, that the sand may be incorporated in the earth so as to divide its parts: but do not put more than a 6th of sand; for too much sand is very injurious to the plants. In summer they must be frequently watered; but not with large quantities at a time; and the moisture should not be detained in the pots by the holes being stopped, for that will soon destroy the plants. If the season is warm, they should be watered twice a-week; but in a cool season, once a-week will be sufficient; and in summer they should once a-week be watered gently all over the leaves; which will greatly promote their growth. Some frequently shift these plants, but unless the pots be filled with the roots, by the time the plants begin to show their fruit, they commonly produce small fruit, which have generally large crowns; therefore the plants should not be new potted oftener than twice in a season. The first time should be about the end of April, when the suckers and crowns of the former year's fruit, (which remained all the winter in these pots in which they were first planted) should be shifted into larger pots, *i. e.* those which were in halfpenny or three farthing pots, should be put into penny or at most three-half-penny pots, according to the size of the plants; for we must not over-pot them, nothing being more prejudicial. The 2d time for shifting, is in the beginning of August; when those which are of a proper size for fruiting the following spring should be put into two-penny pots, which are full large enough for any of these plants. At each time of shifting, the bark bed should be stirred up, and some new bark added, to raise the bed up to the height it was at first made; and when the pots are plunged again into the bark-bed, the plants should be watered gently all over the leaves, to wash off the filth, and to settle the earth to the roots of the plants. If the bark-bed be well stirred, and a quantity of good fresh bark added to the bed, at this latter shifting, it will be of great service to the plants; for they may remain in the same tan until the beginning of November, or sometimes later, according to the mildness of the season, and will require but little fire before that time. During the winter, they will not require to be watered oftener than once a week, according as the earth in the pots seems to dry. Plants beginning to show their fruit should never be shifted; for if they are removed after the fruit appears, it stops the growth, and thereby causes the fruit to be smaller, and retards its ripening; so that it will be October or November before the fruit is ripe; therefore the plants should be kept in a vigorous growing state from the first appearance of the fruit, as upon this depends the goodness and the size of it; for if they receive a check after this, the fruit is generally small and ill tasted. After cutting off the fruit from the plant intended to be propagated, the leaves should be trimmed, and the pots plunged again into a moderate hot-bed, observing to refresh them frequently with water, which will make them put out

suckers

ſuckers in plenty; ſo that one may be ſoon ſupplied with plants enough of any of the kinds, who will but obſerve to keep the plants in health. The moſt dangerous thing that can happen to theſe plants is their being attacked by ſmall white inſects, which appear at firſt like a white mildew, but ſoon after have the appearance of lice: theſe attack both root and leaves at the ſame time; and if they are not ſoon deſtroyed, will ſpread over a whole ſtove in a ſhort time, and in a few weeks entirely ſtop the growth of the plants by ſucking out the nutritious juice, ſo that the leaves will appear yellow and ſickly, and have a number of ſmall tranſparent ſpots all over them. Theſe inſects after they are fully grown, appear like bugs, adhering ſo cloſely to the leaves as not to be eaſily rubbed off, and ſeem to have no local motion. They are originally brought from America upon plants imported from thence; and are the ſame inſects which have deſtroyed the canes of late in ſome of the Leeward Iſlands; for in ſome ſugar-canes which were ſent Mr Miller from Barbadoes, he obſerved great numbers of theſe inſects. Since they have been in England, they have ſpread greatly in ſtoves where there has not been more than ordinary care taken to deſtroy them. They have alſo attacked the orange-trees in many gardens near London, and have done them incredible damage; but as they do not endure the cold of our climate in winter, they are never found on ſuch plants as live in the open air. The only method yet diſcovered of deſtroying them, is by frequently waſhing the leaves, branches, and ſtems, of ſuch plants as they attack, with water in which there has been a ſtrong infuſion of tobacco ſtalks. But this method cannot be practiſed on the ananas plants, becauſe the inſects often themſelves ſo low between the leaves, that it is impoſſible to come at them with a ſponge to waſh them off; ſo that although they ſeem to be all cleared off, they are ſoon ſucceeded by a freſh ſupply from below, and the roots are alſo equally infected at the ſame time. Therefore, whenever they appear on the plants, the ſafeſt method is to take the plants out of the pots, and clear the earth from the roots; then put them into a tub, filled with water in which there has been a ſtrong infuſion of tobacco ſtalks; and lay ſome ſticks acroſs to keep them immerſed in the water; wherein they ſhould remain 24 hours; then take them out, and with a ſponge waſh off all the inſects from the leaves and roots, and waſh the plants in a tub of freſh water. This is the moſt effectual way to clear them from the inſects. After this, you ſhould put them in freſh earth; and, having ſtirred up the bark-bed, and added ſome new tan to give a freſh heat to the bed, the pots ſhould be plunged again, obſerving to water them all over the leaves, and this ſhould be repeated once a-week during ſummer; for theſe inſects always multiply much faſter where the plants are kept dry, than when they are ſometimes ſprinkled over with water, and kept in a growing ſtate. As theſe inſects are frequently brought over from America on the ananas plants, thoſe who procure their plants from thence, ſhould look carefully over them when they receive them, to ſee they have none of theſe inſects on them; for if they have, they will ſoon be propagated over all the plants in the ſtove where they are placed; therefore, whenever they are obſerved, the plants ſhould be ſoaked before they are planted into pots.

(III.) BROMELIÆ, IMPROVEMENTS IN THE CULTURE OF THE. Of late, ſome very conſiderable improvements have been made in this article. The leaves of the oak have been ſubſtituted for the more expenſive bark; and the pines treated with them are found to thrive as well, and to produce as good fruit as the others. The proper way of managing theſe leaves, for rearing exotic plants, will be found under the article OAK LEAVES. But the moſt conſiderable improvement is that mentioned in the 67th volume of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, where the following method is ſhown by William Baſtard, Eſq; of Devonſhire, of raiſing theſe fruits in water. "Before I enter into the particulars of raiſing pine-apples in water, it will be neceſſary to tell you that my hot-houſe is covered with the beſt crown glaſs, which I apprehend gives more heat than the common ſort of green glaſs generally uſed for hot-houſes. In the front part of the houſe, and indeed any where in the loweſt parts of it, the pine-apple will not thrive well in water. The way in which I treat them is as follows: I place a ſhelf near the higheſt part of the back wall, that the pine plants may ſtand without abſolutely touching the glaſs, but as near it as can be: on this ſhelf I place pans full of water, about 7 or 8 inches deep; and in theſe pans I put the pine-apple plants, growing in the ſame pots of earth as they are generally planted in, to be plunged into the bark bed in the common way, that is, I put the pot of earth, with the pine plant in it, in the pan-ful of water, and as the water decreaſes I conſtantly fill up the pan. I place either plants in fruit, or young plants as ſoon as they are well rooted, in theſe pans of water, and find they thrive equally well: the fruit reared this way is always much larger as well as better flavoured, than when ripened in the bark bed. I have more than once put only the plants themſelves without any earth, I mean after they had roots, into theſe pans of water, with only water ſufficient to keep the roots always covered, and found them flouriſh beyond expectation. In my houſe, the ſhelf I mention, is ſupported by irons from the top, and there is an intervening ſpace of about 10 inches between the back wall and the ſhelf. A neighbour of mine has placed a leaden ciſtern upon the top of the back flue, (in which, as it is in contact with the flue, the water is always warm when there is fire in the houſe,) and finds his fruit excellent and large. My ſhelf does not touch the back flue, but is about a foot above it; and conſequently only warmed by the air in the houſe. Both theſe methods do well. The way I account for this ſucceſs is, that the warm air always aſcending to the part where this ſhelf is placed, as being the higheſt part of the houſe, keeps it much hotter than in any other part. The temperature at that place is, I believe, ſeldom leſs than what is indicated by 73° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and when the ſun ſhines it is often above 100°: the water the plants grow in, ſeems to enable them to bear the greateſt heat, if ſufficient air be allowed; and I often ſee

roots of the plants growing out of the holes in the bottom of the pot of earth, and ſhooting vigorouſly in the water. My hot-houſe, (the dimenſions of which it may be proper to know,) is 60 feet long and 11 feet wide, the flues included; 6 feet high in the front, and 11 feet at the back of the inſide of the houſe. It is warmed by two fires. A leaden trough or ciſtern on the top of the back flue is preferable to my ſhelf, as in it the pine plants grow much faſter in the winter, the water being always warmed by the flue; of this I have ſeen the great benefit theſe two laſt months in my neighbourhood. It is not foreign to this purpoſe to mention, that, as a perſon was moving a large pine plant from the hot-bed in my houſe laſt ſummer, which plant was juſt ſhowing fruit, by ſome accident he broke off the plant juſt above the earth in which it grew, and there was no root whatever left to it: by way of experiment I took the plant, and fixed it upright in a pan of water (without any earth whatever) on the ſhelf; at there ſoon threw out roots, and bore a pine-apple that weighed upwards of two pounds."

BROME-PARK, N. W. of Alnwick, Northumberland.

BROMFIELD, 3 villages: 1. in Eſſex: 2. in Kent; near Lenham: and, 3. in Yorkſhire, between S. Cave and the Humber.

BROMFORD, N. W. of Wooller, Northumberland.

BROMHALL, two villages in Cheſhire: 1. near Combermere: 2. N. W. of Stockport.

(1.) BROMLEY, a town of Kent, ſituated on the river Ravenſburn, 10 miles from London, on the road to Tunbridge. It has an hoſpital for 20 clergymen's widows, with an allowance of 20l. a-year; and 50l. a-year to the chaplain. It has fairs Feb. 14, and Aug. 5, and a market on Thurſ. Lon. 0. 5. E. Lat. 51. 23. N.

(2—7.) BROMLEY is alſo the name of 6 villages; viz. 1. Cheſhire, near Combermere: in Dorſetſh. 1¼ mile S. W. of Abbots-Stoke: 3. in Middleſex, near Bow, 2 miles from London: 4. in Shropſh. between Bridgenorth and Worril: 5. in ditto, between Kingſwood and Nether-Heath: and, 6. in Staffordſhire, between Swinford and Brockmere. It likewiſe makes part of the names of other 7; viz.

(8.) BROMLEY-ABBEY, and (9.) BROMLEY-BAGOTS, } in Staffordſhire, 6 m. from Stafford.

(10.) BROMLEY-GERARDS, in Staffordſhire, near Bloreheath.

(11.) BROMLEY-HURST, in Staffordſhire, S. E. of Pagets-Bromley.

(12.) BROMLEY MAGNA, and (13.) BROMLEY-PARVA, } in Eſſex, S. W. of Manning-tree: and,

(14.) BROMLEY REGIS, or KING'S BROMLEY, in Staffordſhire, on the Trent.

BROMPTON, the name of three villages; viz. 1. in Dorſetſhire, near Bridport: 2. in Kent, near Rocheſter: and, 3. in Kenſington pariſh, Middleſex.

BROMPTON-BRIAN. See BRAMPTON-BRION.

BROMSALL, S. W. of Utoxeter, Staffordſhire.

BROMSBOROUGH, a town in Glouceſterſh. 4 miles from Ledbury.

BROMSGROVE, a town of Worceſterſhire, ſeated on the river Salwarp. It is a pretty good town, has a conſiderable trade in cloth; and a large market on Tueſday, for corn, cattle, and all ſorts of proviſions. It is 15 miles N. E. by N. of Worceſter, and 115 N. W. of London. It has fairs June 24, and October 1. Lon. 2. 5. W. Lat. 52. 26. N.

BROMSTHORP, in Norfolk, near Reedham.

BROMSWELL, near Woodbridge, Suffolk.

BROMUS, BROOM-GRASS, in botany: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the triandria claſs of plants; and, in the natural method, ranking under the 4th order, *Gramina*. The calyx is bivalved, having a partial ſpike, oblong and round, oppoſite grains, with an awn below the point of each outer valve. There are 24 ſpecies, of which 7 are natives of Britain, viz.

1. BROMUS ARVENSIS, common broom-graſs:
2. BROMUS CILIATUS, wall broom-graſs:
3. BROMUS GIGANTEUS, tall broom-graſs:
4. BROMUS PINNATUS, ſpiked broom-graſs:
5. BROMUS RAMOSUS, wood broom-graſs:
6. BROMUS SECALINUS, field broom-graſs:
7. BROMUS STERILIS, barren broom-graſs.

(1.) BROMWICH, a town in Shropſhire.

(2.) BROMWICH CASTLE, (3.) BROMWICH, GREAT, and (4.) BROMWICH, LITTLE, } three villages in Warwickſhire, near Coleſhill.

(5.) BROMWICH, WEST, S. of Walſal, Stafford.

BROMYARD, a town of Herefordſhire, near the Frome, ſeated on a riſing ground, and containing about 200 houſes. It has 5 fairs, and a market on Monday. It is 18 miles W. of Worceſter, and 125 W. N. W. of London. Lon. 2. 46. W. Lat. 52. 20. N.

BROMYTHE, or TILL, a river in Northumberland.

BRON, or BRONNO, a town of Italy, in the Milaneſe, on the S. ſide of the Po, 12 miles S. of Pavia. At this place the French were defeated by the Imperialiſts in 1703. Lon. 10. 5. E. Lat. 44. 50. N.

BRONCHANT, *adj.* in heraldry, projecting.

BRONCHIÆ, in anatomy, the ramifications of the trachea. See ANATOMY, § 356.

* BRONCHIAL. BRONCHICK. *adj.* [βρογχος.] Belonging to the throat.—Inflammation of the lungs may happen either in the *bronchial* or pulmonary veſſels, and may ſoon be communicated from one to the other, when the inflammation affects both the lobes. *Arbuthnot.*

BRONCHIAL ARTERIES. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

(1.) * BRONCHOCELE. *n. ſ.* [βρογχοκηλε.] A tumour of that part of the aſpera arteria, called the *bronchus*. *Quincy.*

(2.) BRONCHOCELÆ. See MEDICINE, *Index.*

(1.) * BRONCHOTOMY. *n. ſ.* [βρογχος and τεμνω.] That operation which opens the windpipe by inciſion, to prevent ſuffocation in a quinſey. *Quincy.*—The operation of *bronchotomy* is an inciſion into the aſpera arteria, to make way for the air into the lungs, when reſpiration is obſtructed by any tumour compreſſing the larynx. *Sharp's Surgery.*

(2.) BRONCHOTOMY is neceſſary in many caſes, and eſpecially in a violent quinſey, to prevent ſuffocation from the great inflammation or tumor of the parts. It is alſo called LARYNGOTOMY and TRACHEOTOMY. See SURGERY.

BRO-

BRONCHUS, the trachea or wind-pipe. See ANATOMY, § 354—358.

BRONCINI, a name given by ſome to the ſea wolf.

* BROND. *n. ſ.* See BRAND. A ſword.—

Foolish old man, ſaid then the pagan wroth,
That weeneſt words or charms may force withſtond,
Soon ſhalt thou ſee, and then believe for troth,
That I can carve with this enchanted *brond*.
Spenſer.

BROND-IRON, *n. ſ. obſ.* a ſword. *Spenſer.*

BRONELSTON, a village in Cumberland.

BRONKHORST, John VAN, an eminent painter of the 17th century, born at Utrecht. He ſtudied under Cornelius Poelemburg, whoſe ſtyle he imitated with great ſucceſs. He painted both hiſtory and landſcapes; and his pictures, which are very highly finiſhed, are held in great eſteem.

BRONNO. See BRON.

BRONTEA, [from βροντη, thunder,] an inſtrument uſed in theatres to imitate thunder.

BRONTES, in the mythology, one of the Cyclops, who was employed by Vulcan, to make Jupiter's thunder-bolts.

BRONTEUM, in Grecian antiquity, a place underneath the floor of the theatres, in which were kept brazen veſſels full of ſtones and other materials, with which they imitated the noiſe of thunder.

BRONTEUS, in the mythology, an epithet of Jupiter; applied alſo to Bacchus.

BRONTIÆ, or THUNDER-STONES, in natural hiſtory. See BELEMNITES.

(1.) * BRONTOLOGY. *n. ſ.* [βροντη and λογος.] A diſſertation upon thunder. *Diſt.*

(2.) BRONTOLOGY denotes an explanation of the cauſes, phenomena, &c. of thunder. See ELECTRICITY and THUNDER.

(1.) * BRONZE. *n. ſ.* [*bronze*, Fr.] 1. Braſs.—

Imbrown'd with native *bronze*, lo! Henley ſtands,
Tuning his voice, and balancing his hands. *Pope.*

2. Relief, or ſtatue caſt in braſs.—

I view with anger and diſdain,
How little gives thee joy or pain;
A print, a *bronze*, a flower, a root,
A ſhell, a butterfly can do't. *Prior.*

(1.) BRONZE, a compound of copper and tin, to which ſometimes other metallic ſubſtances, particularly zinc, are added.—This metal is brittle, hard, and ſonorous. It is employed for making bells, cannons, ſtatues, &c. and the proportions of the component metals are varied to ſuit the ſeveral purpoſes to which it is applied. This compound, like ſome others, is ſpecifically heavier than either of the metals taken ſeparately. A metallic maſs, compoſed of 4 fifths of copper and 1 5th of tin, weighs in water 7 and 1 tenth grains more than the ſame quantities of theſe two metals would together weigh in water if not allayed. This proves, that in the union of copper and tin there is a penetration of parts, the one metal entering into the pores of the other; and this is further confirmed by an obſervation of Mr Tillet, member of the royal academy of ſciences. In his memoir concerning the ductility of metals, he takes notice, that when the mixture of copper and tin is made in the proportions above mentioned, the colour of the copper is entirely annulled and covered by that of the tin, although the quantity of the firſt be four times greater; and this ſingular effect cannot be underſtood without admitting a total change in the ſize and diſpoſition of the pores of the compound metal.—Tin being leſs ſubject to ruſt than copper, bronze is alſo found to be leſs liable to be covered with verdigreaſe than pure copper is; and this is one reaſon why it is uſed for cannons, ſtatues, and works expoſed to the air and weather. The greater fuſibility of bronze than copper is alſo an advantageous property, and much facilitates the caſting of large works. The operation for caſting bronze is ſimple. A brick furnace is uſed, nearly of the ſhape of an oven for baking bread. The floor of it is concave, and conſiſts of a compoſition of ſand and clay. In this hollow floor the metals to be fuſed are put.—The furnace has 3 openings. The firſt is a lateral mouth, at which enters the flame of the wood placed in a ſecond furnace, on one ſide of the firſt: the 2d is a chimney placed on a ſide oppoſite to the mouth, by means of which the flame is drawn over the metal. The 3d is a hole which is opened and ſhut at pleaſure; through which the inner part of the furnace may be occaſionally inſpected, that the ſtate of the metal may be obſerved. When the metal is in the ſtate required, a 4th opening is then uncloſed, communicating with the hollow floor, and through which the melted metal flows by channels into the moulds prepared to receive it.

(3.) BRONZE, alſo denotes a colour prepared by the colourmen of Paris, wherewith to imitate bronze.—There are two ſorts, the red bronze and the yellow or golden. The latter is made ſolely of copper duſt, the fineſt and brighteſt that can be got; the former is made of the ſame, with the addition of a little red ochre well pulverized. They are both applied with varniſh. To prevent their turning greeniſh, the work muſt be dried over a chafing-diſh as ſoon as bronzed.

(4.) BRONZE, among antiquarians, is applied to figures of men or beaſts, to urns, and in general to every piece of ſculpture which the ancients made of that metal. We likewiſe give the name to ſtatues or buſts caſt of bronze, whether theſe pieces be copies of antiques or original ſubjects.—Among medalliſts, all copper medals bear the name of *bronze*.

BRONZING, the art or act of imitating bronze, which is done by means of copper-duſt or leaf, faſtened on the outſide, as gold leaves are in gilding.

* BROOCH. *n. ſ.* [*broke*, Dutch.] 1. A jewel; an ornament of jewels.—

Ay, marry, our chains and our jewels.—
Your *brooches*, pearls, and owches. *Shakeſp.*
—Richly ſuited, but unſeaſonable; juſt like the *brooch* and the toothpick, which we wear not now. *Shakeſpeare.*—
I know him well; he is the *brooch*, indeed,
A gem of all the nation. *Shakeſpeare.*

2. [With painters.] A painting all of one colour. *Diſt.*

* *To* BROOCH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To adorn with jewels.—

Not

Not th' imperious ſhew
Of the full-fortun'd Cæſar, ever ſhall
Be *brooch'd* with me. *Shakeſpeare.*

(1.) * BROOD. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Offſpring; progeny. It is now hardly uſed of human being, but in contempt.—

The heavenly father keep his *brood*
From foul infection of ſo great a vice. *Fairfax.*
With terrours, and with clamours compaſs'd round,
Of mine own *brood*, that on my bowels feed.
Milton.
Or any other of that heav'nly *brood*,
Let down in cloudy throne to do the world ſome good. *Milton.*

—Ælian diſcourſes of ſtorks, and their affection toward their *brood*, whom they inſtruct to fly. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.* 2. Thing bred; ſpecies generated.—

Have you forgotten Libya's burning waſtes,
Its barren rocks, parch'd earth, and hills of ſand,
Its tainted air, and all its *broods* of poiſon? *Addiſ.*

3. A hatch; the number hatched at once.—I was wonderfully pleaſed to ſee the different workings of inſtinct in a hen followed by a *brood* of ducks. *Spectator.* 4. Something brought forth; a production.—Such things become the hatch and *brood* of time. *Shakeſp.* 5. The act of covering the eggs.

Something's in his ſoul,
O'er which his melancholy ſits on *brood*;
And I doubt the hatch and the diſcloſe
Will be ſome danger. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) BROOD, or } called by the French *couvain*,
BROOD-COMB, } is that part of the comb of a bee-hive, which contains in its cells the future progeny of the hive, in the three different ſtates of eggs, worms, and nymphs. See BEE, § I, 12.

(1.) * *To* BROOD. *v. a.* To cheriſh by care.—

Of crowds afraid, yet anxious when alone,
You'll ſit and *brood* your ſorrows on a throne.
Dryden.

(2.) * *To* BROOD. *v. n.* [*brædan*, Sax.] 1. To ſit as on eggs; to hatch them.—

Thou from the firſt
Waſt preſent, and, with mighty wings outſpread,
Dove-like ſat'ſt *brooding* on the vaſt abyſs,
And mad'ſt it pregnant. *Milton.*
Here nature ſpreads her fruitful ſweetneſs round,
Breathes on the air, and *broods* upon the ground.
Dryden.

2. To cover chickens under the wing.—

Exalted hence, and drunk with ſecret joy,
Their young ſucceſſion all their cares employ;
They breed, they *brood*, inſtruct and educate,
And make proviſion for the future ſtate. *Dryd.*
Find out ſome uncouth cell,
Where *brooding* darkneſs ſpreads his jealous wings,
And the night raven ſings. *Milton.*

3. To remain long in anxiety, or ſolicitous thought.

Defraud their clients, and, to lucre ſold,
Sit *brooding* on unprofitable gold. *Dryden.*
As rejoicing miſers
Brood o'er their precious ſtores of ſecret gold.
Smith.

4. To mature any thing by care.—It was the opinion of Clinias, as if there were ever amongſt nations a *brooding* of a war, and that there is no ſure league but impuiſſance to do hurt. *Bacon.*

BROODING, the act of a hen in hatching her chickens. See HATCHING.

* BROODY. *adj.* [from *brood*.] In a ſtate of ſitting on the eggs; inclined to ſit.—The common hen, all the while ſhe is *broody*, ſits, and leads her chickens, and uſes a voice which we call clocking. *Ray.*

(1.) * BROOK. *n. ſ.* [*broc*, or *broca*, Sax.] A running water, leſs than a river.—

A ſubſtitute ſhines brightly as a king,
Until a king be by; and then his ſtate
Empties itſelf, as doth an inland *brook*
Into the main of waters. *Shakeſpeare.*
Or many grateful altars I would rear,
Of graſſy turf; and pile up every ſtone,
Of luſtre from the *brook*; in memory,
Of monument to ages. *Milton.*
And to Cephiſus' *brook* their way purſue:
The ſtream was troubled, but the ford they knew. *Dryden.*

—Springs make little rivulets; thoſe united, make *brooks*; and thoſe coming together, make rivers, which empty themſelves into the ſea. *Locke.*

(2.) *A* BROOK is by ſome diſtinguiſhed from a river, in this, that it flows at particular ſeaſons only; whereas a river flows at all times.

(3—5.) BROOK, in geography, the name of 3 villages; viz. 1. in Kent, S. of Aſhford: 2. in W. Medina, Iſle of Wight: and 3. in Wiltſhire, S. of N. Bradley.

(1.) * *To* BROOK. *v. a.* [*brucan*, Sax.] To bear; to endure; to ſupport.—Even they, which *brook* it worſt, that men ſhould tell them of their duties, when they are told the ſame by a law, think very well and reaſonably of it. *Hooker.*—

A thouſand more miſchances than this one,
Have learned me to *brook* this patiently. *Shakeſ.*
How uſe doth breed a habit in a man?
This ſhadowy deſart, unfrequented woods,
I better *brook* than flouriſhing peopl'd towns.
Shakeſpeare.
Heav'n, the ſeat of bliſs,
Brooks not the works of violence, and war. *Milt.*

—Moſt men can much rather *brook* their being reputed knaves, than for their honeſty be accounted fools. *South.*—

Reſtraint thou wilt not *brook*; but think it hard,
Your prudence is not truſted as your guard.
Dryden.

(2.) * *To* BROOK. *v. n.* To endure; to be content.—He, in theſe wars, had flatly refuſed his aid; becauſe he could not *brook*, that the worthy prince Plangus was, by his choſen Tiridates, preferred before him. *Sidney.*

(1.) BROOKE, a town near Oakham, Rutlandſh.

(2.) BROOKE, Mrs Frances, daughter of the rev. Mr More, was a lady as remarkable for her virtues and ſuavity of manners, as for her great literary accompliſhments. Her firſt performance, which introduced her to the eſteem of the public, was *Julia Mandeville*; a work concerning which there were various opinions, but which every body read with eagerneſs. It has often been wiſhed that ſhe had made the cataſtrophe leſs melancholy; and we believe that ſhe afterwards was of the ſame opinion, but ſhe thought it beneath her character

rafter to alter it. She ſoon afterwards went to Canada with her huſband, who was chaplain to the garriſon at Quebec; and here ſhe ſaw and loved thoſe romantic characters and ſcenes which gave birth to *Emily Montague*, a work deſervedly and univerſally eſteemed, which has paſſed through ſeveral editions, and is now not eaſily met with. On her return to England, accident introduced her, and congenial ſentiments attracted her, to Mrs Yates; an intimacy was formed, which terminated only with the life of that lady. Mrs Brooke, in conſequence of this connection, formed an acquaintance with Mr Garrick, and wrote ſome pieces for the ſtage. She had, however, great reaſon to be diſſatisfied with his behaviour as a manager; and ſhe made *The Excurſion*, a novel which ſhe wrote at this time, the vehicle by which ſhe exhibited to the public her complaints and anger againſt the king of Drury. Her anger, we believe, was juſt, but the retribution was too ſevere. She herſelf afterwards thought ſo, for ſhe retracted it. Her firſt dramatic performance was the tragedy of *Virginia*, 1756. Her next, was *The Siege of Sinope*, a tragedy introduced by Mr Harris, and written principally with a view of placing Mr Yates in a conſpicuous character. This did not altogether fail, but it did not become popular; it wanted energy, and it had not much originality; it had little either to cenſure or admire. Her next and moſt popular production was *Roſina*, which, in a moſt liberal manner, ſhe preſented to Mr Harris. Few modern pieces have been equally ſucceſsful. About ten years ago, her muſical piece, entitled *Marian*, was introduced, and exhibited. Mrs Brooke alſo tranſlated ſeveral books from the French. She was eſteemed by Dr Johnſon, Miſs Seward, and all the firſt characters of her time. She died in Jan. 1789, two days after her huſband, who enjoyed the rectory of Colney in Norfolk, to which he had been preferred after his arrival from America.

(2.) BROOKE, Sir Robert. See BROKE, N° 3.

BROOKE-GREEN, a village in Middleſex, near Hammerſmith.

BROOKFIELD, a poſt-town of the United States, in Maſſachuſetts; ſituated in Worceſter county. It contains about 30 houſes, compactly built, and a congregational church. It is 68 m. W. by S. of Boſton, and 297 from Philadelphia.

BROOKHAVEN, a town of Long-Iſland; ſituated in Suffolk county. It contains about 40 dwellings, compactly built, an Epiſcopalian, and a Preſbyterian church. It is 60 miles E. of New-York.

BROOKHOUSE, in Kent, near Dartford.

BROOKLAND, in Romney-marſh, Kent.

BROOKLEY, in Kent, near Eltham.

(1.) * BROOKLIME. *n. ſ.* [*becabunga*, Lat.] A ſort of water ſpeed-well, very common in ditches.

(2.) BROOK-LIME. See VERONICA.

BROOKLYN, a handſome town of Long-Iſland; pleaſantly ſituated in King's county, oppoſite New York city. It conſiſts of one principal ſtreet, on which are erected about 100 houſes, a Preſbyterian, and a Dutch Reformed church.

BROOKS-BOROUGH, a town of Ireland, in in Fermanagh, Ulſter, about 87 m. from Dublin.

BROOKSTREET, in Eſſex, near Burtwood.

(1.) * BROOM. *n. ſ.* [*geniſta*; *brom*; Saxon.] 1. A ſmall tree.—

Ev'n humble *broom*, and oſiers, have their uſe,
And ſhade for ſheep; and food for flocks, produce. *Dryden.*

2. A beſom; ſo called from the matter of which it is ſometimes made.—

Not a mouſe
Shall diſturb this hallow'd houſe;
I am ſent with *broom* before,
To ſweep the duſt behind the door. *Shakeſp.*

—If they came into the beſt apartment, to ſet any thing in order, they were ſaluted with a *broom*. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) BROOM, as defined § 1. *def.* 2. is applied to beſoms of various kinds; ſuch as a *birch broom*, a *hair broom*, a *ruſh broom*, a *heath broom*, &c. The primitive brooms, from whence the denomination is given to all the reſt, were made of the geniſta or wild broom growing on commons, as many of them ſtill are.

(3.) BROOM, in botany. See GENISTA.

(4.) BROOM, in geography, a diſtrict in Renfrewſhire, in the pariſh of Mearns, where there is a bleachfield, which employs 22 perſons.

(5.) BROOM, AFRICAN. See ASPALATHUS, § 2.

(6.) BROOM, BUTCHER'S, in botany. See RUSCUS.

(7.) BROOM, SPANISH, in botany. See SPARTIUM.

BROOME, William, the coadjutor of Pope in tranſlating the Odyſſey, was born in Cheſhire, of poor parents. He was educated at Eaton, and was captain of the ſchool a whole year, by which he might have obtained a ſcholarſhip at King's college; had there been a vacancy. He was therefore ſent to St John's college by the contribution of his friends, where he obtained a ſmall exhibition. At this college he lived for ſome time in the ſame chamber with the well known Ford, by whom Dr Johnſon heard him deſcribed as a contracted ſcholar, and a mere verſifier, unacquainted with life, and unſkilful in converſation. His addiction to metre was then ſuch, that his companions called him *Poet*. But when he had opportunities of mingling with mankind, he cleared himſelf, from his ſcholaſtic ruſt. He appeared early in the world as a tranſlator of the Iliad into proſe, in conjunction with Ozell and Oldiſworth. How their ſeveral parts were diſtributed is not known. This is the tranſlation of which Ozell boaſted, as ſuperior, in Toland's opinion, to that of Pope: It has long ſince vaniſhed, (Dr Johnſon obſerves,) and is now in no danger from the critics. He was introduced to Mr Pope, when viſiting Sir John Cotton at Madingley, near Cambridge; and gained ſo much of his eſteem, that he employed him to make extracts from Euſtathius, for the notes to the tranſlation of the Iliad; and in the volumes of poetry publiſhed by Lintot, commonly called *Pope's Miſcellanies*, many of his early pieces were inſerted. Pope and Broome were yet more cloſely connected. When the ſucceſs of the Iliad gave encouragement to a verſion of the Odyſſey, Pope, weary of the toil, called Fenton and Broome to his aſſiſtance; and taking only half the work upon himſelf, divided the other half between his partners, giving 4 books to Fen-

ton and 8 to Broome. Fenton's books are enumerated in Dr Johnſon's life of him. To the lot of Broome fell the 2d, 6th, 8th, 11th, 12th, 16th, 18th, and 23d, together with the burden of writing all the notes. The price at which Pope purchaſed this aſſiſtance was 300l. paid to Fenton and 500l. to Broome, with as many copies as he wanted for his friends, which amounted to 100l. more. The payment made to Fenton is known only by hearſay; Broome's is very diſtinctly told by Pope in the notes to the Dunciad. It is evident, that, according to Pope's own eſtimate, Broome was unkindly treated. If four books could merit 300l. eight and all the notes, equivalent at leaſt to other four, had certainly a right to more than 600l. Broome probably conſidered himſelf as injured, and there was for ſome time more than coldneſs between him and his employer. He always ſpoke of Pope as too much a lover of money, and Pope purſued him with avowed hoſtility; for he not only named him diſreſpectfully in the Dunciad, but quoted him more than once in the Bathos, as a proficient in the art of ſinking: and in his enumeration of the different kinds of poets diſtinguiſhed for the profound, he reckons Broome among "the parrots who repeat another's words, in ſuch an hoarſe odd tone as makes them ſeem their own." It has been ſaid that they were afterwards reconciled; but their peace was probably without friendſhip. He afterwards publiſhed a Miſcellany of Poems, but never roſe to any high dignity in the church. He was ſome time rector of Sturſten in Suffolk, where he married a wealthy widow; and afterwards, when the king viſited Cambridge, in 1728, became LL. D. He was, in 1733, preſented by the crown to the rectory of Pulham in Norfolk, which he held with Oakley Magna in Suffolk, given him by Lord Cornwallis, to whom he was chaplain, and who added the vicarage of Eye in Suffolk. He amuſed himſelf with tranſlating Odes of Anacreon, which he publiſhed in the Gentleman's Magazine under the name of *Cheſter*.. He died at Bath in 1745.

BROOM FLOWER, KNIGHTS OF THE, *(Ordre de la Geneſte,)* a ci-devant order of knights inſtituted by St Lewis of France, on occaſion of his marriage. The motto was *Exaltat humiles*; and the collar of the order made up of broom flowers and huſks, enamelled and intermixed with *fleur-de-lys* of gold, ſet in open lozenges, enamelled white, chained together, and a croſs florence of gold hung at it. Some ſpeak of another order of the *Broom* eſtabliſhed by Charles Martel, or rather Charles VI.

BROOM GALL, in natural hiſtory, a remarkable ſpecies of galls found on the common broom; occaſioned, like all other galls, by the puncture and eating of an inſect. When opened they are found to contain a ſmall oblong worm, of a red colour, but whoſe ſize requires a glaſs to ſee it diſtinctly.

BROOMHILL, a diſtrict in Lanarkſhire.

BROOMING, or BREAMING A SHIP. See *To* BREAM, and CAREENING.

* BROOMLAND. *n. ſ.* [*broom* and *land*.] Land that bears broom.—I have known ſheep cured of the rot, when they have not been far gone with it, by being put into *broomlands*. *Mortimer*.

BROOM, LOCH. See LOCH-BROOM.

BROOM-RAPE, in botany. See OROBANCHE.

* BROOMSTAFF. *n. ſ.* [from *broom* and *ſtaff*.] The ſtaff to which the *broom* is bound; the handle of a beſom.—They fell on; I made good my place: at length they came to the *broomſtaff* with me; I defied 'em ſtill. *Shakeſpeare*.—

From the age,
That children tread this worldly ſtage,
Broomſtaff, or poker, they beſtride,
And round the parlour love to ride. *Prior*.

—Sir Roger pointed at ſomething behiud the door, which I found to be an old *broomſtaff*. *Spectator*.

* BROOMSTICK. *n. ſ.* The ſame as broomſtaff.—When I beheld this, I ſighed and ſaid within myſelf, SURELY MORTAL MAN IS A BROOMSTICK! *Swift's Meditation on a Broomſtick*.

* BROOMY. *adj.* [from *broom*.] Full of broom.—If land grow moſſy or *broomy*, then break it up again. *Mortimer*.—

The youth with *broomy* ſtumps began to trace
The kennel edge, where wheels had worn the place. *Swift*.

(1.) BRORA, a lake of Scotland, in the county of Sutherland, 4 miles long and 1 broad. At two different places it is ſo much contracted, as to exhibit the appearance of 3 lakes. It is environed on both ſides with lofty mountains, villages and natural wood. In the middle of it is an iſland of an oblong ſquare figure, which tradition ſays, was artificially conſtructed on an immenſe collection of ſtones brought there on purpoſe. One half of it was appropriated for lodgings in time of war, and the other laid out for a garden. "The walls, (ſays the rev. Mr Roſs, miniſter of Clyne) are ſtill pretty high, and aſcend perpendicularly from the ſurface of the water, without a veſtige of the iſland behind them; and are only acceſſible by two ſtairs, which front the S. and E. ſo that with plenty of ſtores, and the fiſhing of the loch, abounding with ſalmon, trout and eel, the place was impregnable, when properly defended." Mr Roſs alſo gives a traditional account of the people of that neighbourhood having preſerved themſelves in that iſland from a ſudden invaſion of the Caithneſs men, till they were relieved by their allies of the clan Gun. *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* x. 304.

(2.) BRORA, a river in Sutherlandſhire, which falls into the ſea, about a furlong below the village, N° 3. There is a tolerable harbour at the mouth of it, for ſmall ſhips.

(3.) BRORA, a village ſeated on the river, N° 2. over which it has a bridge, on the high road to Caithneſs and Orkney. Salt pans were eſtabliſhed, and great quantities of ſalt made and exported by a company from Portſoy; but they were diſcontinued about 20 years ago, on account of the high tax on coals. It is to be hoped they will now be again ſet agoing.

(1.) BROS, a diſtrict of the Saxon territory in Tranſylvania.

(2.) BROS, a royal free town, and capital of the diſtrict, (N° 1.) ſeated on the Maros. It has been admitted by the Saxons among the German towns.

BROSELEY, a village in Shropſhire, 5 miles from Bridgenorth.

BROSNEY, in King's county, Ireland.

BROSSÆA, in botany, a genus of plants ranked

ed by ſome botaniſts under the order Monogynia, of the claſs Pentandria; but Mr Lee and others claſs it in Linnæus's appendix, under the order Palmæ. The characters are theſe: the cup is a one-leaved perianthium, divided into 5 ſegments, each of which terminates in a long point, of the ſame length with the petals; the flower is monopetalous, of the ſhape of a truncated cone, and undivided at the edge; the germen is divided into 5 parts; the ſtyle is pointed, not ſo long as the flower, and its ſtigma ſimple. The fruit is a roundiſh capſule, divided by 5 deep furrows into 5 cells; it is covered with a large cup, which cloſes over its top; it is ſucculent and fleſhy; and, opening at the ſides, diſcharges a great number of ſeeds.

BROSSARD, Sebaſtian de, an eminent French muſician. In the former part of his life he had been prebendary and chapel maſter of the cathedral church of Straſburg; but afterwards became grand-chaplain, and alſo maitre de chapelle in the cathedral of Meaux. He publiſhed a work entitled *Prodromus muſicalis*; and a very uſeful book entitled *Dictionaire de muſique*, printed at Amſterdam, in folio, 1703. At the end of this book is a catalogue of 900 authors, ancient and modern, who have written on muſic; divided into claſſes, wherein he has interſperſed many curious obſervations relating to the hiſtory of muſic. By Mr Boivin's *Catalogue general des livres de muſique* for 1729, it appears that Broſſard was the author of two ſets of motets, and 9 *Lecons de Tenebres* therein mentioned. Theſe ſeveral publications were at a time when the author was far advanced in years; for Walther ſays, that in the *Mercure Galante*, he is mentioned as an abbé and componiſt ſo early as 1678.

BROSSETTE, Claude, a learned French advocate, born at Lyons, in 1671. He was keeper of the public library at Lyons; and publiſhed the works of Boileau and Regnier, with hiſtorical illuſtrations. He purged the text of theſe authors from the errors of former editions, and interſperſed his notes with many curious anecdotes. He wrote alſo *L'Hiſtoire Abregee de la Ville de Lyons*; an elegant and correct work. He correſponded with many eminent literati, particularly Voltaire and Rouſſeau. He died at Lyons in 1746, aged 73.

BROSSIER, Martha, a French woman who made no ſmall noiſe about the end of the 16th century, by pretending to be poſſeſſed by the devil, and counterfeiting convulſive fits. M. De Thou and other French hiſtorians have given a particular account of her. Her father was a weaver at Romorentin, but found he could gain more, in that credulous age, by exhibiting his daughter as a dæmoniac, than by following his honeſt and uſeful profeſſion. She was firſt detected at Orleans, in 1598; and afterwards at Angers, where the biſhop, inviting Martha to dinner, not only prayed that her *dæmon* could not diſtinguiſh between common and *holy* water, but that he was ſuch an *ignorant devil*, that he did not know the difference between the *Book of exorciſms* and *Virgil's Æneid*. Notwithſtanding theſe detections, the credulity of the public was ſuch, and ſome of the prieſts acquired ſo much reputation by exorciſing the evil ſpirit, that Henry IV. enjoined the parliament of Paris to take cognizance of the affair; who, after a conſultation of phyſicians, ordered the father and daughter to be confined to Romorentin, under pain of corporal puniſhment. The prieſts, however, carried the buſineſs and the parties before the court of Rome; but the pope, being forewarned by the court of Paris, did nothing contrary to the deciſion of parliament. Some of the French prieſts loſt their benefices by their villainous zeal; and the pretended dæmoniac and her father died in deſerved contempt, in an hoſpital at Rome.

BROSSUS, in old records, bruiſed.

BROST, or BROSTIN, } *adj. obſ.* Broken, torn, or rent. *Chaus.*

BROSTON, a town 2 miles E. of Norwich, Norfolk.

* BROTH. *n. ſ.* [*broth*, Sax.] Liquour in which fleſh is boiled.—You may make the *broth* for two days, and take the one half every day. *Bacon.*—

Inſtead of light deſerts and luſcious froth,
Our author treats to-night with Spartan *broth*.
Southerne.

—If a nurſe, after being ſucked dry, eats *broth*, the infant will ſuck the *broth* almoſt unaltered. *Arbuthnot.*

* BROTHEL. } *n. ſ.* [*brodel*, Fr.] A
(1.) * BROTHEL-HOUSE. } houſe of lewd entertainment; a bawdyhouſe.—

Perchance
I ſaw him enter ſuch a houſe of ſale,
Videlicet, a *brothel*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Then courts of kings were held in high renown,
Ere made the common *brothels* of the town:
There, virgins honourable vows receiv'd,
But chaſte as maids in monaſteries liv'd. *Dryd.*

From its old ruins *brothelhouſes* riſe,
Scenes of lewd loves, and of polluted joys. *Dryd.*

—The libertine retires to the ſtews, and to the *brothel*. *Rogers.*

(2.) BROTHEL HOUSES, lewd places, the common habitations of proſtitutes. King Henry VIII. by proclamation, in the 37th year of his reign, ſuppreſſed all the ſtews or brothel-houſes which had long continued on the bank ſide in Southwark, contrary to the law of God and of the land. See BAWDY-HOUSE.

BROTHELIER FEMME, a common whore.

BROTHELMAN, a looſe idle fellow. *Brothelman* is a contraction for *brothelman*.

BROTHELRY, *n. ſ.* obſcenity; lewdneſs.

(1.) * BROTHER. *n. ſ.* [*brother*, *brothor*, Sax.] Plural, *brothers*, or *brethren*. 1. One born of the ſame father or mother.—

Be ſad, good *brothers*;
Sorrow ſo royally in you appears,
That I will deeply put the faſhion on. *Shakeſp.*

Whilſt kin their kin, *brother* the *brother* foils,
Like enſigns all, againſt like enſigns bend. *Daniel.*

Theſe two are *brethren*, Adam, and to come
Out of thy loins. *Milton.*

—Comparing two men, in reference to one common parent, it is very eaſy to form the idea of *brothers*. *Locke.* 2. Any one cloſely united; aſſociate.—

We few, we happy few, we band of *brothers*;
For he, to-day that sheds his blood with me,
Shall be my *brother*. *Shakespeare.*

2. Any one resembling another in manner, form, or profession.—He also that is slothful in his work, is *brother* to him that is a great waster. *Proverbs.*—I will eat no meat while the world standeth, lest I make my *brother* to offend. *Cor.* 4. *Brother* is us'd, in theological language, for man in general.

(2.) BROTHER is more accurately defined, a term of relationship applied to a male, among children sprung from the same father, or mother, or both. Scaliger and Vossius derive *frater* from φρεαρ, for φρεατος, a person who draws water in the same well, φρεαρ, in Greek, signifying *a well*, and φρατρα, a company of people, who have a right to draw water out of the same well.—The word, it is said, came originally from Argos, where there were only a few wells distributed in certain quarters of the city, to which those of the same family or neighbourhood alone repaired. Consistently with this derivation, the ancients applied the term brother to almost all who stood related in the collateral line, as uncles, nephews, cousins german, &c. Cicero, in his Philippics, says, "Antonia was both wife and sister of Mark Anthony; because she was daughter of his brother C. Antonius:" And Tullus Hostilius, in Dionysius Halicarnassæus, calls the Horatii and Curiatii, brothers, because they were sisters children. The language of the Hebrews was similar: "We are brethren," says Abraham to Lot, *Genesis* xiii. 8. whereas Lot was only his nephew. So Jacob told Rachel that he was her father's brother, *Gen.* xxix. 12. whereas he was only her father's nephew.

(3.) BROTHER, among monarchs, is a title they usually give each other; the unction in coronation being esteemed to create a kind of brotherhood. Nor is the custom modern: Menander mentions a letter of Cosroes king of Persia to the emperor Justinian, beginning thus: Cosroes, king of kings, &c. to the emperor Justinian, my brother.—Kings also give the same appellation to the electors of the empire.

(4.) BROTHER, in clerical language, is a customary term for priests of the same persuasion to address one another by: but it is more particularly used to denote the relation between monks of the same convent. In English, we more usually say, *friar*, from the French word, *frere*, brother. Preachers also call their hearers, *my brethren*, or *my dear brethren*. This appellation is borrowed from the primitive Christians, who all called each other *brothers*. But it is now principally used for such of the religious as are not priests: those in orders are generally stiled *fathers*, whereas the rest are only simple brothers. Brother is also an appellation peculiarly given to certain orders of religious. See § 11—20.

(5.) BROTHER, in writers of the middle age, was used for *count*, a count, or governor of a province.

(6.) BROTHERS, *fratres*, in the civil law, sometimes comprehend sisters: as *Livius & Livia, fratres*; *two brothers, Female Members, & Sons*. By the civil law, brothers and sisters stand in the same degree of relation to their father; and the brother of a man who died without issue was obliged to marry the widow of the deceased. *Deuter.* xxv. 7.

(7.) BROTHERS, FOSTER, those who suck the same nurse. The French call them *freres de lait*, or brothers of the milk.

(8.) BROTHERS, GERMAN. See GERMAN.

(9.) BROTHERS IN LAW. See AFFINITY, § 2.

(10.) BROTHERS OF ARMS, an appellation given those who contract a kind of fraternity in war, obliging themselves to the mutual service and assistance of each other. In the military orders, the knights are also called *brothers*.

(11.) BROTHERS OF AVE MARIA. See SERVITES.

(12.) BROTHERS OF CHARITY. See BILLETTES.

(13.) BROTHERS OF DEATH, those of the order of St Paul, so named from the figure of a death's head which they always had about them.

(14.) BROTHERS OF PENITENCE, a name given to the Beguins. See BEGUINS.

(15.) BROTHERS OF ST ALEXIS, in the low countries, were an order of persons who attended on those who lay dying, and took care of the burial of the dead.

(16.) BROTHERS OF THE RUBY CROSS. See ROSICRUCIANS.

(17.) BROTHERS, POOR, in the charity-boys, a denomination given to decayed gentlemen, to the number of 80, who are subsisted with diet, clothing, and lodging, on the establishment. The poor brothers are to be gentlemen of decayed come to poverty, or decayed merchants, factors or officers of the king's household. The conditions of admission are, that they have no estate of the value of 200l. nor coming in, rent & annuity 24l. per annum; and that they be fifty years old, unless they have been maimed in the public service; in which case, the age of forty suffices. They wear a livery gown within doors.

(18.) BROTHERS, PYED, a name given to mendicants whose habit was partly black, and partly white.

(19.) BROTHERS, SERVING, *fratres servientes*, a class of knights in the order of Malta, consisting of such as cannot give proof of their nobility.

(20.) BROTHERS, WHITE. See BRETHREN, § 2.

* BROTHERHOOD. *n. s.* [from *brother* and *hood*.] 1. The state or quality of being a brother.

This deep disgrace of *brotherhood*
Touches me deeper than you can imagine. *Shakespeare.*
Finds *brotherhood* in thee no sharper spur. *Shakespeare.*

—So it be right to govern, whether you call it supreme fatherhood, or supreme *brotherhood*, it will be all one, provided we know who has it. *Locke.* 2. An association of men for any purpose; a fraternity.—There was a fraternity of men at arms called the *brotherhood* of St George, erected by parliament, consisting of thirteen the most noble and worthy persons. *Davies.* 3. A class of men of the same kind.—He was sometimes to engage among the wheels, that not above half the pack appeared; at other times, he became as conspicuous as any of the *brotherhood*. *Addison.*

BROTHERHOUSE, a village in Lincolnshire, 4 miles S. of Spalding.

BROTHER LOCH, a lake in Renfrewſhire, 3 m. in circumference, abounding with trouts and char.

(1.) * BROTHERLY. *adj.* [from *brother.*] Natural; ſuch as becomes or beſeems a brother.—He was a prieſt, and looked for a prieſt's reward; which was our *brotherly* love, and the good of our ſouls and bodies. *Bacon.*—

Though more our money than our cauſe,
Their *brotherly* aſſiſtance draws. *Denham.*

—They would not go before the laws, but follow them; obeying their ſuperiours, and embracing one another in *brotherly* piety and concord. *Addiſ.*

(2.) * BROTHERLY. *adv.* After the manner of a brother; with kindneſs and affection.—I ſpeak but *brotherly* of him; but ſhould I anatomize him to thee as he is, I muſt bluſh and weep. *Shakeſp.*

BROTHERTOFT, a village in Lincolnſhire, N. W. of Boſton.

BROTHICK, or BROTHOCK, a ſmall river of Angus-ſhire, which runs through the pariſh of St Vigeans, and falls into the ſea at Aberbrothick, to which it gives name.

BROTHEUS, in the mythology, a ſon of Vulcan, ſaid to have been remarkably deformed; and on that account to have thrown himſelf into the abyſs of Mount Ætna.

BROTIL, *adj. obſ.* brittle. *Chauc.*

BROTTON, 4 m. from Giſborough, Yorkſh.

BROUAGE, a maritime town of France in the department of Lower Charente, and ci-devant province of Saintonge. It conſiſts of 5 or 6 ſtreets which terminate in a great ſquare. It is famous for its ſalt-works, which are the fineſt in the kingdom. The ſalt is called *Bay Salt*, becauſe the town lies on a bay. It is 17 miles S. of Rochelle and 170 S. W. of Paris. Lon. 1. 4. W. Lat. 45. 51. N.

BROUAGEOIS, a ci-devant territory of France, now included in the department of Lower Charente.

BROUCA, a town of Sicilly, in the Val di Noto.

BROUCH, *n. ſ. obſ.* a jewel.

BROUCK, BRUCK, or BRUGG, a town of Switzerland, in the county of Argow.

BROUDRED, *adj. obſ.* embroidered. *Chauc.*

BROUERSHAVEN, or BROWERSHAVEN, a port town of Zealand, in the N. ſide of the iſland of Schonen, ſeated on a bay; 9 m. S. W. of Helvoetſluys. Lon. 3. 35. E. Lat. 51. 50. N.

(1.) BROUGH, a fiſhing town on the coaſt of Caithneſs, cloſe by Dunnet Head, where there is a harbour well ſheltered from every wind but the N. W. and which (ſays Mr Jolly, miniſter of Dunnet,) might at a ſmall expence be rendered ſecure againſt it too, by throwing a pier from the land to a large rock about 100 yards from the ſhore, to which there is already a natural ridge of large ſtones, though not ſufficiently high to keep back the ſea at high water. Mr Knox, during his tour, was much taken with this harbour, and thought the executing ſuch a pier an object worthy of attention; as Brough is contiguous to the beſt fiſhing ground, S. of the Pentland Firth. *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* XI. 247.

(2.) BROUGH, a town in Weſtmoreland, ſeated under Stanmore hill, 6 m. from Appleby and 259 from London. It was formerly a place of great note, being a Roman fortreſs; but is now much decayed. It has a caſtle, lately rebuilt and an ancient fort called *Cæſar's Tower.* It is divided into two, the *Upper* and *Lower*, and has a market on Thurſd. and a fair Thurſd. before Whitſ. Lon. 2. 50. W. Lat. 54. 40. N.

(3.) BROUGH, in Holderneſs, Yorkſhire.

BROUGHAM, near Penrith, Weſtmoreland.

BROUGHSHANE, a village of Ireland, in the county of Antrim, 95 miles from Dublin.

* BROUGHT. [*participle paſſive* of *bring.*] The Turks forſook the walls, and could not be *brought* on again to the aſſault. *Knolles.*—The inſtances *brought* by our author are but ſlender proofs. *Locke.*

(1.) BROUGHTON, a pariſh of Scotland, in the county of Tweeddale, 4 m. long and 3 broad, conſiſting of two ridges of hills with a valley between them. The whole landed property of it, worth about L. 700 a-year, belongs to the R. H. Robert M'Queen of Braxfield, the preſent Lord Juſtice Clerk. The ſoil is generally a deep wet clay, which produces good crops in dry ſeaſons, and the climate is healthy. The population, in 1792, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Gray in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 264. It had decreaſed 103, ſince 1755, owing to the enlargement of farms and pulling down cottages. There were above 2000 ſheep, 200 black cattle, and 80 horſes at that period, and 400 acres were in tillage, 300 ſown with corn, 60 with bear, 30 with peas, 10 with potatoes, and 30 with graſs. All the reſt is laid out in paſture. The exports are corn, cattle and wool to a conſiderable amount. There are ruins of 10 ancient caſtles in the pariſh, in one of which the uſurper Macbeth is ſaid to have reſided.

(2.) BROUGHTON, a remarkably neat village in the above pariſh, (N. 1.) containing 20 houſes, and 97 inhabitants, in 1792. It was all rebuilt by the laſt proprietor, James Dickſon, Eſq; of Edrum. It has a fair Oct. 4.

(3.) BROUGHTON, a village near Edinburgh, on the N. E. ſide of the New Town.

(4.) BROUGHTON, Thomas, a learned divine, and one of the original writers of the Biographia Britannica, was born at London, July 5th 1704, in the pariſh of St Andrew, Holborn; of which his father was miniſter. At an early age he was ſent to Eton ſchool, where he ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his acute genius, and ſtudious diſpoſition. He removed, about 1722, to the univerſity of Cambridge, where he ſtudied mathematics, under the famous profeſſor Sanderſon, and acquired a knowledge of the modern languages.—In 1727 he was made A. B. and admitted to deacon's orders. In 1728, he was ordained prieſt, and took the degree of M. A. when he removed to the curacy of Oſſley, in Hertfordſhire. In 1739, he was inſtituted rector of Stepington, appointed chaplain to the D. of Bedford, and ſoon after was choſen reader to the Temple, by which he became known to Biſhop Sherlock, who conceived ſo high an opinion of his merit, that, in 1744, he appointed him vicar of Bedminſter, and not long after prebendary of Bedminſter and Redcliff. Upon receiving this preferment, he removed from London to Briſtol, where he married the daughter of Thomas Harris, clerk of that city, by whom he had 7 children, ſix of whom ſurvived him.

him. He reſided on his living till his death, 21ſt Dec. 1774, in the 71ſt year of his age. From his quitting the univerſity till he was conſiderably advanced in life, he was engaged in a variety of publications, of which a liſt is given in the Biographia Britannica, 2d edition. Sometime before his death, he compoſed "A ſhort view of the principles upon which Chriſtian churches require, of their reſpective clergy, ſubſcription to eſtabliſhed articles of religion;" but this work never appeared in print. He poſſeſſed, likewiſe, no inconſiderable talent for poetry, as is evident from many MS. poems found among his papers; and particularly from two unfiniſhed tragedies, both written at the age of 17. During his reſidence in London, he enjoyed the eſteem and friendſhip of moſt of the literary men of his time. He was a great lover of muſic, particularly the ancient; which introduced him to the acquaintance of Mr Handel; whom he furniſhed with the words for many of his compoſitions. In his public character, Mr Broughton was diſtinguiſhed by an active zeal for the Chriſtian cauſe, joined with moderation. In private life, he was devoted to the happineſs of his family; and was of a mild, cheerful, and liberal temper. This diſpoſition, which is not always united with eminent literary abilities, attended him to his grave. In 1778, a poſthumus "volume of ſermons, on ſelect ſubjects," was publiſhed by his ſon, the rev. Thomas Broughton, M. A. vicar of Tiverton, near Bath.

(5—21.) BROUGHTON, the name of 17 ſmall towns or villages in England; viz. 1. in Bucks, 2 m. E. of Ayleſbury: 2. in ditto, between Woburn and Newport: 3. in Hampſhire, near the Wallops: 4. in Hertfordſhire, near Hoddeſdon: 5. in Huntingdonſhire, 4 miles S. of Ramſey: 6. in Lancaſhire, 5 miles from Preſton; 7. in ditto 4 m. N. W. of Ulverſton: 8. in Lincolnſhire, near Glandford bridge: 9. in Northamptonſhire, near Kettering: 10. in Oxfordſhire, near Banbury: 11. in Shropſhire, 4 m. from Wem. 12. in ditto, in the pariſh of Wurthen: 13. in Staffordſhire 5 miles N. W. of Eccleſhall: 14. in Warwickſhire, adjoining to Whitchurch: 15. in Wilts, between Bradford and Lacock: 16. in Yorkſhire, 5 miles S. W. of Skipton: and 17. in ditto, 3 m. S. E. of Stockeſley. It alſo makes part of the names of other 10 villages, viz.

(22.) BROUGHTON-ASHLEY, in Leiceſterſhire, 4 m. N. of Lutterworth.

(23.) BROUGHTON-CASTLE, in Cumberland, E. of Penrith.

(24.) BROUGHTON-CHURCH, in Derbyſhire, 4 m. E. of Daberton.

(25.) BROUGHTON, GREAT, a town near Cockermouth in Cumberland.

(26.) BROUGHTON HACKETS, a village 3 m. E. of Worceſter.

(27.) BROUGHTON, LITTLE, near GREAT BROUGHTON, (N. 25.)

(28.) BROUGHTON, NETHER, in Leiceſterſh.

(29.) BROUGHTON ON THE SANDS, on the Solway Frith, in Cumberland.

(30) BROUGHTON, OVER, in Nottinghamſh.

(31.) BROUGHTON-POGES, in Oxfordſhire.

(1.) BROUGHTY, [from *Borgh*, a ſecurity,] a diſtrict on the coaſt of Forfarſhire, about 4 m. E. from Dundee, and one N. from the coaſt of Fife.

(2.) BROUGHTY CASTLE, an ancient fort in the above diſtrict, formerly a ſcene of many warlike deeds, but now verging faſt to ruin. The earlieſt mention made of it is by Hector Boece in 1492. In 1547, it was ſeized by the Engliſh, under the D. of Somerſet, during the minority of Edward VI. and filled with an Engliſh garriſon. Upon the Duke's return to England, it was blockaded by the E. of Arran, then regent of Scotland, from Oct. 1ſt, 1547, to 1ſt Jan. 1548, when he was obliged to raiſe the ſiege, after loſing one of his beſt generals, and all his ordnance. It was ſoon after attacked by the E. of Argyll, who was likewiſe repulſed. It was next attack by three French regiments under D'Eſſe, and as many German troops, who all met with ſimilar fate. At laſt the ſupplies from England of proviſions, arms, and ammunition failing, the Engliſh garriſons, in Broughty Caſtle and the fort Balgillo, were obliged to ſurrender to the allied army of Scots, Germans, and French, under Des Thermes, on the 16th Feb. 1550.

To BROUILLER, *v. n.* [French,] in the manege, to plunge; to appear in diſorder.

BROUKHUSIUS, Jonas, or John BROEKHUIZEN, a diſtinguiſhed writer in Holland, was born Nov. 20, 1649, at Amſterdam, where his father was a clerk to the admiralty. He learned Latin under Hadrian Junius, and made a prodigious progreſs in literature; but, his father dying when he was very young, he was placed with an apothecary at Amſterdam, with whom he lived ſome years. Not liking this profeſſion, he went to the army, where his behaviour raiſed him to the rank of lieutenant-captain; and, in 1674, he was ſent with his regiment to America, in the fleet under admiral de Ruyter, but returned to Holland the ſame year. In 1678, he was ſent to the garriſon at Utrecht, where he contracted a friendſhip with the celebrated Grævius; and here, though of an excellent temper, he had the misfortune to be ſo deeply engaged in a duel, that according to the laws of Holland, his life was forfeited; but Grævius wrote immediately to Nicolas Heinſius, who obtained his pardon from the Stadtholder. Not long after that, he became captain of one of the companies then at Amſterdam; which placed him in an eaſy ſituation, and gave him leiſure to purſue his ſtudies. His company being diſbanded in 1697, a penſion was granted him; upon which he retired to a country houſe near Amſterdam, where he ſaw but little company, and ſpent his time among books. He died Dec. 15th 1707. As a claſſical editor, he is diſtinguiſhed by his labours upon Propertius and Tibullus, publiſhed in 1701, and 1708. He was alſo an excellent Latin poet, though the authors of the *Journal de Trevoux* alledged he was only "a poet by art and not by nature." A volume of his poems was publiſhed at Utrecht, 1684, in 12mo; and an elegant edition of them was given by Van Hoogſtraeten at Amſterdam, 1711, in 4to, who alſo publiſhed his Dutch poems, in 1712, in 8vo, and prefixed his life, extracted from Peter Burman's funeral oration upon him. Broukhuſius was alſo editor of the Latin works of Sannazarius and Palearius.

To

To BROUKIN, *v. n. obſ.* To brook; to bear. *Chaucer.*

BROUNCKER, William, lord viſcount of Caſtle Lyons, in Ireland, and the firſt preſident of the Royal Society, was the ſon of Sir Wm. Brouncker, and born about 1620. He was diſtinguiſhed by his knowledge of the mathematics, and by the conſiderable poſts he enjoyed after the reſtoration; being chancellor to the queen, and keeper of her great ſeal, and one of the commiſſioners of the navy, &c. He wrote, 1. Experiments of the recoiling of guns. 2. An algebraical paper upon the ſquare of the hyperbola; and ſeveral letters to Abp. Uſher. He died in 1684.

BROUNGELLY, a village in Cornwall, ſeated on a hill, N. of Leſkard.

BROUNKER. See BROUNCKER.

BROUNRIGG, a village in Cumberland, near Abbey-Holm.

BROUSSON, Claude, an eminent French proteſtant martyr, born at Niſmes, in 1647. He was an advocate and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his pleading at Caſtres and Toulouſe. The deputies of the proteſtants aſſembled at his houſe, after their churches were demoliſhed, and reſolved to continue to meet there. The execution of this reſolution, however, as might have been expected, occaſioned freſh perſecutions, and maſſacres. Brouſſon retired to Briſmes, and afterwards to Geneva and Lauſanne; whence he travelled through the different proteſtant ſtates, ſoliciting their aſſiſtance and compaſſion to their ſuffering brethren in France. Returning to France, he ventured to preach at Cevennes and in ſeveral provinces; in conſequence of which, he was apprehended at Nerac, in 1698, and being convicted of having preached in defiance of the edicts, was broke upon the wheel. He was a man of great eloquence and learning, and wrote many books in favour of the Calviniſts: particularly, 1. The State of the reformed in France: 2. Letters to the Clergy in France: 3. Letters from the Proteſtants in France, to all other Proteſtants: and, 4. Remarks upon Amelote's tranſlation of the New Teſtament. The ſtates of Holland gave him a penſion of 400 florins; and, upon his death, added 600 more, (making 1000 in all) as a penſion to his widow.

BROUWER, Adrian, a famous Dutch painter, born in 1608, of poor parentage. Francis Hals, under whom he proved an inimitable artiſt, took him from begging in the ſtreets. His ſubjects were copied from nature, but taken from low life; ſuch as droll converſations, drunken brawls, boors at cards, or ſurgeons dreſſing the wounded. Brouwer was apprehended at Antwerp as a ſpy; where, being diſcovered by Rubens, he procured his liberty, took him home, clothed him, and endeavoured to acquaint the public with his merit; but the levity of his temper made him quit his benefactor; and he died in 1638, deſtroyed by a diſſolute courſe of life, in his 30th year.

(1.) * BROW. *n. ſ.* [*brona*, Sax.] 1. The arch of hair over the eye.

'Tis now the hour which all to reſt allow,
And ſleep ſits heavy upon every *brow*.
Dryden.

2. The forehead.—

She could have run, and waddled about;
For even the day before ſhe broke her *brow*.
Shakeſpeare.

So we ſome antique hero's ſtrength,
Learn by his launce's weight and length;
As theſe vaſt beams expreſs the beaſt,
Whoſe ſhady *brows* alive they dreſt. *Waller.*

3. The general air of the countenance.—

Then call them to our preſence, face to face,
And frowning *brow* to *brow*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Though all things foul would bear the *brows* of grace,
Yet grace muſt ſtill look ſo. *Shakeſpeare.*

4. The edge of any high place.—The earl, nothing diſmayed, came forwards that day into a little village, called Stoke, and there encamped that night, upon the *brow* or hanging of a hill. *Bacon.*—On the *brow* of the hill, beyond that city, they were ſomewhat perplexed by eſpying the French ambaſſador, with the king's coach and others attending him. *Wotton.*—

Then with fire, and hoſtile arms,
Fearleſs aſſault; and, to the *brow* of heav'n
Purſuing, drive them out from God and bliſs.
Milton.

(2.) BROW, or EYE-BROWS. See ANATOMY, § 567.

(3.) BROW, in geography, a place in Dumfrieſhire, in the pariſh of Ruthwell, where there is a chalybeate ſpring, the water of which is beneficial in ſtomachic complaints. When mixed with brandy, it aſſumes the colour of ink.

* *To* BROW. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To bound; to limit; to be at the edge of.—

Tending my flocks hard by i' th' hilly crofts,
That *brow* this bottom glade. *Milton.*

BROWALLIA, in botany, a genus of the angiſpermia order, in the didynamia claſs of plants. There are two ſpecies: viz.

1. BROWALLIA DEMISSA, with a ſingle flower upon each footſtalk. The ſeeds were ſent to Mr Miller from Panama. It uſually grows about two feet high, and ſpreads out into lateral branches on every ſide of the ſtalk, garniſhed with oval leaves which are entire, and have ſhort footſtalks. Towards the end of the branches, the flowers are produced ſingly upon pretty long footſtalks, ariſing from the wing of the leaf. Theſe are of a light blue colour, ſometimes inclining to a purple or red; and there are often 3 colours of flowers on the ſame plant. They flower in July, Auguſt, and September; and the ſeeds are ripe in 5 or 6 weeks after.

2. BROWALLIA ELATA, with one or many flowers on each foot-ſtalk, is a native of Peru. The ſtalk is twice the ſize of that of the firſt, and appears ſomewhat ſhrubby; the leaves upon the flower branches are ſmooth: the footſtalks have ſome with one flower, others with 3, and others with 5, of a deep violet colour. As both ſpecies of browallia are annual plants, they muſt be raiſed from ſeeds, which are to be ſown on a hot-bed; but they may be tranſplanted in June, into the borders of the flower garden; where, if the weather proves warm, they will flower and perfect ſeeds; but leaſt theſe ſhould fail, there ſhould be a plant or two kept in the ſtove to ſecure ſeeds.

BROW-ANTLER, among ſportſmen, the branch of a deer's horn next the tail.

* *To* BROWBEAT. *v. a.* [from *brow* and *beat*.] To depreſs with ſevere brows, and ſtern or lofty looks.—It is not for a magiſtrate to frown upon, and *browbeat* thoſe who are hearty and exact in their miniſtry; and, with a grave nod, to rail a reſolved zeal, want of prudence. *South.*—What man will voluntarily expoſe himſelf to the imperious *browbeatings* and ſcorns of great men? *L'Eſtrange.*—Count Tariff endeavoured to *browbeat* the plaintiff, while he was ſpeaking; but though he was not ſo impudent as the count, he was every whit as ſturdy. *Addiſon.*—I will not be *browbeaten* by the ſupercilious looks of my adverſaries. *Arbuthnot and Pope.*

BROWBEATING, *n. ſ.* The act of depreſſing with ſevere looks.

* BROWBOUND. *adj.* [from *brow* and *bound*.] Crowned; having the head encircled as with a diadem.—

In that day's feat,
He prov'd the beſt man i' th' field, and for his meed,
Was *brow-bound* with the oak. *Shakeſpeare.*

BROWERSHAVEN. See BROUERSHAVEN.

(1.) * BROWN. *adj.* [*brun*, Sax.] The name of a colour, compounded of black and any other colour.—*Brown*, in High Dutch, is called *braun*; in the Netherlands, *bruyn*; in French, *coleur brune*; in Italian *bruno*. *Peacham.*—I like the new tire within excellently, if the hair were a little *browner*. *Shakeſpeare.*—

From whence high Ithaca o'erlooks the floods,
Brown with o'ercharging ſhades and pendent woods. *Pope.*

Long untravell'd heaths,
With deſolation *brown*, he wanders waſte.
Thomſon.

(2.) BROWN, among dyers, painters, &c. a duſky colour inclining towards redneſs. Of this colour there are various ſhades or degrees, diſtinguiſhed by different appellations; ſuch as Spaniſh brown, a ſad brown, a tawny brown, the London brown, a clove brown, &c.—SPANISH BROWN is a dark dull red, of a horſe-fleſh colour. It is an earth; and is of great uſe among painters, being generally uſed as the firſt and priming colour that they lay upon any kind of timber-work in houſe-painting. That which is of the deepeſt colour, and freeſt from ſtones, is the beſt. Though this is of a dirty brown colour, yet it is much uſed, not to colour any garment, unleſs it be an old man's gown; but to ſhadow vermilion, or to lay upon any dark ground behind a picture, or to ſhadow yellow berries in the darkeſt places, when there is no lake, &c. It is beſt and brighteſt when burnt in the fire till it be red-hot; although, in colouring any hare, horſe, dog, or the like, it ſhould not be burnt: but, for other uſes, it is beſt when it is burnt; as for colouring wood, poſts, bodies of trees, or any thing elſe of wood, or any dark ground of a picture.

(3.) BROWN, in geography, a village in Somerſetſhire, near Carhampton.

(4.) BROWN, Edward, the ſon of Sir Thomas, (N. 9.) phyſician to king Charles II. and preſident of the royal college at London. He was born in and at his return publiſhed a brief account of his travels in Hungary, Servia, Bulgaria, Macedonia, Theſſaly, Auſtria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Friulia, &c. He alſo publiſhed an account of travels through a great part of Germany; and joined his name to thoſe of many other eminent men, in a tranſlation of Plutarch's lives. He was acquainted with Hebrew, was a critic in Greek, and no man of his age wrote better Latin. High Dutch, Italian, French, &c. he ſpoke and wrote with as much eaſe as his mother tongue. King Charles ſaid of him, that "he was as learned as any of the college, and as well-bred as any at court." He died Auguſt 27th 1708.

(5.) BROWN, George, Bp. of Dunkeld, flouriſhed about the end of the 14th century. He ſtudied grammar at Dundee and philoſophy at St Andrews; and was afterwards appointed chancellor of Aberdeen. Being ſent to Rome by king James III. on ſome buſineſs relative to the ſee of Glaſgow, he became acquainted with the college of cardinals, and particularly the vice-chancellor Roderick Borja, who, by his intereſt with Pope Sextus IV. got Brown raiſed to the ſee of Dunkeld. He was a man of learning and public ſpirit, but has been accuſed of ambition and rapacity. He got his dioceſe greatly enlarged; built Clunie caſtle, and began the ſtone bridge acroſs the Tay at Dunkeld; but only lived to ſee one arch completed. He died Jan. 14, 1514; and was ſucceeded in his biſhopric by the celebrated Gavin Douglas, the tranſlator of Virgil.

(6.) BROWN, John, D. D. a clergyman of the church of England, and an ingenious writer, was born at Rothbury, in 1715. His father John Brown, was a native of Scotland, of the Browns of Coalſtown near Haddington. Young John was ſent in 1732 to Cambridge, and entered of St John's college, under the tuition of Dr Tunſtall. After taking the degree of A. B. with great reputation, (his name being at the head of the liſt of *Wranglers*,) he received both deacon's and prieſt's orders, and was appointed minor canon and lecturer of the cathedral church. In 1739 he went to Cambridge to take his degree of A. M. In 1745 he diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a volunteer in the king's ſervice, and behaved with great intrepidity at the ſiege of Carliſle. After the defeat of the rebels, when ſeveral of them were tried at the aſſizes held at Carliſle in ſummer 1746, he preached at the cathedral church of that city two excellent diſcourſes, on the mutual connection between religious truth and civil freedom; and between ſuperſtition, tyranny, irreligion, and licentiouſneſs. Mr Brown's attachment to the Whig party procured him the friendſhip of Dr Oſbaldeſton, who was the only perſon that continued to be his friend through life; the peculiarities of Mr Brown's temper having produced quarrels with every one elſe. When Dr Oſbaldeſton was advanced to the ſee of Carliſle, he appointed Mr Brown one of his chaplains. Mr Brown wrote about this time a poem intitled *Honour*, inſcribed to lord viſcount Lonſdale. His next poetical production was his eſſay *on Satire*; which was of conſiderable advantage to him both in point of fame and profit. [illegible]

Allen, Esq; aved to him houſe he re- Brown pub- *iſtics of Lord* h Allen, Esq. ſe, though ſe- it. In 1754, rdwicke to the . In 1755, he ridge, and pub- hich, under the acted with con- liſhed, gave riſe ares. This tra- he acquaintance : favour he had . repreſented at d received by the famous *Eſtimate the Times*. The with was very flat- s of it having been ur. Its deſign was s, and ſelfiſh effe- ife marked the cha- out the effects and Several antagoniſts re neither deſtitute ugh Dr Brown him- ce, a clergyman of idid and decent ad- him. The teſtimo- to the effect which duct of the nation, is n. "When Marſhal at celebrated writer,) he capital of Minorca, l Byng with a ſtrong French fleet off the At this time there ap- *Eſtimate of the Man-* there was no leſs than ondon in the ſpace of 3 the author proves that entirely degenerated;— ;—that its inhabitants and hardy as in former liers had loſt their cou- d the ſenſibility of the duced the following con- ced, almoſt at one and the oaſts of France, and her rica, and America." In hed the 2d volume of his ıdditional remarks on nciples, and on their pub- n of this volume was, to re- e points formerly affirmed; s not explained; to reply to play the conſequences which om his principles. But un- or's ſelf-importance, which ſt volume, broke out in the violence. The conſequence himſelf to general cenſure; real excellencies of his work ed. The periodical critics, whom he had needleſsly abuſed, treated him with uncommon ſeverity; and ſuch a multitude of antagoniſts roſe againſt him, that he ſeems to have been deeply impreſſed, when he retired for a while into the country. From the country, however, he wrote, in a ſeries of letters to a noble friend, "*An Explanatory Defence of the Eſtimate of the Manners and Principles of the Times*; being an appendix to that work, occaſioned by the clamours lately raiſed againſt it among certain ranks of men." Though Dr Brown thus diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a political writer, he was advanced to no higher dignity in the church; only Dr Oſbaldeſton procured him the rectory of St Nicholas in Newcaſtle upon Tyne. In 1760, he publiſhed *an Additional Dialogue of the Dead, between Pericles and Ariſtides*; being a ſequel to a dialogue of lord Lyttleton's between Pericles and Coſmo. One deſign of this additional dialogue was to vindicate the meaſures of Mr Pitt, againſt whoſe adminiſtration lord Lyttleton had thrown out ſome hints. Dr Brown's next publication was *The cure of Saul*, a ſacred ode; which was followed by "A Diſſertation on the Riſe, Union, and Power, the Progreſſions, Separations, and Corruptions of Poetry and Muſic;" both in 1763. A number of ſtrictures on this laſt piece were publiſhed; and the Doctor defended himſelf in a treatiſe intitled *Remarks on ſome Obſervations on Dr Brown's Diſſertations on Poetry and Muſic*. In 1764 he publiſhed, in 8vo, "The Hiſtory of the Riſe and Progreſs of Poetry through its ſeveral Species;" which is merely the ſubſtance of the Diſſertation. The ſame year he publiſhed a volume of ſermons, dedicated to his patron Bp. Oſbaldeſton. In the beginning of 1765, he publiſhed *Thoughts on Civil Liberty, Licentiouſneſs, and Faction*. At the concluſion of this work the author preſcribed a mode of education, upon which Dr Prieſtley made remarks at the end of his "Eſſay on the Courſe of a liberal Education for civil and active Life." The ſame year he publiſhed a ſermon *On the Female Character and Education*, preached 16th May 1765, before the guardians of the aſylum for deſerted female orphans. His laſt publication was in 1766, "A Letter to the rev. Dr Lowth, occaſioned by his late Letter to the Right Rev. Author of the Divine Legation of Moſes." This was occaſioned by Dr Lowth's having *clearly*, though *indirectly*, pointed at Dr Brown as one of the extravagant adulators of biſhop Warburton. Beſides theſe works, Dr Brown publiſhed a poem on Liberty, and 2 or 3 anonymous pamphlets. At the end of ſeveral of his later writings, he advertiſed his deſign of publiſhing *Chriſtian Principles of Legiſlation*, but was prevented from executing it, (though the work appears to have been completed,) by the circumſtances now to be narrated. In 1765, while Dr Dumareſq reſided in Ruſſia, to which he had been invited in 1764, to give his advice for the regulating of ſeveral ſchools, which the empreſs intended to erect, he received a letter from a lady of diſtinguiſhed character in England, recommending Dr Brown as a proper correſpondent on the occaſion. Dr Dumareſq then wrote to Dr Brown, telling him the occaſion of his application, and the difficulties that occurred. He had imagined that nothing

more would be wanted than what concerned claſſical learning, and a general foundation for the ſciences. But on his arrival he found that a much more extenſive ſcheme was required; and ſuch as included matters military and naval, civil and commercial. Having ſtated his difficulties in executing this plan to Dr Brown, the latter propoſed a ſcheme ſtill more extenſive; and which was no leſs than a general plan of civilization throughout the whole Ruſſian empire. The Doctor's letter was laid before the empreſs, who was ſo pleaſed with it that ſhe immediately invited him to Ruſſia. He accepted the invitation, and procured the king's leave to go; 1000l. were ordered for his expence, and he actually received 200l. But when he was on the point of ſetting out, an attack of the gout and rheumatiſm, to which he had been long ſubject, ſo impaired his health, that his friends diſſuaded him from going. The money was returned excepting 97l. 6s. which had been expended in neceſſaries for the intended journey. But though he thus declined the journey, a long letter which he afterwards wrote to the empreſs, and which does honour to his abilities, ſhows that he had not abandoned his intention of being ſerviceable. The affair, however, greatly agitated his mind; and his being obliged at length to give up the journey, muſt have been no ſmall diſappointment to a man of his ſanguine temper. This diſappointment, concurring with the general ſtate of his health, was followed by a dejection of ſpirits; in conſequence of which he put an end to his life on the 23d of Sept. 1766, in the 51ſt year of his age. On the morning of that day his ſervant came into his bed-chamber, and aſked him what ſort of night he had had? to which he replied, "A pretty good one." The ſervant having quitted the bedſide for a few minutes, heard a noiſe in the Doctor's throat, which he imagined to be owing to ſome obſtruction occaſioned by phlegm. Going to aſſiſt his maſter, he found him ſpeechleſs, and bleeding profuſely, having cut the jugular vein with a razor; and this he had done ſo effectually, that death ſpeedily enſued. Mrs Gilpin of Carliſle, ſoon after Dr Brown's deceaſe, wrote in the following terms in a letter to a friend. "His diſtemper was a frenzy, to which he had by fits been long ſubject; to my own knowledge above 30 years. Had it not been for Mr Fariſh frequently, and once for myſelf, the ſame event would have happened to him long ago. It was no premeditated purpoſe in him; for he abhorred the thought of ſelf murder; and in bitterneſs of ſoul expreſſed his fears to me, that one time or another ſome ready miſchief might preſent itſelf to him, at a time when he was wholly deprived of his reaſon."

(7.) Brown, John, M. D. author of the Brunonian or new system of medicine, was born A. D. 1735, in the pariſh of Bonkle in Berwickſhire, in a village near Dunſe. His parents were people of honeſt characters, but far from being in affluence. His father dying, while he was young, and his mother's ſecond huſband being a weaver, it was intended to breed him to the ſame profeſſion, but young Brown having already given evidence of uncommon genius, as well as intenſe application, while attending the grammar-ſchool of Dunſe, under the celebrated Mr Cruickſhanks, a lady in that neighbourhood took him under her patronage, and ſent him to the Univerſity of Edinburgh to ſtudy divinity; being determined that ſuch a prodigy of genius, as he was even then eſteemed, ſhould not be thrown away upon a mechanical employment. This lady as well as Mr Brown's parents being Seceders, it was reſolved that his abilities ſhould be exerted in favour of the principles of the ſeceſſion, as ſoon as his ſtudies were completed. The pious intentions however of this benevolent lady were fruſtrated by an incident, which Dr Beddoes relates at large, with ſuitable comments, in his obſervations, introductory to the laſt edit. of *Dr Brown's Elem. of Med.* (p. xlii—xlv.) The circumſtance was ſimply this. He was ſummoned before the kirk ſeſſion, for having heard ſermon in the eſtabliſhed church, and unwilling to ſubmit to eccleſiaſtical cenſure, for this venial fault, he choſe rather to leave his old friends, and join the eſtabliſhment. As yet, however, his zeal for religion had not abated, and the deiſtical writings of Mr Hume making ſome noiſe about this time, he expreſſed no ſmall indignation againſt them and their author; although not many years afterwards he became a complete convert to that faſhionable and ſtill too prevalent ſyſtem. He never went farther in divinity, than delivering one probationary ſermon in the hall of the Univerſity. He returned to Dunſe in 1758, and acted for a year as uſher or aſſiſtant to his late teacher; under whom he gave freſh evidences of his prodigious memory, as well as critical judgment in the Latin language. In the end of 1754, he ſettled in Edinburgh with the double view of teaching Latin and ſtudying phyſic. He addreſſed a letter in Latin to each of the medical profeſſors, all of whom, being apprized of his merits as a claſſical ſcholar, preſented him with tickets of admiſſion to their lectures gratis. But none of them ſeemed to entertain a higher opinion of his claſſical powers, than the late celebrated Dr Cullen, who not only employed him as a private inſtructor in his own family, but took every opportunity of recommending him to others, particularly to ſtudents, who wiſhed to graduate, but were diffident of their knowledge of the learned language. From ſuch pupils Mr Brown received very genteel fees, not only for *grinding* them, as it is called, (i. e. for preparing them to give proper anſwers, in claſſical Latin, at the public examinations,) but alſo for tranſlating their inaugural diſſertations, and ſometimes for compoſing them. His fame and his emoluments now increaſed ſo rapidly, that finding his income could enable him to maintain a family genteelly, he, in 1765, married Miſs Lamond, a young lady deſcended from a reſpectable line of burgeſſes in Edinburgh, but without any fortune. Mrs Brown not long after taking up a boarding-houſe, her huſband's high reputation ſoon crouded it with reſpectable boarders. But whether it was, that, from perhaps too genteel a ſpirit, œconomy was not ſufficiently attended to, or that ſome of the ſtudents, after running deep in arrears, went off without paying, or from theſe and other cauſes conjoined, it is certain, that little profit was ultimately made of this branch of buſineſs. One gentleman in particular

ticular went off indebted to Mr Brown above L. 100, of which he never received a ſhilling, and many others owing him ſmaller ſums. Theſe loſſes obliged Mr Brown at laſt to ſtop payment about 1770. About this time, too, that warmth of attachment which had hitherto ſubſiſted between him and Dr Cullen, and which was ſo great that he had named three of his children after the Dr and his family, began to cool. For this various reaſons have been aſſigned; ſuch as diſappointment of a profeſſor's chair in the univerſity, and of a ſeat in a certain literary ſociety, in both which caſes, Dr Cullen's influence is ſaid to have been exerted rather in oppoſition to, than in favour of Mr Brown's applications. Others aſcribe the rupture to Mr Brown's diſcovery and promulgation of his new doctrine, (See BRUNONIAN SYSTEM,) which they alledge was the ſole cauſe of Dr Cullen's oppoſition on theſe occaſions. Be that as it may, it is certain, that Mr Brown's income was by no means increaſed by his diſcovery. It was not to be expected, indeed, that a ſet of learned gentlemen would be ready to acknowledge all the former theories of the ſcience they profeſſed to teach, to have been erroneous, and at once become converts to his new doctrine. Neither could it be expected, that they would adviſe their pupils to apply for inſtruction in the dead languages, or for the tranſlation of their inaugural diſſertations, to the author of a new *medical hereſy*, ſo to ſpeak. Nor, indeed, did the diſreſpectful manner, in which Mr Brown now ſpoke of the medical profeſſors, in the lectures which he gave on his new ſyſtem, tend to conciliate their favour. "Like other reformers, (as Dr Beddoes juſtly remarks, p. lxiii.) who had to wreſtle with powerful oppoſition, he committed and ſuſtained injuſtice. Like them too, where his ſyſtem was concerned, he gradually loſt his ſenſe of equity." His claſſes were therefore never attended by very great numbers of ſtudents, nor were his patients by any means ſo numerous, as might have been expected, from the ſurpriſing cures he performed upon ſome individuals, who applied to him in deſperate caſes, where the ordinary practice had failed. No phyſician, however, or public lecturer, was ever more beloved by his patients and pupils than Brown. The gratitude of the former, for being delivered from the gates of death, or what is worſe than death, *lunacy*, was inexpreſſible; and the attachment of the latter to his perſon, family, and doctrine, was beyond precedent. Of this they gave various inſtances. Their zeal for the doctrine, indeed, often carried them to the moſt imprudent lengths; of which Dr Jones has recorded, and Dr Beddoes quotes, an evidence, in the clandeſtine cure made, or attempted to be made, of a Mr Macſon. Of their attachment to his perſon, we ſhall give one inſtance out of many. In the ſeſſion of 1779-80, a few of them, unknown to Brown, collected money among themſelves, to pay the uſual fees of a diploma from the univerſity of St Andrews; (where his merits, both as a medical teacher and linguiſt, were too well known, to render any examination neceſſary,) and ſurpriſed him, upon preſenting it to him, by thus making him a DOCTOR without his knowledge. Had not ſuch a circumſtance happened, it is highly probable he would have died without a degree, as he reſembled the celebrated anatomiſt, Mr John Hunter, in this reſpect, as well as in ſome others, that he paid no great reſpect to univerſities. But to ſhow that he was not inſenſible of the honour done him by his pupils, he took them over to St Andrews, and gave them and the profeſſors a genteel treat; upon which occaſion, while the glaſs and ſong were circulating freely after dinner, he wrote a ſhort but elegant and comprehenſive inaugural diſſertation, which he preſented to the profeſſors, ſaying "it was improper to take a degree without writing a theſis." And while he was writing it, he gave a proof how little trouble the compoſition coſt him, by correcting one of the ſongſters for ſinging an erroneous note in an old Scots ſong.—In the courſe of the year 1780, he publiſhed the firſt edition of his *Elementa Medicinæ*, in one vol. 12mo, dedicated to Sir John Eliot, M. D. and in 1784, he reprinted it, (but without any dedication,) in 2 vols 8vo, with conſiderable alterations and large additions. The Dr's affairs now haſtened to a criſis. His income not being equal to his expenditure, he was obliged, in ſpring 1785, to take ſhelter from creditors in the abbey of Holyroodhouſe: and, though a ſettlement was ſoon obtained with moſt of them, yet one more rigorous than the reſt incarcerated him in the Canongate jail, in Jan. 1786. On both theſe occaſions he was attended and ſympathiſed with by his pupils; who, upon his coming out of jail, gave a new proof of their attachment, by propoſing the plan of his clinical lectures, for which they took out freſh tickets. Dr Brown, in his greateſt diſtreſs, had a ſpirit above making application to his monied friends. The late Lord Gardenſtone, however, having heard of his diſtreſs, generouſly enabled him to execute the plan he had long had in contemplation, of ſettling in London, by preſenting him with 160 guineas. The Dr accordingly went up in the end of 1786; after having publiſhed his *Obſervations on the New and Old Syſtems of Medicine*: And having performed ſome capital cures upon patients who were able to reward him liberally, he was enabled within 4 months after his arrival, to ſend for his wife and family. But his income being uncertain, and his family expences very great, he was incarcerated in King's Bench priſon; though he was not long confined. In 1788, he publiſhed his *Elements of Medicine* in Engliſh, a work long wiſhed for, as the original Latin is in many parts ſo elegant, or, as other alledge, ſo *obſcure*, that it was thought nobody could do juſtice to the tranſlation but himſelf, although Dr Beddoes has ſince ventured to correct the Dr's tranſlation in his 2d edition. Dr Brown did not long ſurvive this labour, which he executed in a ſhorter time than the moſt of ordinary amanuenſes could have copied the work; and, contrary to his uſual practice, without drinking any thing ſtronger than water with a very little wine in it. Whether he had exhauſted his ſtrength by this change of regimen, or whether, (as is more probable, upon the principles of his own ſyſtem,) his uſual doſe of laudanum was rendered too great for the ſtate of his excitement, (ſo much lowered by his late abſtemiouſneſs,) or the accumulated ſtate of his excitability, (See BRUNON-

AN, § 4, and EXCITABILITY, it is difficult to say; but it is certain, that, after giving an introductory lecture on the 6th of Oct. 1788, and going to bed ſeemingly in ordinary health, he was found dead next morning. He was then in his 53d year. He left a widow and 8 children, 4 ſons and 4 daughters, having had 13 in all. As to Dr Brown's character, we will not ſay, that he was without foibles, but his good properties, amongſt thoſe who were beſt acquainted with him, greatly overbalanced them. "He was," ſays a writer in the Analytical Review, "a man of infinite goodneſs of heart."—"He poſſeſſed a great mind, that ſupported him in all his diſtreſſes. He deſpiſed riches; deteſted every thing baſe, and poſſeſſed ſuch openneſs of heart as to be liable to be taken in by every knave." The writer of this article can add, from perſonal knowledge, that he never knew a fonder parent, or a more affectionate huſband. Lord Gardenſtone comprehended much in few words, when he ſtiled Dr Brown, "a man of primitive manners." Dr Brown was twice elected preſident of the Royal Medical Society in 1776 and 1780. He was alſo elected Latin Secretary to the ſociety of Scots Antiquaries: and he was the founder of a Lodge of Free Maſons, ſtiled the ROMAN EAGLE, inſtituted in 1784, upon a new and original plan, never before attempted or thought of. His deſign was to conjoin inſtruction with amuſement, by improving the brethren, (who at firſt were moſtly ſtudents of phyſic,) in ſpeaking Latin with eaſe and fluency; *that* being the only language ſpoken in the lodge, excepting by the interpreters, who explained what was ſaid, when viſitors came in. A funeral meeting of this lodge was held in honour of Dr Brown on the 30th Jan. 1789, with ſuitable muſic, and all the other ſolemnities uſual on ſuch occaſions. An elegant funeral oration in Latin was delivered from the chair, by Thomas M'Grugar Eſq; advocate, then maſter of the lodge; and an interpretation of it read by the ſecretary. A copy of the oration is preſerved in the Scots Magazine. Dr Beddoes mentions, (p. xcix.) from Dr M'Donnel, that Dr Brown "deſigned a Latin elementary treatiſe of morality on philoſophical principles—*Elementa Morum*."—"We may fairly preſume, (he adds) that it would have been original, luminous, and profound?"—and he concludes, "the failure of Brown's deſign may be regretted as an heavy loſs to literature." From this concluſion we cannot help expreſſing our diſſent. Much as we admire Dr Brown's abilities, we do not think the world ſtands in need of any new ſyſtem of morals, eſpecially from authors of his particular way of thinking. The morality of the preſent age has not improved ſince the publication of the Ethics of Meſſrs Hume, Voltaire, and Rouſſeau. Dr Brown uſed to alledge, that "a principle of morals was not yet diſcovered;" but he never committed a greater miſtake. It was diſcovered nearly 1800 years ago, not by a great man—not even by a *philoſopher*—but by one, who though born and educated in one of the loweſt ſtations of life, proved himſelf, by *this* alone, (were there no other proofs of ſuperior excellency,) ſuperior to all the philoſophers that ever exiſted. "Do to as ye would that others ſhould do to you," is an infallible rule of morality, applicable in all poſſible caſes, and intelligible by the moſt ignorant.

(8.) BROWN, Iſaac Hawkins, an ingenious Engliſh poet, born at Burton upon Trent, Jan. 21. 1705-6; of which place his father was the miniſter. He received his grammatical inſtitution firſt at Lichfield, then at Weſtminſter; whence, at 18 years of age, he was removed to Trinity college, Cambridge. He remained there till he had taken the degree of M. A. and about 1727, ſettled in Lincoln's Inn, where he devoted more of his time to the muſes than to the law. He wrote ſeveral poems, particularly one on *Deſign and Beauty*, which he addreſſed to Mr Highmore the painter, for whom he had a great friendſhip; and *The Pipe of Tobacco*; in imitation of Cibber, Ambroſe Philips, Thomſon, Young, Pope, and Swift, who were then all living. This is reckoned one of the moſt pleaſing and popular of his performances. In 1743-4, he married the daughter of Dr Trimnell, archdeacon of Leiceſter. He was choſen twice to ſerve in parliament, in 1744, and 1748; both times for the borough of Wenlock in Shropſhire, near which place he had a conſiderable eſtate, left by his maternal grandfather, Iſaac Hawkins, Eſq. In 1754, he publiſhed what was deemed his capital work, *De Animi Immortalitate*, in two books; in which, beſides a moſt judicious choice of matter and arrangement, he is thought to have ſhown himſelf not a ſervile but happy imitator of Lucretius and Virgil. The great popularity of this poem produced ſeveral Engliſh tranſlations of it; the beſt of which is that by Soame Jenyns, Eſq. printed in his *Miſcellanies*. Mr Brown intended to have added a 3d part, but left only a fragment. This excellent perſon died after a lingering illneſs, in 1760, aged 55. In 1768, his ſon Hawkins Brown, Eſq obliged the world with an elegant edition of his father's poems in large 8vo, to which is prefixed a print of the author, from a painting of Mr Highmore, engraved by Ravenet.

(9.) BROWN, Robert, a ſchiſmatic divine, the founder of the BROWNISTS, a numerous ſect in the reign of Q. Elizabeth. He was the ſon of Mr Anthony Brown of Tolthrop in Rutlandſhire; whoſe father obtained the ſingular privilege of wearing his cap in the king's preſence, by a charter of Henry VIII. Robert was educated at Cambridge, and was afterwards ſchoolmaſter in Southwark. About 1580, he began to promulgate his principles of diſſent from the eſtabliſhed church; and the following year preached at Norwich, where he ſoon accumulated a numerous congregation. He was violent in his abuſe of the church of England; pretended to divine inſpiration, and that he alone was the ſure guide to heaven. His ſect daily increaſing, Dr Freake biſhop of Norwich, with other eccleſiaſtical commiſſioners, called him before them. He was inſolent to the court, and they committed him to the cuſtody of the ſheriff's officer; but he was releaſed at the interceſſion of lord treaſurer Buleigh, to whom he was related. Brown then left the kingdom; and, with permiſſion of the ſtates, ſettled at Middleburg in Zealand; where he formed a church after his own plan, and preached without moleſtation. In 1585, we find him again in England; Cambridge.

for in that year he was cited to appear before Abp. Whitgift; and ſeeming to comply with the eſtabliſhed church, was, by lord Burleigh, ſent home to his father: but, relapſing into his former principles, his aged parent was obliged to turn him out of his houſe. He now wandered about for ſome time, and endured great hardſhips. At laſt he fixed at Northampton; where, labouring with too much indiſcretion to increaſe his eſt, he was cited by the biſhop of Peterborough, nd, refuſing to appear, was excommunicated or contempt. The ſolemnity of this cenſure effected his reformation. He moved for abſolution, hich he obtained, and from that time became a lutiful member of the church of England. This appened about 1590; and, in a ſhort time after, Brown was preferred to a rectory in Northamptonſhire, where he kept a curate to do his duty, and where he might probably have died in peace: but having ſome diſpute with the conſtable of his pariſh, he proceeded to blows; and was afterwards ſo inſolent to the juſtice, that he committed him to Northampton jail, where he died n 1730, aged 80. Thus ended the life of the famous Robert Brown; the greateſt part of which was a ſeries of oppoſition and perſecution. He boaſted on his death-bed, that he had been confined in no leſs than 32 different priſons. He wrote "A treatiſe of reformation without tarrying for any, and of the wickedneſs of thoſe teachers which will not reform themſelves and their charge, &c. by me Robert Brown;" and two others, making together a thin 4to, publiſhed at Middleburg, in 1582.

(10.) BROWN, Simon, a diſſenting miniſter, of uncommon talents and ſingular misfortunes, born at Shepton-Mallet in Somerſetſhire, in 1680. Excelling in grammatical learning, he early became qualified for the miniſtry, and actually began to preach before he was 20. He was firſt called to be a paſtor at Portſmouth, and afterwards removed to the Old Jewry, where he was admired for a number of years. But the death of his wife and only ſon, in 1723, affected him ſo as to deprive him of his reaſon; and he became from that time loſt to himſelf, to his family, and to the world. His congregation at the Old Jewry, in expectation of his recovery, delayed for ſome time to fill his poſt; but at length all hopes being over, Mr Chandler was appointed to ſucceed him in 1725. This double misfortune affected him at firſt in a manner little different from diſtraction, but afterwards ſunk him into a ſettled melancholy. He quitted the duties of his function, and would not be perſuaded to join in any act of worſhip, public or private. Being urged by his friends for a reaſon of this extraordinary change, at which they expreſſed the utmoſt aſtoniſhment, he told them that "he had fallen under the ſenſible diſpleaſure of God, who had cauſed his rational ſoul gradually to periſh, and left him only an animal life in common with brutes: that, though he retained the human ſhape, and the faculty of ſpeaking in a manner that appeared to others rational, he had all the while no more notion of what he ſaid than a parrot; that it was therefore profane in him to pray, and incongruous to be preſent at the prayers of others;" and very conſiſtently with this, he conſidered himſelf no longer as a moral agent, or ſubject of either reward or puniſhment. In this way of thinking and talking he unalterably and obſtinately perſiſted to the end of his life; though he afterwards ſuffered, and even requeſted, prayers to be made for him. Some time after he retired to Shepton-Mallet, and though in his retirement he was perpetually contending, that his powers of reaſon and imagination were gone, yet he was as conſtantly exerting both with much activity and vigour. He amuſed himſelf ſometimes with tranſlating parts of the ancient Greek and Latin poets into Engliſh verſe: he compoſed little pieces for the uſe of children; An Engliſh Grammar and Spelling Book; An Abſtract of the Scripture Hiſtory, and A Collection of Fables, both in metre; and with much learning he brought together into a ſhort compaſs all the *Themata* of the Greek and Latin tongues, and alſo compiled a Dictionary to each of thoſe works, to render the learning of theſe languages more eaſy and compendious. Of theſe performances none have been made public. But what ſhowed the ſtrength and vigour of his underſtanding, while he was bemoaning the loſs of it, were two works compoſed during the two laſt years of his life, in defence of Chriſtianity, againſt Woolſton and Tindal.—He wrote an anſwer to Woolſton's fifth Diſcourſe on the Miracles of our Saviour, intitled, *A fit rebuke for a ludicrous Infidel*, with a preface concerning the proſecution of ſuch writers by the civil power. The preface contains a vigorous plea for liberty, and is ſtrongly againſt proſecutions in matters of religion; and in the Anſwer, Woolſton is as well managed as he was by any of his refuters, and more in his own way too. His book againſt Tindal was called *A Defence of the Religion of Nature and the Chriſtian Revelation*, againſt the defective account of the one and the exceptions againſt the other, in a book intitled, *Chriſtianity as old as the Creation*; and it is allowed to be as good a one as that controverſy produced.—He intended to dedicate it to Queen Caroline; but as the unhappy ſtate of his mind appeared in the dedication, his friends ſuppreſſed it. The following is a copy which was preſerved as a curioſity. "Madam, Of all the extraordinary things that have been rendered to your royal hands ſince your firſt happy arrival in Britain, it may be boldly ſaid what now beſpeaks your majeſty's acceptance is the chief. Not in itſelf indeed; it is a trifle unworthy your exalted rank, and what will hardly prove an entertaining amuſement to one of your majeſty's deep penetration, exact judgment, and fine taſte; but on account of the author, who is the firſt being of the kind, and yet without a name. He was once a man, and of ſome little name; but of no worth, as his preſent unparalleled caſe makes but too manifeſt: for by the immediate hand of an avenging God, his very thinking ſubſtance has for more than 7 years been continually waſting away, till it is wholly periſhed out of him, if it be not utterly come to nothing. None, no, not the leaſt remembrance of its very ruins remains; not the ſhadow of an idea is left; nor any ſenſe, ſo much as one ſingle one, perfect or imperfect, whole or diminiſhed, ever did appear to a mind within him, or was perceived by it. Such a preſent

ſent from ſuch a thing, however worthleſs in itſelf, may not be wholly unacceptable to your majeſty, the author being ſuch as hiſtory cannot parallel; and if the fact, which is real, and no fiction or wrong conceit, obtains credit, it muſt be recorded as the moſt memorable, and indeed aſtoniſhing, even in the reign of George II. that a tract, compoſed by ſuch a thing, was preſented to the illuſtrious Caroline; his royal conſort needs not be added; fame, if I am not miſinformed, will tell that with pleaſure to all ſucceeding times. He has been informed, that your majeſty's piety is as genuine and eminent as your excellent qualities are great and conſpicuous. This can indeed be truly known to the great Searcher of hearts only. He alone, who can look into them, can diſcern if they are ſincere, and the main intention correſponds with the appearance; and your majeſty cannot take it amiſs if ſuch an author hints, that his ſecret approbation is of infinitely greater value than the commendation of men, who may be eaſily miſtaken, and are too apt to flatter their ſuperiors.—But, if he has been told the truth, ſuch a caſe as his will certainly ſtrike your majeſty with aſtoniſhment; and may raiſe that commiſeration in your royal breaſt, which he has in vain endeavoured to excite in thoſe of his friends: who, by the moſt unreaſonable and ill-founded conceit in the world, have imagined, that a thinking being could for ſeven years together live a ſtranger to its own powers, exerciſes, operations, and ſtate; and to what the great God has been doing in it and to it. If your majeſty, in your moſt retired addreſs to the King of kings, ſhould think of ſo ſingular a caſe, you may perhaps make it your devout requeſt, that the reign of your beloved ſovereign and conſort be renowned to all poſterity by the recovery of a ſoul now in the utmoſt ruin, the reſtoration of one utterly loſt, at preſent amongſt men. And ſhould this caſe affect your royal breaſt, you will recommend it to the piety and prayers of all the truly devout who have the honour to be known to your majeſty: many ſuch doubtleſs there are, though courts are not uſually the places where the devout reſort, or where devotion reigns. And it is not improbable, that multitudes of the pious throughout the land may take a caſe to heart, that under your majeſty's patronage comes thus recommended. Could ſuch a favour as this reſtoration be obtained from heaven by the prayers of your majeſty, with what tranſport of gratitude would the recovered being throw himſelf at your majeſty's feet, and, adoring the divine power and grace, profeſs himſelf, Madam, your majeſty's moſt obliged and dutiful ſervant, SIMON BROWN."—The above pieces were publiſhed by Dr W. Harris, who, in an advertiſement to the reader, recommends the afflicted caſe of the author, under a deep and peculiar melancholy, to the compaſſion and prayers of all his friends, and every ſerious Chriſtian. Mr Brown ſurvived the publication of this laſt work a very ſhort time. A complication of diſtempers, contracted by his ſedentary life, (for he could not be prevailed on to take air and exerciſe) brought on a mortification, which put a period to his labours and ſorrows about the end of 1732. He was unqueſtionably a man of uncommon abilities and learning: his management of Woolſton ſhowed him to have alſo vivacity and wit: and, notwithſtanding that ſtrange conceit which poſſeſſed him, it is remarkable that he never appeared feeble or abſurd, except upon the ſubject of his frenzy. Before he was ill, he publiſhed ſome ſingle Sermons, with a Collection of Hymns and Spiritual Songs. He left ſeveral daughters.

(11.) BROWN, Sir Thomas, an eminent phyſician and author, was born at London, Oct. 19th 1605. Having ſtudied at Winchester and Oxford, he travelled through France and Italy; and returning by Holland, took his degree of M. D. at Leyden. In 1626, he ſettled at Norwich: and in 1637 was incorporated as M. D. at Oxford.—His *Religio Medici* made a great noiſe; and being tranſlated into Latin, inſtantly ſpread throughout Europe, and gained him a prodigious reputation; it was then tranſlated into almoſt every language in Europe. This book has been cenſured by ſome as tending to infidelity, and even atheiſm; while others, with more reaſon, have applauded the piety, as well as the parts and learning, of the author. The rev. Mr Granger obſerves, that among other peculiarities in this book, he ſpeaks of the ultimate act of love as a folly beneath a philoſopher; and ſays that he could be content that we might procreate, like trees, without conjunction: but, after this, he deſcended from his philoſophic dignity, and married an agreeable woman. His Treatiſe *on Vulgar Errours* was read with avidity; he alſo publiſhed *Hydriotaphia*, or a Diſcourſe of Sepulchral Urns lately found in Norfolk. His reputation in his profeſſion was equal to his fame for learning; and therefore the college of phyſicians elected him an honorary member; and king Charles II. coming to Norwich in 1671, knighted him, with ſingular marks of favour.—He died on his birth day, in 1682, leaving ſeveral MSS. behind him, which were publiſhed, as the *poſthumous works of the learned Sir Thomas Brown, Knt. M. D.*

(12.) BROWN, Sir William, a noted phyſician and multifarous writer, was ſettled originally at Lynn in Norfolk, where he publiſhed a tranſlation of Dr Gregory's Elements of Catoptrics and Dioptrics; to which he added, 1. A Method for finding the Foci of all Specula, as well as Lenſes, univerſally; as alſo magnifying or leſſening a given Object by a given Speculum or Lens, in any aſſigned Proportion. 2. A Solution of thoſe Problems which Dr Gregory has left undemonſtrated. 3. A particular Account of Microſcopes and Teleſcopes, from Mr Huygens; with the Diſcoveries made by Catoptrics and Dioptrics.—Having acquired a competence by his profeſſion, he removed to Queen's Square, Ormond Street, London, where he reſided till his death. By his lady, who died in 1763, he had one daughter, grandmother to Sir Martin Brown Folkes, bart. He wrote a great number of lively eſſays, in proſe and verſe, which he printed and circulated among his friends. The active part taken by Sir William Brown in the conteſt with the licentiates, in 1763, occaſioned his being introduced by Mr Foote in his *Devil upon Two Sticks*. Upon Foote's exact repreſentation of him with his identical wig and coat, tall figure, and glaſs ſtiffly applied to his

ye, he ſent him a card complimenting him on having ſo happily repreſented him; but as he had forgot his muff, he had ſent him his own. This good-natured method of reſenting diſarmed Foote. He uſed to frequent the annual ball at the ladies boarding-ſchool, Queen's Square, as a neighbour, and of the company of ſprightly young folks. A dignitary of the church being there one day to ſee his daughter dance, and finding this upright figure stationed there, told him he believed he was Herippus *redivivus*, who lived *anhelitu puellarum*. When he lived at Lynn, a pamphlet was written againſt him: he nailed it up againſt his own door. He died in 1774, aged 82; and by his will left two prize medals to be annually contended for by the Cambridge poets.

(13.) BROWN, Thomas, "of facetious memory," as he is ſtyled by Addiſon, was the ſon of a farmer in Shropſhire; and entered in Chriſt-church college, Oxford, where he ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his uncommon attainments in literature.—But the irregularities of his life not ſuffering him to continue long there, he, inſtead of returning to his father, went to London to ſeek his fortune. His companions, however, being more delighted with his humour, than ready to relieve his neceſſities he had recourſe to the uſual refuge of half-ſtarved wits, ſcribbling for bread; and publiſhed a great variety of poems, letters, dialogues, &c. full of humour and erudition, but often indelicate. Though a good-natured man, he had one pernicious quality, which was, rather to loſe his friend than his joke. Towards the end of Tom Brown's life, he was in favour with the earl of Dorſet, who invited him to dinner on a Chriſtmas day, with Mr Dryden, and ſome other gentlemen celebrated for their ingenuity; when Mr Brown, to his agreeable ſurpriſe found a bank note of 50 l. under his plate, and Mr Dryden, at the ſame time, was preſented with another of 100 l. Mr Brown died in 1704; and was interred in the cloyſter of Weſtminſter abbey, near the remains of Mrs Behn, with whom he was intimate. His works, conſiſting of Dialogues, Eſſays, Satires, &c. have been printed both in 8vo and 12mo, making 4 vols.

(14) BROWN, Ulyſſes Maximilian, a celebrated general of the 18th century, was ſon of Ulyſſes, baron Brown and Camus, colonel of a regiment of cuiraſſiers in the emperor's ſervice, and deſcended from one of the moſt ancient families in Ireland. He was born at Bazil in 1705; and having finiſhed his firſt ſtudies at Limerick in Ireland, was, in 1715, ſent for into Hungary, by count George Brown, his uncle, colonel of a regiment of infantry. He was preſent at the famous battle of Belgrade, in 1717. Next year he followed his uncle into Italy, who made him continue his ſtudies in the Clementine College at Rome, till 1721, when he was ſent to Prague to learn the civil law. At the end of 1723, he became captain in his uncle's regiment; and in 1725, lieutenant-colonel. In 1730, he went into Corſica with a battalion of his regiment; and contributed greatly to the taking of Calanſara, where he received a conſiderable wound in his thigh. In 1732, the emperor made him chamberlain. He was raiſed to the rank of colonel in 1734; and diſtinguiſhed himſelf ſo much in the war of Italy, eſpecially at the battles of Parma and Guaſtalla, and in burning, in the preſence of the French army, the bridge which the marſhal de Noailles had cauſed to be thrown over the Adige, that he was made general in 1736. In 1737, he favoured the retreat of the army, after the unhappy battle of Banjuluca in Boſnia, by an excellent manœuvre, and ſaved all the baggage. His admirable conduct upon this occaſion was rewarded by his obtaining a ſecond regiment of infantry. At his return to Vienna, in 1739, the emperor Charles VI. raiſed him to the rank of general field-marſhal-lieutenant, and made him counſellor in the aulic council of war. After the death of that prince, the king of Pruſſia entering Sileſia, count Brown with a ſmall body of troops, diſputed the country with him inch by inch. He ſignalized himſelf on ſeveral other occaſions; and, in 1743, the queen of Hungary made him a privy counſellor, at her coronation in Bohemia. He at length paſſed into Bavaria, where he commanded the van-guard of the Auſtrian army; ſeized Deckendorf, with a great quantity of baggage; and obliged the French to abandon the banks of the Danube, which the Auſtrian army paſſed in full ſecurity. The ſame year, the queen of Hungary ſent him to Worms, as her plenipotentiary to the queen of Britain; where he put the laſt hand to the treaty of alliance between the courts of Vienna, London, and Turin. In 1744, he followed prince Lobkowitz into Italy; took Veletri, in ſpite of the ſuperior numbers of the enemy, overthrew ſeveral regiments, and took many priſoners. The following year he was recalled into Bavaria, where he took Wilhofen by aſſault, and received a dangerous ſhot in the thigh. The ſame year he was made general of the artillery; and in Jan. 1746, marched for Italy at the head of a body of 18,000 men. He then drove the Spaniards out of the Milaneſe; and having joined the forces under prince de Lichtenſtein, commanded the left wing of the Auſtrian army at the battle of Placentia on the 15th of June, 1746, and defeated the right wing of the enemy's forces commanded by Marſhal de Maillebois. After this victory he commanded in chief the army againſt the Genoeſe: ſeized the paſs of Bochetta, though defended by above 4000 men; and took the city of Genoa. Count Brown at length joined the king of Sardinia's troops; and took, in conjunction with him, Mont-Alban, and the county of Nice. On the 30th Novem. he paſſed the Var; entered Provence; took the iſles of St Margaret and St Honorat; and thought to have rendered himſelf maſter of a much greater part of Provence, when the revolution which happened in Genoa, and Marſhal de Belleiſle's advancing with his army, obliged him to make that fine retreat which procured him the admiration of all perſons ſkilled in war. He employed the reſt of the year 1747 in defending the Auſtrian ſtates in Italy; and after the peace of 1748, he was ſent to Nice to regulate there, in conjunction with the duke of Belleiſle and the marquis de la Minas, the differences that had ariſen with reſpect to the execution of ſome of the articles of the definitive treaty of Aix la Chapelle. The empreſs queen, to reward theſe ſignal ſervices, made him governor of Tranſylvania, where he rendered himſelf generally admired for

for his probity and diſintereſtedneſs. In 1752, he obtained the government of the city of Prague, with the chief command of the troops in that kingdom; in 1753, the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, honoured him with the collar of the order of the white eagle; and in 1754 he was declared field-marſhal. The king of Pruſſia entering Saxony in 1756, and attacking Bohemia, count Brown repulſed him at the battle of Lobofitz, 1ſt Oct. though he had only 27,000 men, and the king of Pruſſia had at leaſt 40,000. Seven days after this battle, he undertook the famous march into Saxony, to deliver the Saxon troops ſhut up between Pirna and Konigſtein; an action worthy of the greateſt captains, ancient or modern. He at length obliged the Pruſſians to retire from Bohemia; for which he was made a knight of the golden fleece. Soon after, he haſtily aſſembled an army in Bohemia, to oppoſe the king of Pruſſia, who had again penetrated into that kingdom at the head of all his forces; and on the 6th of May fought the famous battle of Prague; in which, while he was employed in giving orders for maintaining the advantages he had gained over the Pruſſians, he was ſo dangerouſly wounded, that he was obliged to be carried to Prague, where he died on the 26th June, 1757, aged 52.

(15.) BROWN, William, an Engliſh poet of the 17th century, born at Taviſtock in 1590. He was ſent to Exeter college, Oxford, in the beginning of the reign of James I. and became tutor to Robert Dormer, afterwards earl of Carnarvon, who was killed at Newbury battle, Septem. 20, 1643. He is ſtyled in the public regiſter of the univerſity, *vir omni humane literatura et bonarum artium cognitione inſtructus*; a man well ſkilled in all kinds of polite literature and uſeful arts. After he had left the college with his pupil, he was taken into the family of William earl of Pembroke, who had a great reſpect for him; and he made his fortune ſo well, that he purchaſed an eſtate. His poetical works procured him great reputation. They are, 1. Britannia's paſtorals. The firſt part was publiſhed at London, 1616, in folio; and uſhered into the world with verſes by his friends John Selden, Michael Drayton, Chriſtopher Cook, &c. The ſecond part was printed at London in 1616, and recommended by verſes written by John Glanville, (afterwards eminent in the law) and others. 2. The ſhepherd's pipe, in ſeven eclogues; Lond. 1614, in 8vo. 3. An elegy on the never enough bewailed death of prince Henry, eldeſt ſon of K. James I.

(16.) BROWN, LOCH. See LOCH-BROWN.

(17.) BROWN, SPANISH. See § 2.

BROWNÆA. See BROWNEA.

* BROWNBILL. *n. ſ.* [from *brown* and *bill*.] The ancient weapon of the Engliſh foot; why it is called *brown*, I have not diſcovered; but we now ſay *brown muſket* from it.—

And *brownbills*, levied in the city,
Made bills to paſs the grand committee. *Hudib.*

BROWN-CANDOVER, a town in Hampſhire.

(1.) BROWNE, George, archbiſhop of Dublin, and the firſt prelate who embraced the doctrines of the reformation in Ireland, was originally an Auſtin friar of London, and was educated near Uxbridge, Oxford. He afterwards became pro-[1] of his order, and having got his degree of D. D. abroad, was admitted to the ſame at Oxford and Cambridge, in 1534. After reading Luther's writings, he began to teach the people to pray, not to the Virgin Mary, or the Saints, but to Chriſt. This recommended him to Henry VIII, who, in 1535, promoted him to be archbiſhop of Dublin, and nominated him one of the commiſſioners for aboliſhing the papal ſupremacy in Ireland. In 1551, K. Edward VI. gave him the additional honour of primate of all Ireland: but in 1554 he was depoſed by Q. Mary, on pretence of his being married, though in reality, on account of his zeal for the reformation. He publiſhed a work againſt keeping the Scriptures in the Latin tongue, and againſt the worſhip of images. He died in 1556.

(2.) BROWNE, Peter, a native of Ireland, provoſt of Trinity college, Dublin, and afterwards biſhop of Cork. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his writings; particularly, 1. A refutation of Toland's Chriſtianity not myſterious;—a work that was the foundation of his preferment; which occaſioned him to ſay to Toland himſelf, that it was he who made him biſhop of Cork: 2. The progreſs, extent, and limits of the human underſtanding: 3. Sermons; and, 4. An eſſay, in 12mo, againſt the cuſtom of drinking to the memory of the dead.

(3—5.) BROWNE, Simon, Sir Thomas, Sir William, &c. See BROWN, N° 10—12, &c.

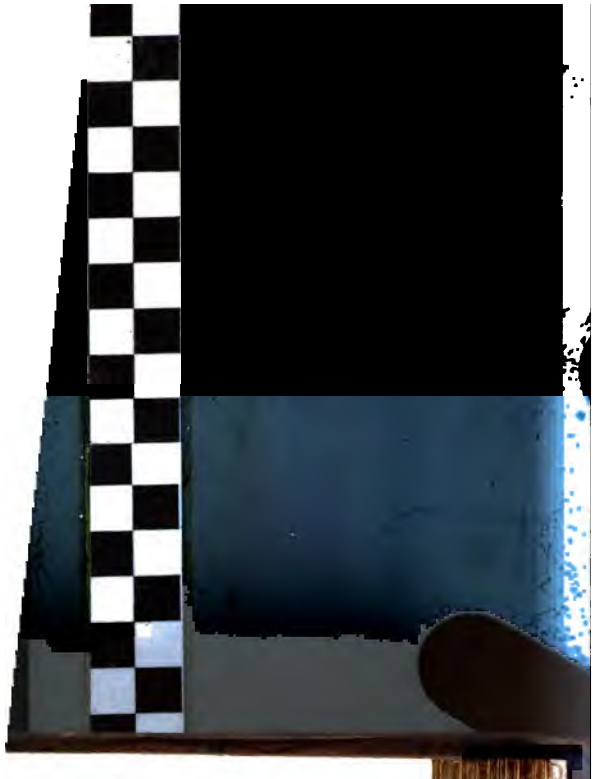
BROWNEA, or BROWNIA, in botany, a genus of the decandria order, in the monadelphia claſs of plants. The calyx is bifid, the corolla double, the exterior quinquefid, and the interior pentapetalous. There is but one ſpecies; viz.

BROWNIA COCCINEA, a native of the W. Indies.

* BROWNISH. *adj.* [from *brown*.] Somewhat brown.—A *browniſh* grey iron-ſtone, lying in thin ſtrata, is poor, but runs freely. *Woodward.*

BROWNISM, the doctrine of the Browniſts. See next article.

BROWNISTS, a religious ſect, which ſprung out of the Puritans, towards the cloſe of the 16th century: ſo named from their leader, Robert Brown. See BROWN, N° 9. They were alſo called BARROWISTS, from another of their preachers. To avoid the perſecutions of the Engliſh biſhops, Brown, with his congregation, left the kingdom, and ſettled at Middleburgh in Zealand; where they obtained leave of the ſtates to worſhip God in their own way, and form a church according to their own model; which they had not long done before they began to differ among themſelves, and divide into ſo many parties, that Brown their paſtor grew weary of his office; and returned to England in 1589. This was attended with the diſſolution of the church at Middleburgh; but the ſeeds of Browniſm, ſown in England, were ſo far from being rooted out, that Sir Walter Raleigh, in a ſpeech, in 1592, computes no leſs than 20,000 Browniſts. The occaſion of their ſeparation was not any fault they found with the faith, but only with the diſcipline and form of government of the churches in England. They equally charged corruption on the epiſcopal and preſbyterian forms; nor would they join with any other reformed church, becauſe they were not aſſured of the ſanctity and regeneration of the members that



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nothing but furze, brambles and briers, being from its steepness, inaccessible to the plough. By the industry and perseverance of the proprietor, an acre and an half of this barren ground has been planted with fruit trees, and improved to such a pitch, that in 1795, it produced fruit which sold for L.93 Sterling, besides gooseberries, and ten sacks of fruit to the proprietor.

* BROWNNESS. *n. s.* [from *brown*.] A brown colour.—She would confess the contention in her own mind, between that lovely, indeed most lovely, *brownness* of Musidorus's face, and this colour of mine. *Sidney*.

BROWNRIGG, a village of Northumberland, between Ford-Castle and Wooller.

BROWNSEA. See BRANKSEY.

BROWNSELL, a village in Dorsetshire.

BROWNSOVER, N. of Rugby, Warwickshire.

* BROWNSTUDY. *n. s.* [from *brown* and *study*.] Gloomy meditations; study in which we direct our thoughts to no certain point.—They live retired, and then they doze away their time in drowsiness and *brownstudies*; or, if brisk and active, they lay themselves out wholly in making common places. *Norris*.

BROWNSVILLE, or REDSTONE OLD FORT, a flourishing post town of Pennsylvania. It is situated in Fayette county, on the S. E. bank of Monongahela river, between Dunlop and Redston creeks; over the former a bridge has been erected, which connects Bridge-port, a small village on the opposite side of the creek, with Brownsville. It is 260 feet long, and 24 broad, and 36 feet in height. The town is laid out in regular streets crossing each other at right angles. It contains about 100 houses, 12 stores, with a pretty general assortment of goods, an Episcopalian and a Roman Catholic church; and within a few miles of the town are four quaker meeting-houses. Upwards of a hundred boats are built here annually for trade and emigration to Kentucky; averaging about 20 tons each; 24 grist, saw, oil, and fulling mills, are within less than 5 miles of the town. A brewery and a distillery have been established in it; and next to Pittsburg, it is the most considerable town of the western part of Pennsylvania. It is 35 miles S. by E. of Pittsburg, 12 N. W. of Union, 25 S. E. by E. of Washington, and 320 W. of Philadelphia. Lon. 4. 44. W. Lat. 39. 58. N.

BROWNSWELL, near Finchley, Middlesex.

BROWNWORT, the English name of two different genera of plants. See PRUNELLA and SCROPHULARIA.

BROWNY, a serviceable kind of sprite, who according to a superstitious notion formerly prevalent in the Hebrides and Highlands of Scotland (as well as among the country people in England, where he had the name of *Robin Goodfellow*,) was wont to clean the houses, help to churn, thresh the corn, and belabour all that pretended to make a jest of him. He was represented as stout and blooming, had fine long flowing hair, and went about with a wand in his hand. He was the very counter part of Milton's *Lubber Fiend*.

BROW-POST, among builders, denotes a beam which goes across a building.

(1.) *BROWSE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Branches, or ſhrubs, fit for the food of goats, or other animals.

The greedy lioneſs the wolf purſues,
The wolf the kid, the wanton kid the *browſe*.
Dryden.

On that cloud-piercing hill,
Plinlimmon, from afar the traveller kens,
Aſtoniſh'd, how the goats their ſhrubby *browſe*
Gnaw pendent. *Philips.*

(2.) BROWSE more properly denotes the food which deer find in young copſes, continually ſprouting anew.

(1.) * *To* BROWSE. *v. a.* [*brouſer*, Fr.] To eat branches, or ſhrubs.—

And being down, is trod in the durt.
Of cattle, and *browſed*, and ſorely hurt. *Spenſ.*

Thy palate then did deign
The roughеſt berry on the rudeſt hedge:
Yea, like the ſtag, when ſnow the paſture ſheets,
The barks of trees thou *browſedſt*. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) * *To* BROWSE. *v. n.* To feed: it is uſed with the particle *on*.—They have ſcared away two of my beſt ſheep; if any where I have them, 'tis by the ſea-ſide, *browſing on* ivy. *Shakeſpeare.*—A goat, hard preſſed, took ſanctuary in a vineyard; ſo ſoon as he thought the danger was over, he fell preſently a *browſing upon* the leaves. *L'Eſt.*

Could eat the tender plant, and, by degrees,
Browſe on the ſhrubs, and crop the budding trees. *Blackmore.*

—The Greeks were the deſcendants of ſavages, ignorant of agriculture, and *browſing on* herbage, like cattle. *Arbuthnot.*

BROWSEWOOD, *n. ſ.* Bruſhwood.

* BROWSICK. *adj.* [from *brow* and *ſick*.] Dejected; hanging the head.—

But yet a gracious influence from you,
May alter nature in our *browſick* crew. *Suckl.*

BROWTING, [*brouter*,] among the French gardeners, ſignifies, breaking off the tips of the ſlender branches of trees, when too long, in proportion to their ſtrength.

BROXAM, a town in Kent, 5 m. W. of Penſhurſt.

BROXBOROUGH, and BROXBOURNBURY, } in Hertfordſh. near Hoddeſdon.

(1.) BROXBURN, a rivulet in Linlithgow.

(2.) BROXBURN, a village in the pariſh of Uphall, ſeated on the rivulet, No. 1. It is on the increaſe, the ground being let out for building, in leaſes of 99 years, at 38. 4d. per acre. It has a fair in Auguſt.

BROXEY, in Yorkſh. N. of Pickering.

BROXHOLM, 4 m. N. W. of Lincoln.

BROXMOUTH, a ſeat of the Duke of Roxburgh, in E. Lothian, on the mouth of Brockſburn, near Dunbar.

BROXTED, in Eſſex, 4 m. S. of Thaxted.

BROXTON, 2 villages, viz. 1. in Cheſhire, S. of Beeſton-Caſtle: 2. in Hampſh. 4 m. E. of Alton.

BROXTOW, N. W. of Nottingham.

BROXWOOD, in Herefordſhire, 3 m. E. of Kyneton.

BROYLE, 3 m. S. E. of Lewes, Suſſex.

BROYOCK, INCH. See INCH-BRAYOCK.

BRU, a ſafe harbour on the coaſt of Argyllſh.

BRUARIA TURBARIA. See TURBARY.

BRUCE, James, Eſq. of Kinnaird, F. R. S. and the moſt intrepid traveller of the preſent or almoſt any age, was born at Kinnaird, in Stirlingſhire, Dec. 14, 1728. It is almoſt ſuperfluous to mention his noble anceſtors; that by his father Dav. Bruce of Kinnaird, he was lineally deſcended from Robert Bruce E. of Carrick, (N. 3.) competitor with Baliol, and grandfather to king Robert I.; as well as from the public ſpirited Robert Bruce of Kinnaird, (No. 5.) who was baniſhed for his attachment to civil and religious liberty; and by his mother, Miſs Graham of Airth, from the loyal Marquis of Montroſe, who was beheaded for his attachment to royalty. The perſonal merits of Mr Bruce are much ſuperior to all that can be derived from the moſt glorious anceſtry. He has done honour to himſelf and his country by accompliſhing, what the moſt celebrated conquerors of antiquity repeatedly attempted without ſucceſs. By diſcovering the ſource of the Nile, he has acquired a degree of fame which was ſought for in vain, by Seſoſtris, king of Egypt, Cambyſes, king of Perſia, Alexander the Great, two of the Ptolemies, and Julius Cæſar. Mr Bruce was inſtructed in claſſical learning at Harrow on the hill in Middleſex. Returning to Scotland, he intended to ſtudy the law, but from the barbarity of his ſtepmother, (a daughter of the late Gen. Glen,) he reſolved to puſh his fortune in the Eaſt Indies. But not procuring an appointment in the Company's ſervice, he engaged in partnerſhip with Mr Allen, merchant, London, whoſe daughter he married, but loſt within a year after. To diſpel grief he travelled, but his father dying in 1758, he returned to Britain to take poſſeſſion of the inheritance of his anceſtors. About this time Lord Chatham intended to employ Mr Bruce upon a particular ſervice, but his reſignation ſoon after put it out of his power. Similar intentions were entertained by Lord Egremont, but his Lordſhip's death prevented the fulfilment. It fell to the lot of the Earl of Halifax to do more than fulfil the intentions of his predeceſſors, by pointing out a ſcene of action to Mr Bruce, where his abilities have ſince been exerted with ſo much honour to himſelf and his country. To explore the coaſt of Barbary; to inveſtigate its natural hiſtory, ancient architecture, and other curioſities hitherto little known, or illuſtrated by former travellers; and to make large additions to the royal collection, were the outlines of his Lordſhip's plan. To diſcover the ſource of the Nile was alſo mentioned, but rather as an object to be wiſhed than hoped for, from ſo young a traveller. The reſignation of the conſul of Algiers at that time, and the death of his newly appointed ſucceſſor, favoured the Earl's plan; who preſſed Mr Bruce to accept of the conſulſhip; which he did the more cheerfully, that the tranſit of Venus was at hand, which he hoped to ſee from his own houſe at Algiers. Within a year after his arrival there, he qualified himſelf by the acquiſition of the Arabic, to appear without an interpreter. An anecdote related of Mr Bruce during his conſulſhip to Algiers, deſerves to be mentioned as an early inſtance of that daring intrepidity, which fully manifeſted afterward in his Abyſſinian journey. At one of his firſt audiences of the Dey Mr Bruce went to court with a ſword; the offi-

r waiting at the palace, intimated that no perſon ould go into the preſence of the Dey armed, and herefore it was neceſſary to lay aſide his ſword; Mr Bruce, not deigning to make any reply, knocked he officer down with a violent blow, and march- d into the audience chamber without waiting any ntroduction. "It was beneath the dignity, he aid, of a ſervant of the Britiſh Monarch, to ſub- mit to any humiliating ceremony before an Afri- an Chief." At Algiers, Mr Bruce was detained onger than he expected, in conſequence of a diſ- ute with the Dey concerning Mediterranean paſ- s. The buſineſs being adjuſted, he proceeded o Mahon, and from Mahon to Carthage. He fterwards viſited Tunis and Tripoli, and travelled ver the interior parts of theſe ſtates. At Ben- azi, a ſmall town on the Mediterranean, he ſuf- ered ſhipwreck, and with extreme difficulty ſa- ed his life, though with the loſs of all his bag- age. He afterwards ſailed to the Iſles of Rhodes nd Cyprus, and proceeding to Aſia Minor, tra- elled through a conſiderable part of Syria and alestine, viſiting Haſſia, Latikea, Aleppo, and ripoli, near which laſt city he was again in immi- ent danger of periſhing in a river. The ruins of almyra and Baalbec, were next carefully ſurvey- d and ſketched by him; and his drawings of ſe places, are depoſited in the king's library at ew; the moſt magnificent preſent, in that line, n uſe his own words, "ever made by a ſubject o his ſovereign." It is much to be regretted, hat Mr Bruce publiſhed no particular account of f theſe various journies; from the nature of the laces viſited, and the abilities of the man, much arious and uſeful information might have been xpected. Some MS. accounts of different parts of em are ſaid to have been left by him, but whe- her in ſuch a ſtate as to be fit for publication is ry uncertain. In theſe various travels ſome ars were paſſed; and Mr Bruce now prepared r the grand expedition, the accompliſhment of hich had ever been neareſt his heart, the diſco- ry of the ſource of the Nile. In the proſecu- on of that great and dangerous object, he left Si- on on the 15th of June 1768, and arrived at lexandria on the 20th of that month. He pro- eded from thence to Cairo, where he continued ll the 12th Dec. when he embarked on the Nile, nd ſailed up that river as far as Seyne, viſiting the courſe of his voyage, the ruins of Thebes. aving Kenne on the Nile, 16th Feb. 1769, he roſſed the deſert of the Thebaid to Coſſeir on the ed Sea, and arrived at Jidda on the 3d of May. n Arabia Felix, he remained, not without making veral excurſions, till the 3d Sept. when he ſail- d from Loheia, and arrived on the 19th at Ma- ah, where he was detained near 2 months by the reachery and avarice of the Naybe of that place. t was not till the 15th Nov. that he was allowed o quit Arkeeko near Maſua; and he arrived 15th eb. 1770, at Gondar, the capital of Abyſſinia, here he ingratiated himſelf with the moſt conſi- erable perſons of both ſexes belonging to the ourt. Several months were employed in attend- nce on the king; and in an unſucceſsful expedi- ion round the lake of Dambea. Towards the nd of October, Mr Bruce ſet out for the ſource f the Nile, at which long deſired ſpot, he arrived on the 14th Nov. and his feelings on the accom- pliſhment of his wiſhes cannot better be expreſſed than in his own words: "It is eaſier to gueſs than to deſcribe the ſituation of my mind at that moment; ſtanding in that ſpot which had baffled the genius, induſtry, and inquiry of both ancients and moderns, for the courſe of near 3000 years. Kings had attempted this diſcovery at the head of armies, and each expedition was diſtinguiſhed from the laſt, only by the difference of the num- bers which had periſhed, and agreed alone in the diſappointment which had uniformly and with- out exception, followed them all. Fame, riches, and honour had been held out for a ſeries of ages to every individual of thoſe myriads thoſe princes commanded, without having produced one man capable of gratifying the curioſity of his ſovereign, or wiping off the ſtain upon the enterprize and a- bilities of mankind, or adding this deſideratum for the encouragement of geography. Though a mere private Briton, I triumphed here in my own mind over kings and their armies; and every com- pariſon was leading nearer and nearer to the pre- ſumption, when the place itſelf where I ſtood, the object of my vain glory, ſuggeſted what de- preſſed my ſhort-lived triumphs. I was but a few minutes arrived at the ſource of the Nile, through numberleſs dangers and ſufferings, the leaſt of which would have overwhelmed me, but for the continual goodneſs and protection of Pro- vidence; I was, however, but then half through my journey, and all thoſe dangers which I had al- ready paſſed, awaited me again on my return. I found a deſpondency gaining ground faſt upon me, and blaſting the crown of laurels I had too raſhly woven for myſelf." When he returned to reſt the night of his diſcovery, repoſe was ſought for in vain. "Melancholy reflections upon my preſent ſtate, the doubtfulneſs of my return in ſafety, were I permitted to make the attempt, and the fears that even this would be refuſed, ac- cording to the rule obſerved in Abyſſinia, with all travellers who have once entered the kingdom; the conſciouſneſs of the pain that I was then oc- caſioning to many worthy individuals, expecting daily that information concerning my ſituation, which it was not in my power to give them; ſome other thoughts perhaps, ſtill nearer the heart than thoſe, crowded upon my mind, and forbade all approach of ſleep. I was, at that very moment, in poſſeſſion of what had, for many years been the principal object of my ambition and wiſhes; indifference, which, from the uſual infirmity of human nature, follows, at leaſt for a time, com- plete enjoyment, had taken poſſeſſion of it. The marſh of the fountains, upon compariſon with the riſe of many of our rivers became now a trif- ling object in my ſight. I remembered that mag- nificent ſcene in my own native country, where the Tweed, Clyde, and Annan riſe in one hill; three rivers I now thought, not inferior to the Nile in beauty, preferable to it in the cultivation of thoſe countries through which they flow; ſuperior, vaſtly ſuperior to it in the virtues and qualities of the in- habitants, and in the beauties of its flocks, crowd- ing its paſtures in peace, without fear of violence from man or beaſt. I had ſeen the riſe of the Rhine and Rhone, and the more magnificent

ſources of the Soane. I began, in my ſorrow, to treat the enquiry about the ſources of the Nile as a violent effort of a diſtempered fancy. Grief and deſpondency now rolling upon me like a torrent, relaxed, not refreſhed by unquiet and imperfect ſleep, I ſtarted from my bed in the utmoſt agony; I went to the door of my tent; every thing was ſtill; the Nile, at whoſe head I ſtood, was not capable either to promote or interrupt my ſlumbers, but the coolneſs and ſerenity of the night braced my nerves, and chaſed away thoſe phantoms, that while in bed had oppreſſed and tormented me. It was true, that numerous dangers, hardſhips and ſorrows had beſet me through this half of my excurſion, but it was ſtill as true that another guide more powerful than my own courage, health or underſtanding, if any of them can be called a man's own, had uniformly protected me in all that tedious half. I found my confidence not abated, that ſtill the ſame guide was able to conduct me to my wiſhed for home. I immediately reſumed my former fortitude, conſidered the Nile indeed as no more than riſing from ſprings, as all other rivers do, but widely different in this, that it was the palm for 3000 years held out to all the nations of the world, as a *detur digniſſimo*, which, in my cool hours, I had thought was worth the attempting at the riſk of my life, which I had long either reſolved to loſe, or lay this diſcovery, a trophy in which I could have no competitor, for the honour of my country, at the feet of my ſovereign whoſe ſervant I was." Mr Bruce now bent his thoughts on his return to his native country. He arrived at Gondar 19th Nov. 1770; but found, after repeated ſolicitations, that it was not an eaſy taſk to obtain permiſſion to quit Abyſſinia. A civil war in the mean time breaking out, no uncommon occurrence in that barbarous country: ſeveral engagements took place between the king's forces, and the rebels, particularly 3 actions at Serbraxos, in May 1771. In each of them Mr Bruce acted a conſiderable part, and for his valiant conduct in the ſecond, received a reward from the king, a chain of gold, of 184 links; each link weighing 3½ dwts. or ſomewhat more than 2¼ lbs. troy, in all. At Gondar, after theſe engagements, he again earneſtly entreated to be allowed to return home, which was long refuſed; but his health at laſt giving way, from the anxiety of his mind, the king conſented to his departure, on condition of his engaging by oath to return to him in the event of his recovery, with as many of his kindred as he could engage to accompany him. After a reſidence of nearly two years in that wretched country, Mr Bruce left Gondar, Dec. 26, 1771, taking the dangerous way of the deſert of Nubia, in place of the moſt eaſy road of Maſuah, by which he entered Abyſſinia. He was induced to take this route from his experience of the ſavage temper of the Naybe of Maſuah. Arriving at Teawa, 21ſt March 1772, he found the Shekh Fidele at Athara the counterpart of the Naybe of Maſuah in every bad quality. By his intrepidity, and prudence, however, and by making good uſe of his foreknowledge of an eclipſe of the moon, which happened on the 17th of April, he was permitted to depart next day, and arrived at Senaar, on the 29th. He was detained upwards of 4 months at that miſerable and inhoſpitable place, the inhabitants of which he deſcribes in theſe expreſſive words: "War and treaſon ſeem to be the only employment of theſe horrid people, whom Heaven has ſeparated by almoſt impaſſable deſerts, from the reſt of mankind, confining them to an accurſed ſpot, ſeeming to give them an earneſt in time, of the only other worſe which he has reſerved to them for an eternal hereafter." This delay was occaſioned by the villany of thoſe who had undertaken to ſupply him with money; but at laſt, by diſpoſing of 178 links of his gold chain, the well earned trophy of Serbraxos, he was enabled to make preparations for his dangerous journey through the deſerts of Nubia. He left Senaar 5th Sept. and arrived on the 3d Oct. at Chendi, which he quitted on the 20th, and travelled through the deſert of Gooz, to which village he came Oct. 26. On the 9th Nov. he left Gooz, and entered upon the moſt dreadful and dangerous part of his journey, the perils attending which he has related with a power of pencil, not unworthy of the greateſt maſters. All his camels having periſhed, he was under the neceſſity of abandoning his baggage in the deſert, and with the greateſt difficulty reached Aſſouan upon the Nile, Nov. 29. After ſome days reſt, having procured freſh camels, he returned into the deſert and recovered his baggage, among which was a quadrant (of 3 feet radius) ſupplied by Louis XV. from the Military Academy at Marſeilles, by means of which noble inſtrument, now depoſited in the muſeum at Kinnaird, Mr Bruce was enabled with preciſion and accuracy to fix the relative ſituations of the ſeveral remote places he viſited. On the 10th Jan. 1773, after more than 4 years abſence, he arrived at Cairo, where, by his manly and generous behaviour, he ſo won the heart of Mahomet Bey, that he obtained a firman, permitting the commanders of Engliſh veſſels belonging to Bombay and Bengal, to bring their ſhips and merchandize to Suez, a place far preferable, in all reſpects, to Jidda, to which they were formerly confined. Of this permiſſion, which no European nation could ever before acquire, many Engliſh veſſels have already availed themſelves; and it has proved peculiarly uſeful both in public and private diſpatches. Such was the worthy concluſion of his memorable journey through the deſert, a journey, which, after many hardſhips and dangers, terminated in obtaining this great national benefit. At Cairo, Mr Bruce's earthly career had nearly been concluded by a diſorder in his leg, occaſioned by a worm in the fleſh. This accident kept him 5 weeks in extreme agony, and his health was not re-eſtabliſhed till a year afterwards, at the baths of Poretta in Italy. On his return to Europe, Mr Bruce was received with all the admiration due to ſo exalted a character. After paſſing ſome time in France, particularly at Montbard, with his friend the Comte de Buffon, by whom he was received with much hoſpitality, and is mentioned with great applauſe, he at laſt reviſited his native country, from which he had been upwards of 12 years abſent. On his return the public curioſity was highly excited to ſee a narrative of his travels; but this was retarded by various circumſtances—particularly a number of

law ſuits; the long continued illneſs and death of his 2d wife, daughter of Mr Dundas of Fingaſk, and a ſevere ague which repeatedly attacked him for 16 years. At laſt, however, he got leiſure to put his materials in order; and, in 1790, his long expected work appeared in 5 large 4to volumes embelliſhed with many plates, maps, and charts; at 5 guineas each copy. The work has been criticiſed and the author accuſed of vanity; but there appears, on the whole, ſuch an air of manly veracity, and circumſtances are mentioned, with a minuteneſs ſo unlike deceit, that a general impreſſion of truth irreſiſtibly fixes on the mind of the reader. There never perhaps exiſted a man better qualified for the hazardous enterpriſe he undertook, than Mr Bruce. His perſon was of the largeſt ſize, his height exceeding ſix feet, and his bulk and ſtrength proportionally great. He excelled in all corporeal accompliſhments, being a hardy practiſed and indefatigable ſwimmer, trained to exerciſe and fatigue of every kind, and his long reſidence among the Arabs had given him a more than ordinary facility in managing the horſe. In the uſe of fire arms he was ſo unerring, that in innumerable inſtances he never failed to hit the mark; and his dexterity in handling the ſpear and lance on horſeback was alſo uncommonly great. He was maſter of moſt languages, underſtanding the Greek perfectly; and was ſo well ſkilled in oriental literature, that he reviſed the New Teſtament in the Ethiopic, Samaritan, Hebrew, and Syriac, making many uſeful notes and remarks on difficult paſſages. He had applied from early youth to mathematics, drawing, and aſtronomy; and had acquired ſome knowledge of phyſic and ſurgery. His memory was aſtoniſhingly retentive, his judgment ſound and vigorous. He was dexterous in negociation, a maſter of public buſineſs, animated with the warmeſt zeal for his king and country, a phyſician in the camp or city, a ſoldier and horſeman in the field, while, at the ſame time, his breaſt was a ſtranger to fear, though he took every precaution to avoid danger. Of his learning and ſagacity, his delineation of the courſe of Solomon's fleet from Tarſhiſh to Ophir, his account of the cauſe of the inundations of the Nile, and his comprehenſive view of the Abyſſinian hiſtory, afford ample proofs. He expreſſes, throughout all his works, a deep and lively ſenſe of the care of a ſuperintending providence, without whoſe influence, he was convinced of the futility of all human ability and foreſight to preſerve from danger. He appears to have been a ſerious believer of the truth of Chriſtianity; and his illuſtrations of ſome parts of the ſacred writings are original and valuable. He was preparing a 2d edition of his travels for the preſs, when he died April 27th 1794, in conſequence of a fall down his own ſtair, in the 66th year of his age.

(2.) BRUCE, Michael, an amiable young poet, of great merit, but of few years, was born at Kinneſs-wood, in Kinroſs-ſhire, March 27th 1746. He gave early ſigns of ſuperior genius, which led his parents, though in a humble ſphere of life, to give him a liberal education, intending him for divinity: ſo that in 1762, he was ſent to the univerſity of Edinburgh, where he contracted an acquaintance with the rev. Mr William Logan, who gave the public the firſt ſpecimen of his abilities, by publiſhing a few of his poems after his death. He kept a ſmall ſchool for children, (for a very ſmall ſalary) firſt at Gairney-bridge, near Kinroſs, and afterwards at Foreſt-mill, near Alloa. At this place he began and finiſhed his excellent poem called *Lochleven*, of which he gave the following humorous account, in a letter to his friend Mr Arnot at Portmoak: "I have wrote a few lines of a deſcriptive poem, *cui titulus eſt Lochleven:* You may remember you hinted ſuch a thing to me; ſo I have ſet about it, and you may expect a dedication. I hope it will ſoon be finiſhed, as I every week add two lines, blot out 6, and alter 8. You ſhall hear the plan when I know it myſelf." In autumn 1766, his delicate conſtitution, ill calculated to bear the exertions of daily labour and the auſterities of a cold climate, under the preſſure of that rigid frugality, which his humble circumſtances rendered neceſſary, began to decline, and in the end of the year terminated in a deep conſumption. He therefore returned to his native village, to receive the conſolations of parental affection and the ſympathy of friendſhip. In ſpring he wrote an elegy on his own approaching death, and expired, July 6, 1767, in his 21ſt year. A ſmall collection of his *Poems on Several Occaſions*, was firſt publiſhed in 1770, by Mr Logan, who, rather injudiciouſly mingled with them ſome poems of his own and others. Lord Craig having called the attention of the public to them, in 1779, in the Mirror, N. 36. they were reprinted in 1784. A new edition, with ſeveral more of his poems, which had not been publiſhed, has been lately printed at Edinburgh for the benefit of his mother, under the direction of the rev. Dr Baird. It is to be regretted that the patronage beſtowed upon his poſthumous works, was not exerted to render his ſituation more comfortable, while he lived. He united an ardent and enlightened ſenſe of religion with a lively imagination and a feeling heart. Elegance, ſimplicity, and tenderneſs, characteriſe him as a man and a poet. Under the names of *Eumelia* and *Peggy*, he celebrates in his poems an amiable young woman, whoſe modeſt beauty and artleſs ſimplicity had made an impreſſion on his ſuſceptible heart.

(3.) BRUCE, Robert, ſon of the earl of Carrick, being competitor with Baliol for the crown of Scotland, loſt it by the arbitration of Edward I. of England, for generouſly refuſing to hold the crown of Scotland as depending on him, which his anceſtors had left him independent.

(4.) BRUCE, Robert, grandſon of the preceding, (No. 3.) when Baliol broke his agreement with Edward, was eaſily perſuaded to ſide with him againſt Baliol, upon promiſe that he would ſettle him on the throne. Having contributed much to the breaking of Baliol's party he demanded the accompliſhment of king Edward's promiſe, who is ſaid to have given him this anſwer: "What! have I nothing elſe to do but to conquer kingdoms for you?" However, he recovered his crown, defeated the Engliſh in ſeveral battles, raiſed the glory of the Scots, and extended their dominions. See SCOTLAND, HISTORY OF.

(5.) BRUCE, Robert, of Kinnaird, one of the miniſters of Edinburgh, under Q. Mary and James

VI. having preached and wrote with freedom against the king's interference with the church, he was baniſhed. Some of his ſermons are ſtill extant.

BRUCEA, in botany, a genus of the tetrandria order, belonging to the dioecia claſs of plants. We have met with no deſcription of this genus.

BRUCE-CASTLE, a village in Middleſex, near Tottenham.

BRUCEFIELD, a village in Fife, near Dunfermline, where there is a lint mill.

BRUCEHILL, an extenſive moor in Aberdeenſhire, ſo named from Edward Bruce, brother of K. Robert I. where he encamped after the battle of Inverury, and from whence he marched in purſuit of the Cummings to Aiky-brae, where he engaged and routed them. Aiky fair is ſtill held on the ſpot where the battle was fought.

BRUCE's How, a long artificial trench about 8 feet deep, in which it is ſaid K. Robert Bruce concealed part of his army about the time of the battle of Inverury.

BRUCETOWN, a place in Angus-ſhire, in the pariſh of Alyth, where the Scots forces under K. Robert Bruce were ſtationed, previous to their engagement with the Engliſh, on the S. ſide of the Iſla.

BRUCHSAL, a town of Germany, in the palatinate of the Rhine, and biſhopric of Spires, ſituated on the river Satz. Lon. 8. 30. E. Lat. 49. 17. N.

BRUCHUS, in zoology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of coleoptera. The feelers are filiform, and gradually increaſe in thickneſs. See *Plate* XLI. *fig.* 7. There are 7 ſpecies, viz.

1. BRUCHUS BACTRIS, with ſmooth elytra, a hoary body, and the hind part of the thighs oval. It frequents the palm trees of Jamaica.

2. BRUCHUS GLEDITSIÆ, with ſtriated elytra of the ſame length with the belly, a pitch-coloured body, and green feelers. It is a native of America.

3. BRUCHUS GRANARIUS has black elytra; the fore feet are red, and the hind feet are dentated. It infeſts the ſeeds of plants in different parts of Europe.

4. BRUCHUS PECTICORNIS, with comb-ſhaped feelers longer than the body. It is a native of Barbary and China.

5. BRUCHUS PISI has grey elytra interſperſed with white ſpots, and a white fundament with two black ſpots. It is a native of North America, and deſtroys whole fields of peaſe. It is now found in ſeveral of the ſouthern parts of Europe; where it does great injury to the corn.

6. BRUCHUS SEMINARIUS is black, with the baſe of the feelers and fore feet teſtaceous. It is of the ſize of a louſe, and a native of Europe.

7. BRUCHUS THEOBROMÆ, with whitiſh elytra interſperſed with black points. It frequents the theobromæ or chocolate trees in the Eaſt Indies.

BRUCK, or BRUGG. See BROUCK.

BRUCK-CASTLE, in Huntingdonſhire, between the Saltrys and Stilton.

BRUCKFIELD, or BEUKELINGS, William, a native of Dutch Flanders, merits to be commemorated, though we know little elſe of him, as the inventor of the Dutch method of pickling herrings. He died at Bierolict in 1397.

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contains ſeveral walks between two rows of trees, and a new guard-houſe in the middle. The Burg is a large ſquare, in which is the town-houſe, built in the Gothic manner, and adorned with a variety of figures of the ancient counts and counteſſes of Flanders. In the ſame quarter there are ſeveral other public buildings. The church dedicated to the Virgin Mary has a high ſteeple, which ſerves as a ſea-mark for the ſhips that come to Oſtend; on the inſide are two tombs of copper gilt, of an extraordinary magnificence. Beſides the cathedral and two collegiate churches, there are 5 pariſh churches and 14 chapels. There are many alms-houſes and hoſpitals, one of which is called the *ſchool of Bogards*, where there are about 180 boys, ſome of whom are brought up to learning, others to trades, according to their genius. Their habit is cloth, and half of them wear blue and half red, with a black bonnet. There is alſo a ſchool for poor girls, to the number of 120, clothed with red and blue. Bruges has long been famed for taking care of widows and orphans. The parts about the city, which belong to it, are called *Franc of Bruges*, and contain 37 villages. They enjoyed much liberty even under their old government. The fortifications being but trifling, in time of war it always yields to the ſtrongeſt. The French took it in 1792, loſt it in 1793, but ſoon after retook it, and now include it in their republic. It is 8 miles E. of Oſtend, 24 N. E. of Ghent, and 46 weſt of Antwerp. Lon. 3. 5. E. Lat. 51. 11. N.

BRUGG. See BROUCK.

BRUGGE, or BRUGGEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony.

BRUGHT, a river in Weſtphalia.

BRUGNETTO, a city of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, with a biſhop's ſee. Lon. 9. 5. E. Lat. 44. 20. N.

BRUHAM, NORTH, BRUHAM, SOUTH, two villages in Somerſetſhire, near Bruton.

BRUIN, John DE, profeſſor of natural philoſophy and mathematics at Utrecht, was born at Gorcum in 1620. He had an uncommon ſkill in diſſecting animals, and was a great lover of experiments. He made alſo obſervations in aſtronomy. He publiſhed diſſertations *De vi altrice*; *De corporum gravitate et levitate*; *De cognitione Dei naturali*; *De lucis cauſa et origine*, &c. He had a diſpute with Iſaac Voſſius, to whom he wrote a letter printed at Amſterdam, 1663; wherein he criticiſes Voſſius's book *De natura et proprietate lucis*; and ſtrenuouſly maintains the hypotheſis of Deſcartes. He died in 1675, after he had been profeſſor 23 years: and his funeral oration was pronounced 4 days after by M. Grævis.

BRUIR, [Gael. *bruvir*, a noiſy water,] a rivulet of Perthſhire, in Athol.

(1.) * BRUISE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A hurt from ſomething blunt and heavy.—

One arm'd with metal, th' other with wood,
This fit for *bruiſe*, and that for blood. *Huddib.*

I ſince have labour'd
To bind the *briſes* of a civil war,
And ſtop the iſſues of the waſting blood. *Dryd.*

(2.) BRUISE, in ſurgery. See CONTUSION.

* *To* BRUISE. *v. a.* [*briſer*, Fr.] To cruſh or mangle with the heavy blow of ſomething not edged or pointed; to cruſh by any weight; to beat into groſs powder; to beat together coarſely.—

Fellows in arms, and my moſt loving friends,
Bruis'd underneath the yoke of tyranny. *Shakeſ.*

And fix far deeper in his head their ſtings,
Than temporal death ſhall *bruiſe* the victor's heel,
Or theirs whom he redeems. *Milton.*

As in old chaos heav'n with earth confus'd,
And ſtars with rocks together cruſh'd and *bruis'd*
Waller.

They beat their breaſts with many a *bruiſing* blow,
Till they turn livid, and corrupt the ſnow. *Dryd.*

BRUISER, in mechanics, a concave tool uſed for grinding and poliſhing the ſpecula of teleſcopes. It is made of braſs, about a quarter of an inch thick, and hammered as near to the gage as poſſible. It is tinned on the convex ſide, and made equally broad at bottom and top. It ſerves to reduce the figures of the hones, when too convex, and to rub down any gritty matter that happens to be mixed with the putty, before the ſpeculum is applied to the poliſher.

* BRUISEWORT. *n. ſ.* An herb; the ſame with COMFREY.

BRUISING, in pharmacy, the operation of breaking or pounding a thing coarſely; frequently practiſed on roots, woods, and other hard bodies, to make them yield their juice more freely than they would do whole.

* BRUIT. *n. ſ.* [*bruit*, Fr.] Rumour; noiſe; report.—A *bruit* ran from one to the other, that the king was ſlain. *Sidney.*—Upon ſome *bruits* he apprehended a fear, which moved him to ſend to Sir William Herbert to remain his friend. *Hayward.*—

I am not
One that rejoices in the common wreck,
As common *bruit* doth put it. *Shakeſ.*

* *To* BRUIT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To report; to noiſe abroad; to rumour. Neither the verb nor the noun are now much in uſe.—

His death,
Being *bruited* once, took fire and heat away,
From the beſt temper'd courage in his troops.
Shakeſpeare.

—It was *bruited*, that I meant nothing leſs than to go to Guiana. *Raleigh.*

BRUMÆ. See BRUMALIA.

BRUMAIRE, [*i. e.* the foggy month, Fr. from *brume*, fog,] the 2d month in the new French calendar. It begins Oct. 22d and ends Nov. 20th, conſiſting, like all the other months, of 30 days.

* BRUMAL. *adj.* [*brumalis*, Lat.] Belonging to the winter.—About the *brumal* ſolſtice, it hath been obſerved, unto a proverb, that the ſea is calm, and the winds do ceaſe, till the young ones are excluded, and forſake their neſts. *Brown.*

BRUMALES PLANTÆ, in botany (from *bruma*, winter); plants which flower in our winter: common about the Cape.

BRUMALIA, in Roman antiquity, feſtivals of Bacchus celebrated twice a-year; the firſt on the 12th of the kalends of March, and the other on the 18th of the kalends of November. They were inſtituted by Romulus, who during theſe feaſts uſed to entertain the ſenate. Among other heathen feſtivals which the primitive Chriſtians were much

much inclined to obſerve, Tertullian mentions the brumæ or brumalia.

BRUMFIELD, 2 villages; 1. in Cumberland, 4 m. from Wigton: 2. in Somerſetſh. 5 m. from Taunton, and 5 S. W. of Bridgewater.

BRUMHAM, two villages: 1. two m. from Bedford: 2. in Wilts, 3 m. N. W. of Devizes.

BRUMLEY, in Northumberland, between Newcaſtle and Newbiggen.

BRUMOY, Peter, a learned Jeſuit born at Rouen in 1668, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in his youth by his talents for the belles lettres; and during his whole life was beloved for his probity, virtue, and goodneſs of heart. He wrote many works, the moſt conſiderable of which is his Theatre of the Greeks He died at Paris in 1742.

BRUMPTON, 2 villages in Yorkſh. 1. near Northallerton: 2. five m. N. W. of Scarborough.

BRUMPTON-RALPH, in Somerſetſh. 2 m. W. of Stokegomer.

BRUMPTON-REGIS, in Somerſetſh. 2 m. N. E. of Dulverton.

BRUMSTAL, or BRUNSAL, in Yorkſhire, near Appletree-wick.

BRUMWELL, in Norfolkſ. 3 m. N. of Brandon ferry.

(1.) BRUN, Anthony LE, an ambaſſador of Spain, famous for his ſkill in negociating, was of an ancient and noble family, and born at Dole in 1600. He was attorney-general in the parliament of Dole; during which time he had a hand in all the ſtate negociations which concerned the provinces. He was ſent afterwards by Philip IV. to the diet of Ratiſbon, and from thence to the court of the emperor Ferdinand III. He was one of the plenipotentiaries at the conferences of Munſter held in 1643; where, he far exceeded them all in capacity. The king of Spain was particularly indebted to him for the peace which the Dutch made at Munſter, excluſively of France; and the intriguing turn which he ſhowed upon this occaſion made him dreaded ever after by French ambaſſadors. He was a man of letters as well as of politics; and employed his pen as well as his tongue in the ſervice of his maſter. He died at the Hague, during his embaſſy, in 1654.

(2.) BRUN, Charles LE, was deſcended of a family of diſtinction in Scotland, and born in 1619. His father was a ſtatuary by profeſſion. He diſcovered ſuch an early inclination for painting, that at 3 years of age he uſed to deſign on the hearth and ſides of the chimney, with coals; and at 12 he drew the picture of his uncle ſo well, that it ſtill paſſes for a fine piece. His father being employed in the gardens at Sequier, the chancellor placed him with Simon Vouet, an eminent painter. He was afterwards ſent to Fontainbleau, to take off ſome of Raphael's pieces. He ſent him next to Italy, and ſupported him there for ſix years. Le Brun, in his return, met with the celebrated Pouſſin, by whoſe converſation he greatly improved, and contracted a friendſhip with him which laſted as long as their lives. A painting of St Stephen, which he finiſhed in 1651, raiſed his reputation to the higheſt pitch. Soon after, the king made him his firſt painter, conferred on him the order of St Michael, and ſpent hours every day to ſee him work, while he was painting the family of Darius at Fontainbleau. About 1662, he began his five large pieces of the hiſtory of Alexander the Great, in which he is ſaid to have ſet the actions of that famous conqueror, in a more glorious light than Quintus Curtius hath done in his hiſtory. He procured ſeveral advantages for the royal academy of painting and ſculpture at Paris, and formed the plan of another for the ſtudents of his own nation at Rome. The king gave him the direction of all his works, particularly of his royal manufactory at the Gobelins, where he had a handſome houſe with a genteel ſalary. He had a vaſt inventive genius, which extended to arts of every kind. He was well acquainted with the manners and hiſtory of all nations; and was the author of two treatiſes; 1. on phyſiognomy, and 2. on the different characters of the paſſions. His talents as a painter, except for landſcapes, were univerſal. His compoſitions command the admiration of the niceſt judges. The pieces that gained him the greateſt reputation were, thoſe which he finiſhed at Fontainbleau, the great ſtair caſe at Verſailles, and eſpecially the grand gallery there, which is the laſt of his works, and is ſaid to have taken him up 14 years. He died at Paris in 1690.

(3.) * BRUN, BRAN. BROWN, BOURN, BURN, are all derived from the Saxon, *born*, *bourn*, *brunna*, *burna*; all ſignifying a river or brook. *Gibſon.*

BRUNANBURGH, an ancient town of Yorkſ. now called BROUGH, where a bloody battle was fought between K. Athelſtan, and an army of Scots, Danes, Welſh, and Iriſh: A. D. 938.

BRUNDAL, or BRUNDALL, two villages: 1. in Lancaſh. 8 S. W. of Houghton Tower: 2. three m. E. of Norwich.

BRUNDEN, in Eſſex, near Sudbury.

BRUNDISIUM, or BRUNDUSIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Calabria, with the beſt harbour in Italy. It was a very ancient town, and belonged originally to the Salentines; but was taken by the Romans about A. A. C. 256. It is now called BRINDISI; which ſee.

BRUNDISH, in Suffolk, 4 m. N. E. of Framlingham.

BRUNDISH-HALL, in Eſſex, 2 m. from Onger.

BRUNDUSIUM. See BRINDISI and BRUNDISIUM.

BRUNELLA, in botany, the plant ſelf-heal. See SANICULA.

* BRUNETT. *n. ſ.* [*brunette*, French.] A woman with a brown complexion.—Your fair women therefore thought of this faſhion, to inſult the olives and the *brunetts*. *Addiſon.*

BRUNETTO, a town in Piedmont.

BRUNFELSIA. See BRUNSFELSIA.

BRUNIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants. The flowers are aggregate or cluſtered; the filaments inſerted into the heels of the petals; the ſtigma is bifid: the ſeeds are ſolitary, and the capſule is bilocular. There are 8 ſpecies.

* BRUNION. *n. ſ.* [*brugnon*, Fr.] A ſort of fruit between a plum and a peach. *Trevoux.*

BRUNLESS, a village of S. Wales, in Brecknockſhire, near Crick-Howel.

BRUNN, a village in Howden, Yorkſhire.

(1.) BRUNO, [*i. e.* brown, Ital.] the Latin name aſſumed

ed by the late Dr Brown, in his *Elementa Medicinæ*; whence the epithet BRUNONIAN.

BRUNO, Jordano, an atheiſtical writer, born at Nola in Naples. About A. D. 1582 he began to call in queſtion ſome of the tenets of the Roman church, which occaſioned his retiring to Geneva; but after two years ſtay there, he expreſſed his averſion to Calviniſm in ſuch a manner that he was expelled the city. After having ſtaid ſome time at Lyons, Thouloufe, and Paris, he came to London, and continued two years in the houſe of Mr Caſtleneau the French ambaſſador. He was very well received by Q. Elizabeth and the greater part of the court. His principal friends were Sir Philip Sidney and Sir Fulk Greville. With theſe and ſome others of their club, Bruno held aſſemblies; but as they treated of ſubjects of a very delicate nature, which could not ſuit the taſte or capacity of every body, they kept the doors always ſhut, and none but ſelect perſons were admitted into their company. At Sir Philip's requeſt, he compoſed his *Spaccio della Beſtia Trionfante*, which was printed in 8vo, 1584, and dedicated to that gentleman. This work, which is remarkable for nothing but its impiety, is ſpoken of in the Spectator, N° 389, ſold at an auction in London for 30l. From England he went to Wittemberg, and from thence to Prague, where he printed ſome tracts, in which he openly eſpouſed his atheiſtical principles. After viſiting ſome other towns in Germany, he made a tour to Italy; where he was apprehended by the inquiſition, tried, condemned, and refuſing to recant, was burnt at the ſtake, Feb. 9, 1600.

BRUNONIAN, *adj.* belonging to the new medical ſyſtem of Dr Brown.

BRUNONIANS, *n. ſ.* the followers of Dr Brown's ſyſtem, or practice of medicine.

BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, the ſyſtem of medicine diſcovered by the late Dr Brown, and explained at large in his *Elements of Medicine*. It might appear proper to give an account of this ſyſtem under the general article MEDICINE; but the new ſyſtem differs ſo widely from all former ſyſtems of that ſcience, that we think it more conſiſtent with propriety to delineate it under its own proper title. The following will give a ſufficient idea of the outlines of this doctrine, to ſuch as are unacquainted with it: and for its minutiæ we muſt refer to the Dr's own works, and thoſe of his diſciples, Dr Jones, &c. See § 4—10.

BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, ACCOUNT OF THE. The human body, particularly the ſyſtem of ſolids it conſiſts of, is a form of living matter, whoſe characteriſtics are ſenſation and motion. The property of being affected by external powers is named *excitability*; the agents, *ſtimuli*, or exciting powers; the reſult *excitement*. Without this property, (excitability,) the body would be dead inert matter: By this property it becomes living matter; by this property, called into action by the exciting powers, it becomes a living ſyſtem. While the *ſtimuli* act on the *excitability* with a ſufficient degree of power, then is the pleaſant ſenſation of health; when they raiſe the excitement above this point, or depreſs it below it, diſeaſe takes place: when the ſtimuli ceaſe to act, or the power to feel their power, death enſues. EXCITABILITY is a property of living matter, peculiar and inherent, but it is a property which Dr Brown did not pretend to explain. He left it as Sir Iſaac Newton did his *Attraction*, as a property not to be inveſtigated. Of this energy or power, there is aſſigned to every living ſyſtem, at the commencement of life, a certain quantity or proportion; but its quantity differs in each, and in the ſame body it is found to change, for the excitability, according to circumſtances, may be 'abundant, increaſed, accumulated, ſuperfluous, exhauſted, conſumed, &c.' The STIMULI, or exciting powers are of two claſſes: External, and Internal. The external ſtimuli are heat, light, ſound, air, and motion; food, drink, medicines, and whatever elſe is taken into the body, not excepting poiſons and contagions. The internal are the functions of the body, the blood, the ſecretions, muſcular exertion, and finally the powers of the mind, as ſenſation, paſſion, and thought. Dr Beddoes, we know not for what reaſon, ranks "the blood and ſecreted fluids" among the *external* ſtimuli. EXCITEMENT is Life; the natural movements of the machine, and the functions reſulting from theſe, as ſenſation, reflection, and voluntary motion; which as they immediately flow from the exciting powers, are vigorous when they are ſtrong, languid when they are weak, and ceaſe when they are taken away entirely. Thus our body is continually moved by external agents and life is a *forced ſtate*. Our weak frame has an unceaſing tendency to diſſolution, which is oppoſed only by the inceſſant application of *exciting powers*; which are the ſources of life, and which, being partially or completely withdrawn, are immediately followed by diſeaſe or death. It is alſo a principle of this doctrine, that "all ſtimuli by acting on the excitability exhauſt it." Thus the ſtimuli of food, air, motion, paſſion, and thought, have ſupported the body through the labours of the day: they have ſupported the functions by acting on the excitability; in the evening it is exhauſted by their continued operation; they have no longer the ſame power; the functions fail; we ſink into reſt and continue in ſleep, unaffected by ſtimuli, renewing by ſleep that excitability, which had been exhauſted by the labours or by the pleaſures of the day; we riſe with reſtored excitability; we feel a new power of excitement in every object around us; we are refreſhed in the morning, and languid at night, and our whole life is an alternation of motion and reſt, of action and ſleep, of apathy and pleaſure, of waſting our excitability by day in labour, or enjoyment, and of recruiting it by night by the abſtraction of all ſtimulant powers. The ſame philoſophy extends to the duration of life: In childhood excitability is abundant in *quantity*, as being little exhauſted but it is low in power, becauſe the tender ſtamina and accumulated excitability of children can neither ſuffer nor ſupport high excitement. Their excitability is ſo abundant, that they are eaſily ſupported by weak diet and low exciting powers, and therefore moſt of their diſeaſes are diſeaſes of weakneſs. In youth and manhood the excitability is yet entire, the ſtamina are ſtrong; the powerful ſtimuli are applied, and high paſſions prevail: theſe are the periods of vigour, and the era

of inflammatory diſeaſe. In old age the ſtamina are worn, the excitability is exhauſted, the common ſtimuli have loſt their power, and the ſyſtem begins to decline; we have weakneſs of body, imbecillity of mind, and aſthenic diſeaſes. We may, laſt of all have recourſe to more generous diet, and raiſe the ſtimulant powers by ſubſtituting wine to water, or brandy to wine; thus perhaps excitement may be a while ſupported, and life prolonged; but in a few years, theſe alſo fail. This doctrine farther teaches, that our body is never moved but by exciting powers. None but ſtimuli affect our ſyſtem: That there are *direct* SEDATIVES in nature is eſteemed an unphiloſophical and vulgar error. In ſtimuli there is a gradation, which being relative to the ſyſtem, deceives our ſenſe; for, as ſome ſtimuli are powerful, and others weak, a low ſtimulus, applied after a more powerful one, will ſtimulate leſs than the former; will allay the motions, which the former had excited, and will, therefore, be named a *ſedative*. Take heat as an example of this: *cold* is but an abſtraction of *heat*; yet it is thought a poſitive exiſtence; and cold is named a *ſedative*, and heat a *ſtimulant* power. To detect this deception of ſenſe, plunge the right hand into water at the heat of 150°; the left into melting ſnow; withdraw both, and plunge them at once into water at 100°, it will prove at once ſtimulant and ſedative; cold or ſedative to the right hand, and hot or ſtimulant to the left. Here we clearly ſee, that the effect is not always the ſame, but is proportioned to the ſtate of the body; and as cold is thus only an abſtraction of heat, ſo is *fear* an abſtraction of *confidence*, *grief* of *joy*, *diſappointment* of *hope*; &c. ſo is *faſting* an abſtraction of the wonted ſtimulus of *food*, *bleeding* of the uſual ſtimulus of *blood*, and ſo on. Health, then, is the due operation of ſtimuli on a well regulated excitability, producing a moderate excitement, and a pleaſant ſenſation; moving the whole ſyſtem with a juſt degree of power, and giving all the functions their due energy and tone. ASTHENIC DISEASE, diſeaſe of debility, or of weakneſs, is the reſult of ſtimuli applied in a low degree, or of the ſyſtem leſs eaſily excited. STHENIC DISEASE, or diſeaſe of ſtrength, is the reſult of ſtimuli applied in too great a degree, or of a ſyſtem too ſuſceptible of excitement. The firſt is depreſſion of excitement below the healthy ſtate: it produces languid motions and functions; and requires excitement for its cure. The ſecond is a ſtrong ſtate of the ſyſtem, wound up to too high a pitch of excitement. It is an exuberance of health and ſtrength. It is marked by violent movements, and is cured by abſtraction of ſtimuli. Thus are all our maladies either diſeaſes of weakneſs or of exceſſive ſtrength, and this is the foundation of the *Brunonian ſcale*, (ſee *Plate* XLVII.) which has for its middle point *health*; below that are arranged the diſeaſes of weakneſs; above it the diſeaſes of exceſſive ſtrength; and in both diviſions of the ſcale, diſeaſes are ſo arranged, that the worſt forms are ſet off at the greateſt diſtance from the middle point, to mark them as the wideſt deviations from the healthy ſtate. To illuſtrate ſtill further the nature of theſe two forms of diſeaſe, we muſt obſerve their reſpective cauſes. *Sthenia*, or exceſſive ſtrength, is ſimply the effect of many or powerful ſtimuli acting on the ſyſtem. *Aſthenia* is the immediate effect of withdrawing theſe; but aſthenia is not ſo ſimple as its oppoſite ſtate, for debility varies in its nature according to its various cauſes. 1. By abſtraction of exciting powers is produced a ſpecies of debility, named *direct*. 2. By long or violent application of ſtrong exciting powers, the excitability is exhauſted; both the excitement and the ſtrength fail: this ſpecies of debility is named *indirect*. 3. When the exciting powers are withdrawn, and the direct debility produced, it is at the ſame time combined with a new ſpecies. By merely withdrawing the ſtimuli, ſuch weakneſs would be produced as ſhould be temporary only, and might be done away by reſtoring the uſual exciting powers; but where the ſtimuli are withdrawn, excitability is accumulated, and when it is accumulated in an undue degree, it cannot bear the uſual ſtimuli, and will not give out the healthy degree of excitement. Thus DIRECT DEBILITY, cauſed by the abſence of exciting powers, is attended with *accumulation* of excitability. INDIRECT DEBILITY, cauſed by ſuperabundant ſtimuli, is attended with *exhauſted* excitability: The former is moſt eaſily cured, as we have but to apply ſtimuli, and raiſe the excitement; The latter is difficultly cured, for the excitability being in ſome degree exhauſted, the ſyſtem is leſs ſuſceptible, and has leſs excitability to operate upon for the reſtoration of health. The abſtraction of ſtimuli is an immediate cauſe of weakneſs; high excitement is a ſtate of the ſyſtem which the excitability cannot long endure without being exhauſted, ſo that ſtimuli themſelves produce ultimate weakneſs. Therefore, ſince high excitement is temporary only, and has but one cauſe, while weakneſs is a permanent ſtate, and has many cauſes, the diſeaſes of debility muſt in a very great proportion exceed in number the diſeaſes of exceſſive ſtrength; and diſeaſes of exceſſive ſtrength muſt ultimately end there. If 97 of 100 diſeaſes ariſe from weakneſs, the concluſion muſt be of the firſt importance in practice. Hence it is a general principle in this ſyſtem, that though there be many individual diſeaſes, there are but two ſtates of the ſyſtem, and two general methods of cure; and though it admits the difference between local and general diſeaſes, yet it does not allow that a local ſthenic diſeaſe can exiſt for any time along with a general aſthenic diatheſis, or *vice verſa*. For the cure of all thoſe diſeaſes which ſtand above the point of health, nothing more is required than withdrawing the ſtimuli of food, drink, heat, &c. or by evacuation, as bleeding, vomiting, and purging. For all thoſe diſeaſes which ſtand below the point of health, we uſe the natural ſtimuli of diet, beef tea, wine, heat, &c. or the leſs natural ſtimuli of the pharmacopœia, the chief of which are opium, æther, volatile alkali, muſk, camphor, brandy, gin, &c. The cauſe of the one form of diſeaſe is the cure of the other; in the one we raiſe the excitement till it arrives at the point of health, in the other we depreſs it to the ſame point; having effected this by the powers of medicine, we keep it there by attention to regimen, and the great point in the Brunonian practice is to hit the point of health,

BRUNONIAN SYSTEM of MEDICINE.

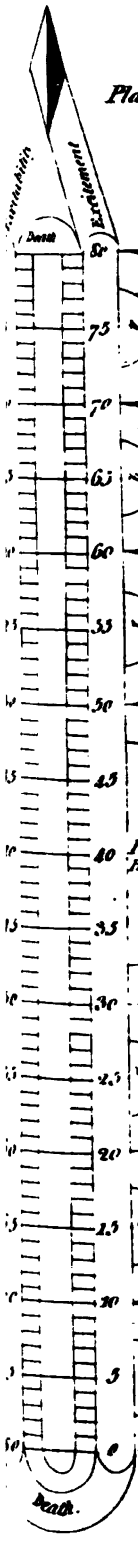
Plate XLVII.

Scale *of* Excitability *and* Excitement;

Planned by Dr John Brown, *and first drawn up by* Dr Samuel Lynch *of Antigua,*

And prefixed to his inaugural Dissertation in 1786.

NB. *Dr. Lynch's Causes & Cure are somewhat abridged.*



Diseases.		Causes & Cure.
Apoplexy. *Palsy.* *Pestilence.* *Malignant Fever.* *Typhoid Cynanche.*	*Confluent Small Pox.* *Dropsy of the Breast.* *Pulmonary Consumption.* *Contagious Dysentery &c.*	*Indirect Debility from excessive stimuli.* Cure. *Opium. æther. Brandy. Bark; &c.*
Synocha. *Phrenzy.* *Inflam: Sorethroat.* *Small Pox.*	*Measles.* *Inflammation of the lungs.* *Dysentery.* *Madness &c.*	*Highly increased excitement.* Cure. *Spare. diet, cold bleeding, purging, emetics.*
Synochus. *Rheumatism.* *Catarrh.* *Scarlet Fever.*	*Miliary Fever.* *Chicken Pox.* *Inflammation of the Eyes &c.*	*Less increased excitement.* Cure. *To diminish the excitement as above in a less degree.*

The Degrees of health are marked in the scale between 30° & 50° because, unless at 40° perfect health does not take place. For as among the great variety of stimuli daily applied, there are some kinds of meat and drink and various passions of the mind, sometimes acting more severely, the excitement seldom attains the middle point, but for the most part varies between 35° and 50°

Diseases.		Causes & Cure.
Intermittent Fevers. *Simple Colic* *Deprived Digestion.* *Hypochondria.*	*Hysteria.* *Bleeding at the Nose* *Excessive flow of the Menses.* *Suppression of D°*	*Diminished excitement or direct debility.* Cure. *Opium. æther. Spirits. Wine. Port. &c.*
Rheumatalgia. *Cholera.* *Epilepsy.* *St. Vitus's dance.*	*Rickets.* *Spitting of Blood.* *Kings Evil &c.*	*Direct Debility.* Cure *as above with cautious use of the Stimuli.*
Typhous Fever. *Colic of Poictou.* *Gout.* *Tetanus.*	*Scurvy.* *Profuse flow of Urine.* *Dropsy.* *Amaurosis &c.*	*Direct Debility.* Cure. *as above, but with still more caution.*

health, neither to ſtop ſhort of this point, nor to paſs beyond it; for by either imprudence we may do much harm. By profuſion of ſtimuli we may convert a diſeaſe of weakneſs into a diſeaſe of inflammation; by too ſevere an abſtraction of ſtimuli, we may run into the oppoſite exceſs, converting into a diſeaſe of weakneſs what was originally a diſeaſe of violent inflammation. The uſe of ſtimuli in aſthenic diſeaſes is to be regulated by the cauſe. In all diſeaſes of indirect weakneſs, where excitability has been exhauſted, the ſtrength muſt be raiſed by the immediate application of the moſt powerful ſtimuli, which are to be ſlowly reduced in quantity or ſtrength, till moderate or ordinary ſtimuli ſuffice for ſupporting the excitement of health. In all caſes of direct weakneſs, where excitability is accumulated, the immediate application of powerful ſtimuli would deſtroy. Weak ſtimuli muſt be firſt uſed, the ſuperabundant excitability muſt be gradually waſted, and the doſes very ſlowly increaſed, till we riſe to the point of health.

(5.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, DANGER ARISING FROM THE. Dr Brown's frequent preſcriptions of wine, ſpirits, and opium, to his patients in aſthenic diſeaſes, with his repeated recommendations of theſe ſtimuli in his lectures and writings, raiſed a very general prejudice againſt his ſyſtem and practice, among thoſe who knew nothing of either, but from vague report. They alledged, that, though he might cure the diſeaſes of his patients, he would infallibly corrupt their morals, by habituating them to ſuch dangerous medicines. From theſe charges, Dr Beddoes vindicates the doctrine, in the following words: (p. elix.) "The Brunonian ſyſtem has been frequently charged with promoting intemperance; the objection is ſerious, but the view already given of its principles ſhews it to be groundleſs. No writer had inſiſted ſo much upon the dependence of life upon external cauſes, or ſo ſtrongly ſtated the inevitable conſequences of exceſs: And there are no means of promoting morality upon which we can rely, except the knowledge of the true relations between man and other beings or bodies. For by this knowledge we are directly led to ſhun what is hurtful, and purſue what is ſalutary.—It may be ſaid that the author's life diſproves the juſtneſs of this repreſentation. His life, however, only ſhews the ſuperior power of other cauſes, and of bad habits in particular; and I acknowledge the little efficacy of inſtruction when bad habits are formed. Its great uſe conſiſts in preventing their formation, for which reaſon, popular inſtruction in medicine would contribute—to the happineſs of the human ſpecies.—But though the principles of the ſyſtem did not correct the propenſities of its inventor, it does not follow that they tend to produce the ſame propenſities in others." On the contrary, what ſtronger motive of temperance can philoſophy itſelf inculcate, than the Brunonian doctrine does, when it teaches, that every act of intemperance and exceſs tends to exhauſt the very principle of life?

(6.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, IMPERFECTIONS OF THE. Dr Beddoes, though he ſeems to be a decided Brunonian, has nevertheleſs, with great candour as well as judgment, pointed out a few of the imperfections of the new doctrine. 1. He obſerves, that, as Dr Brown "aſſumes, that a certain portion of excitability is originally aſſigned to every living ſyſtem, by his very aſſumption, he denies its continual production, ſubſequent diffuſion and expenditure." Dr Beddoes thinks that the brain is deſtined to ſecrete a ſucceſſive ſupply of this principle. 2. He next objects againſt the Dr's "uniformity of operation in ſtimulants."—"Heat and wine (he juſtly obſerves) can never act in the ſame manner, for no perſon is intoxicated by heat." He adds, "Had it been once allowed by Brown, that the different conſtituent parts of the body bear a different relation to the ſame agents, he muſt have admitted the operation of ſpecific ſtimulants to an unlimited extent." On the ſubject of *Predispoſition to Diſeaſe*, he obſerves, that "though facts have been noted, the principle lies involved in total obſcurity. Brown does not purpoſely elude the difficulty, but his principles lead him beſide it; and we may doubt, whether the term *predispoſition* ought in ſtrict propriety to have appeared in his Elements; for predispoſition is with him a ſlight diſeaſe, differing only in degree from that into which the perſon predispoſed falls." 4. "There are ſeveral other opinions, (he adds,) which, in a complete reviſal of the Brunonian ſyſtem, would require particular examination, ſuch as his doctrine concerning hereditary diſeaſes," (which Brown denies the exiſtence of,) "the peculiar ſtate of ſthenic inflammation, and the nature of the paſſions." 5. And in a note upon Brown's preface, he ſtiles the Dr's opinion, that 'nearly all the diſeaſes of children depend on debility,'—"a groſs and dangerous error," though he admits that "thouſands of them are cut off at an early period of life, and tens of thouſands kept languiſhing in miſery by aſthenic diſeaſes, for want of the neceſſaries of life." This admiſſion of Dr Beddoes might have ſuperſeded his criticiſm. Dr Brown did not ſay *all* diſeaſes of children were aſthenic. But if thouſands and tens of thouſands are, they may be ſurely ſaid to be *nearly* all ſuch. Neither Dr Brown nor any man in his ſenſes would preſcribe ſtimulants in croup, peripneumony, or the firſt ſtage of hooping cough; though we have known the moſt ſpeedy and effectual cures performed by opium in this laſt diſeaſe, after the ſthenic diatheſis was gone.

(7.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, OBJECTIONS TO THE. The following are among the principal objections that have been urged by the opponents of this doctrine. 1. Medicines and the other exciting powers do not act as mere ſtimuli *only*. If they did, they muſt have all one common nature and differ only in degree; whereas they differ widely in their effects: one produces hilarity, as wine, &c. another coma, as opium; one poiſon produces phrenzy, another palſy, a third convulſions, &c. If ipecacuanha operate on the ſtomach, jalap on the bowels, cream of tartar on the kidneys, and mercury on the ſalivary glands, they muſt have ſome peculiar or *ſpecific* qualities ſuperadded to their ſtimulant power, and the latter muſt be but a ſubordinate effect. If bark cure an intermittent fever, or mercury the venereal diſeaſe, which brandy, opium, and even æther cannot, then it is the duty of the phyſician to diſcover theſe ſecret, peculiar,

and inexplicable powers, and to operate by them, without regard to their ſtimulant effects. 2. In oppoſition to the Brunonian doctrine, that there is not a *direct ſedative* in nature, it is argued, that fixed air, and the contagion of fever, dyſentery, the plague, &c. are direct ſedatives, which do not ſtimulate in the ſmalleſt degree. 3. It has been urged, that if the new doctrine be true, there ought to be no ſuch thing as an *incurable* diſeaſe. All diſeaſes, whether above or below the point of health ought to yield to the abſtraction or application of the ſtimuli, as long as the excitability is not totally exhauſted. 4. In ſhort, it has been argued, that if the Brunonian ſyſtem be true, there is no uſe for *Noſology* or *Phyſiology*; very little for *Chemiſtry* or *Botany*, as a few ſtimuli with an emetic and cathartic or two are ſufficient to ſupply a Brunonian Laboratory; and not much even for *Anatomy* itſelf, that grand foundation of medical knowledge. But whatever deficiencies, imperfections, or inexplicable myſteries, may ſtill adhere to this ſyſtem, it is allowed, even by its opponents, to have contributed greatly to the improvement of medical practice; to have conſiderably diminiſhed the former too frequent preſcriptions of copious bleeding on almoſt every occaſion; and to have leſſened the number of evacuant doſes, and increaſed that of corroborant medicines, in many diſeaſes of weakneſs, where the oppoſite practice was manifeſtly injurious. And it is allowed on all hands to be the duty of every medical practitioner to examine it without prejudice or partiality.

(8.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, ORIGIN OF THE. Some have aſſerted that Dr Brown borrowed the firſt idea of his doctrine from ſome hints thrown out by his then intimate friend Dr Cullen; but Dr Beddoes, after quoting the paſſage from Cullen's Inſtitutions, (parag. cxxx.) where *excitement* is mentioned, ſhews plainly that when Dr Cullen wrote it, "his thoughts were turned from the living body to an electrical machine," and that, "his idea of excitement has therefore nothing in common with that of Brown."—Others have affirmed, that Dr Brown only revived the old doctrine of the METHODIC SECT, and that Themiſon was the diſcoverer, and Theſſalus and Soranus the improvers, of the doctrine now called *Brunonian*. But nothing can be more diſtant from the truth than this. The methodic doctrine of *ſtriture* and *relaxation* bears no analogy to Brown's definitions of ſthenic and aſthenic diſeaſes; and the doctrine of SPASM itſelf is not more oppoſite to the Brunonian ſyſtem, than Themiſon's notion of a *third* claſs of diſeaſes, which partook of both ſtricture and relaxation. The truth is incontrovertible, that the diſcovery is wholly Brown's own. The cauſe which led to it is narrated by himſelf in the introduction to his *Elements of Medicine*. In his 36th year he had his firſt fit of the gout, and 6 years after, his ſecond—both when he had been living more abſtemiouſly than uſual. This diſeaſe being "ſaid to depend on plethora, and exceſſive vigour, vegetable aliment was enjoined, wine was forbidden, and the careful execution of that plan of cure was promiſed to be rewarded with exemption from the diſeaſe. A whole year paſſed in [illegible]nce to this regimen. During this year, inſtead of exemption from the diſeaſe he had no leſs than four fits, exceedingly violent and painful, and of very long duration. In ſhort the whole year, except 14 days, was divided between limping and excruciating pain." From this tedious and fruitleſs attempt to cure the diſeaſe, he began to reaſon thus: "If according to the theory, over-proportion of blood and exceſs of vigour were the cauſe of the diſeaſe, how were ſuch diſtreſſing ſymptoms to be explained? Why had not the diſeaſe made its firſt appearance 12 or 15 years before, at a time when there was in reality more blood and vigour in the ſyſtem? Why did it only come on after a reduction of diet, conſiderable both in degree and duration? Why had ſo great an interval, during which he had recurred to his uſual full diet, intervened between the firſt fit and theſe recent ones? And why had the diſeaſe twice, almoſt inſtantaneouſly, come on, after the change of a full diet to a ſpare one?" From this he was led to conſider the effects of food, drink, &c. upon the human body;—hence to conclude, that the gout was a diſeaſe of debility, and from thence to try the effect of an invigorating plan of regimen; which proved ſo effectual, as to reduce the diſeaſe within the two following years, in the proportion of 1 to 48. Thus from perſonal experience of the inefficacy of the former medical practice in the gout, he was led to review the whole old ſyſtem of medicine, and having thus diſcovered the firſt principles of his new theory, to extend and apply them to the whole ſcience."

(9.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, PROPAGATION OF THE. Of the rapid and extenſive propagation of the New Doctrine, Dr Beddoes gives the following account: (p. clxiii.) "Three years ago, (ſays he,) I had occaſion to obſerve, that the opinions of Brown had been ſo widely diffuſed by oral communication, as to affect the whole practice of medicine in Great Britain. In pamphlets recommending repeated doſes of opium to ſupport excitement, and in other publications, it would be eaſy to detect attempts to purloin his language and ideas; but it is unneceſſary, for though literature has always been infeſted by a race of pilferers, original genius has ſeldom been injured by their diſhoneſt practices. Brown cannot now be defrauded of his juſt reputation. His writings have lately been republiſhed, and are gaining credit on the continent of Europe. In America his ſuperiority to preceding ſyſtematic authors, appears to be acknowledged alike by ſtudents and profeſſors." Among theſe he quotes in a note Dr "Ruſh on the yellow fever, and ſeveral inaugural Diſſertations lately publiſhed at Philadelphia:" after which he adds, "Since the preceding pages were printed, I have received further indubitable proofs of the aſcendancy which the truths, promulgated by Brown, are gaining over men's minds in different parts of Europe. A tranſlation of his "OBSERVATIONS," under the title of *Compendio della nuova dottrina medica di G. Brown*, was publiſhed at Pavia in 1792. It has been ſince republiſhed at Venice, and ſo has Moſcati's edition of the *Elementa*. The tranſlation is by Dr Raſori, who has prefixed a ſenſible introduction, and added many judicious notes. In a letter, accompanying a copy of his tranſlation, Dr

Dr Rasori says, "In the University of Pavia, undoubtedly one of the first in Europe, there is hardly a student endowed with talents, who is not a Brunonian. The doctrine begins equally to spread in Germany. Many of the periodical publications of that country have noticed it, and the *Elementa* have lately been published there. A friend at Genoa assures me, that several surgeons to French men of war have informed him, that Brown is known and much admired in France. In the University of Pavia, Brown is in high esteem even with some of the most respectable professors; and in other parts of Italy, I can assert from my own knowledge, that old physicians have not refused their sanction to many of the Brunonian principles."

(10.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, VALUE AND ADVANTAGES OF THE. Having taken notice of the imperfections of the New Doctrine, (§ 6.) as well as of the principal objections to it, (§ 7.) we would not do justice either to it, or the reader, if we were to pass over its peculiar merits and advantages. "The distinguishing merit of Brown (says Beddoes,) is obvious: he avoided all false analogies, and confined himself within the proper sphere of observation for a physician. Hence if he has not always discovered the truth, he is seldom forsaken by the spirit of philosophy.—Before him investigations relative, to medicine, had been carried on as rationally as if to discover the qualities of the horse, the naturalist were to direct his attention to the movements of a windmill."—"In forming an estimate" of the value of his system, the reader "should have before him, 1. The difficulty of emancipating the mind from inveterate and accredited error. 2. The much greater difficulty of giving a new form to a complicated and obscure science." He afterwards adds, "Whatever errors Brown may have committed in the application of his principles, and however short his doctrines may fall of a perfect system of medicine, I will venture to predict, that his credit on the continent will remain unshaken. The introduction of his opinions will have a most beneficial influence upon those by whom they are adopted, as well as upon those by whom they are rejected. Brunonians will not imitate the stupidity of the disciples of certain antient philosophers, but exercise their reason in expunging, adding, and correcting, as experience shall dictate. With regard to Anti Brunonians a recent example will explain my meaning. When Lavoisier first announced his system, the chemists who were most scandalized by it, found themselves obliged to revise their whole stock of facts and deductions; the immediate consequence was an entire change in their opinions. Though they would not go over to Lavoisier, they could not adhere to Stahl, but reluctantly abandoned half their errors. The dissemination of the Brunonian doctrine will bring about the same thorough lustration of opinions in medicine, and the most pernicious among the prevailing prejudices will be relinquished without a contest. The reader may estimate what it is to have put so many nations into the right path of medical investigation." Nor is Dr Beddoes the only English physician who has expressed his approbation of the New Doctrine. Dr Dewell of Malmsbury, in a small treatise upon Phlogiston, published about 1785, stiles "the Brunonian system—a system founded on just principles, and scouted only by the interested and uninformed." And Dr Toulmin, in his Instruments of Medicine, after stiling Brown "equal in his useful researches to the greatest character, that any age has yet produced,"—says of the system, "The world will profit by the light it in vain endeavoured to extinguish."

BRUNSBUTTLE, a sea-port town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Holstein, seated at the mouth of the Elbe; it is 13 m. N. W. of Gluckstadt; and subject to Denmark. Lon. 9. 2. E. Lat. 54. 2. N.

BRUNSFELSIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. The corolla is funnel-shaped, and very long; and the fruit an unilocular polyspermous berry. There is but one species, *viz.*

BRUNSFELSIA AMERICANA. It rises 6 or 8 feet high, has a woody branching rough stem, garnished with oblong entire leaves on footstalks, and large whitish flowers by threes or fours at the ends of the branches, succeeded by round saffron-coloured soft fruit. It may be raised from seeds sown in pots in the spring, and plunged in a bark bed. It may also be propagated by cuttings planted in pots in the same season, plunging them also in a bark bed or other hot-bed under glasses. The plants must always remain in the stove.

BRUNSLOW, a village in Shropshire, between Barlow and Lidbury.

BRUNSTED, in Norfolk, 2 m. S.E. of Ashford.

BRUNSTONE CASTLE, an ancient ruinous fort in the county of Mid-Lothian, and parish of Pennycuick.

(I.) BRUNSWICK, a city of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and capital of the duchy, N° II. § 3. It is composed of 5 towns, *viz.* the Old Town, the New Town, the Hagen or Burg, the Old Wieck, and the Sack, which makes it a large place, but the houses are almost all built of wood. There are several churches, one of which is an ancient Gothic building, but the appearance of its antiquity is almost absorbed by the repairs it has undergone. Brunswick is a fortified place, and would require a numerous army to besiege, and not a few men to defend it. It is of a square form, divided in the middle by the river Ocker. It is about two miles in circumference, and is strongly fortified. On the ramparts is a mortar piece of brass, 10 feet 6 inches long, and 9 feet 2 inches in circumference. It weighs 1800 quintals, and has 93 quintals of iron in its carriages. It will carry a ball of 730 pounds weight to the distance of 33,000 paces, and throw a bomb of a thousand weight; but requires 52 pounds of powder for a charge. This city is the residence of the duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle. The inhabitants of the city and parts adjacent carry on a considerable trade with Bohemia. Brunswick mum is well known in England; a small sort of which is the common drink of the inhabitants of the city. The religion is the Lutheran, and the people observe it very strictly. The peasants are sober and laborious, but clownish and heavy; however, as they are robust and strong, they make

good

good ſoldiers. The elector of Hanover is ſtyled *duke of Brunſwick*, though he has no property in, nor dominion over this city, which belongs to the duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle. The number of inhabitants is about 24,000; and the whole income of the duke is eſtimated at 130,000 l. The academy of Brunſwick, Dr Moore informs us, has been new-modelled, and the plan of education improved, by the attention, and under the patronage of the hereditary prince. Students now reſort to this academy from many parts of Germany; and there are generally ſome young gentlemen from Britain ſent to be educated here. Such of them as are intended for a military life, will not find ſo many advantages united at any other place on the continent, as at the Academy of Brunſwick. They will here be under the protection of a family partial to the Britiſh nation;—every branch of ſcience is taught by maſters of known abilities;—the young ſtudents ſee garriſon duty regularly performed, and may by the intereſt of the prince obtain liberty to attend the reviews of the Pruſſian troops at Magdeburg and Berlin. They will have few temptations to expence, in a town where they can ſee no examples of extravagance; few opportunities of diſſipation, and none of groſs debauchery. The fortifications at Brunſwick were of great utility in the war before the laſt, and on one occaſion they ſaved the town from being pillaged, and afforded prince Frederick an opportunity of performing an action, which it is imagined gave him more joy than 20 victories. This happened in 1761, ſoon after the battle of Kirch Denkern, when duke Ferdinand protected Hanover, not by conducting his army into that country, and defending it directly, as the enemy ſeemed to expect, and probably wiſhed; but by diverſion, attacking with ſtrong detachments, commanded by the hereditary prince, their magazines in Heſſe, and thus drawing their attention from Hanover to that quarter. While the duke lay encamped at Willhemſtall, watching the motions of Broglio's army, the marechal being greatly ſuperior in numbers, ſent a body of 20,000 men, under prince Xavier of Saxony, who took poſſeſſion of Wolfenbuttle, and ſoon after inveſted Brunſwick. Prince Ferdinand, anxious to ſave his native city, ventured to detach 5000 of his army, ſmall as it was, under his nephew Frederick, aſſiſted by general Luckner, with orders to haraſs the enemy, and endeavour to raiſe the ſiege. The young prince while on his march, ſent a ſoldier with a letter to the governor, which was wrapped round a bullet, and which the ſoldier was to ſwallow in caſe of his being taken by the enemy.—He had the good fortune to get ſafe into the town. The letter appriſed the commander of the garriſon of the prince's approach, and particulariſed the night and hour when he expected to be at a certain place near the town, requiring him to favour his entrance. In the middle of the night appointed, the prince fell ſuddenly on the enemy's cavalry, who, unſuſpicious of his approach, were encamped careleſsly within a mile of the town. They were immediately diſperſed, and ſpread ſuch an alarm among the infantry, that they alſo retreated with conſiderable loſs. Early in the morning the young prince entered Brunſwick, amidſt the acclamations of his fellow citizens, whom he had relieved from the horrors of a ſiege. The hereditary prince having deſtroyed the French magazines in Heſſe, had been recalled by his uncle, and ordered to attempt the relief of Brunſwick. While he was advancing with all poſſible ſpeed, and had got within a few leagues of the town, he received the news of the ſiege being raiſed. On his arrival at his father's palace, he found his brother Frederick at table, entertaining the French officers, who had been taken priſoners the preceding night. Brunſwick is ſeated on the Ocker, 55 miles W. of Magdeburg, and 30 S. of Zell. Lon. 10. 42. E. Lat. 52. 25. N.

(II.) BRUNSWICK, a country of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, bounded on the N. by the duchy of Lunenburg, on the W. by the circle of Weſtphalia, on the S. by Heſſe, and the territory of Piechfield, and on the E. by Thuringia, with the principalities of Anhalt and Halberſtadt, and the duchy of Magdeburg. The rivers are the Weſer, the Ocker, and the Lyne, and it is fertile both in corn and paſtures. It is divided into 2 counties and 4 duchies; viz.

1. BRUNSWICK CALENBERG, and
2. BRUNSWICK GRUBENHAGEN, } belonging to the elector of Hanover, and including the duchy of Gottingen:

3. BRUNSWICK, PROPER, and
4. BRUNSWICK WOLFENBUTTLE, } ſubject, along with the two counties of Rheinſtein and Blankenberg, to the D. of Wolfenbuttle.

(III.) BRUNSWICK, a city of the United States, in New Jerſey, incorporated in 1784. It is ſituated on the S. W. bank of Rariton river, 12 miles above Perth-Amboy. Its ſituation is low and unpleaſant, being under a high hill, which riſes at the back of the town. The ice, on the breaking up of the river in winter, frequently lodges on the ſhallow fording place, juſt oppoſite the town, and forms a temporary dam, which makes the water riſe many feet above its uſual height, and overflow the ground floors of the houſes that are not guarded againſt this inconvenience by elevated foundations. The inhabitants are beginning to build on the pleaſant hill above the town. They have a conſiderable inland trade, and many ſmall veſſels belonging to the port: with a flouriſhing college, called Queen's College. This city is 19 miles N. E. of Philadelphia, and 35 S. W. of New York. Lon. 75. 0. W. Lat. 40. 20. N.

(IV.) BRUNSWICK, a county of Virginia, containing 12,827 inhabitants, of whom 6,776 are ſlaves. It is bounded N. by Dinwiddie, E. and S. E. by Greenſville, W. by Mecklenberg, and N. W. by Lunenberg. It is 38 miles in length, and 33 in breadth. A diſtrict court is held here the 29th of April and September, for the counties of Brunſwick, Greenſville, Lunenberg, and Mecklenburg; and a county court for Brunſwick the 4th Monday in every month. It is well watered by Nottaway, and Meherrin rivers.

(V.) BRUNSWICK, a maritime county of Wilmington diſtrict, North Carolina, and the moſt ſoutherly county in that ſtate. It is bounded E. by Cape-Fear river, which ſeparates it from New Hanover, N. by Bladen, S. W. by the ſtate of South Carolina, and S. by the Atlantic ocean. It contains

ontains 1,560 free inhabitants, and 1,511 ſlaves. n this county is the Wakkamaw, a beautiful lake bout 7 miles in length, and 5 in breadth; and a ttle ſouth of the lake, is Greenſwamp, a large ody of valuable rice land. The chief town is mithville.

(VI.) BRUNSWICK, a ſmall poſt-town of the nited States, in Maine diſtrict; ſituated in Cumerland county. It is 155 miles from Boſton, and 01 from Philadelphia.

(VII.) BRUNSWICK, a ſmall town of North Caolina; ſituated in the above county, on the W. de of Cape Fear river, about 9 miles N. of Fort ohnſon, and 17 S. W. of Wilmington. It was ormerly the reſidence of ſome of the regal goverors. Lon. 3. 13. W. Lat. 34. 0. N.

(VIII.) BRUNSWICK, a town of the United States, n Georgia, where the Turtle river enters St imon's ſound. It has a ſafe harbour, capable of ontaining a numerous fleet of men of war; and ven the bar, at the entrance, has depth enough or the largeſt. The town is regularly laid out, ut not yet completed. From its advantageous ituation, and the fertility of the back country, it romiſes to be hereafter one of the firſt trading owns in Georgia. It is 70 miles S. W. by W. of avannah. Lon. 81. 0. W. Lat. 31. 10. N.

(IX) BRUNSWICK FAMILY. The illuſtrious houſe of Brunſwick owes its origin to Azo II. of the family of Eſte, ſon of Hugo III. marquis of Ferara in Italy. Azo, who died in 1055, left by his wife Cunegonde, daughter and heireſs to Guelf III. duke of Bavaria, a ſon, Guelf IV. who was great-grandfather to Henry the Lyon. His ſon Guelf V. urnamed the Valiant, was created duke of Bavaria by the Emperor Henry II. His ſon, Guelf VI. married Matilda, the richeſt heireſs in Europe; but having no iſſue, his brother Henry the Black ſucceeded to his dominions. He died in 1125, having married Wulfhild daughter of Magnus, laſt duke of Saxony, of the Bulling family, by whom he had Henry the Proud, who ſucceeded to Bavaria in 1137; and he having married a daughter of the emperor Lotharius, his father-in-law granted him inveſtiture of Saxony, and meant him for his ſucceſſor in the empire; but this laſt he was diſappointed of. Dying in 1139, both Saxony and Bavaria devolved on his ſon Henry V. ſurnamed the Lyon. He married Maude, eldeſt daughter of Henry II. of England, and is conſidered as the founder of the Brunſwick family. It is remarkable, that our preſent ſovereign ſhould be deſcended from one of the beſt of the Engliſh monarchs, in whom were united the royal Anglo-Saxon and Norman blood. The dominions poſſeſſed by Henry the Lyon were the moſt extenſive of any prince of his time; but, having refuſed to aſſiſt the emperor Frederick Barbaroſſa, in a war againſt Pope Alexander III. all his former ſervices were forgotten; and in the diet of Wurtzburg in 1179 or 1180, he was proſcribed. The duchy of Bavaria was given to Otho count Wittlepatch, from whom is deſcended the preſent electoral family of Bavaria; the duchy of Saxony to Bernard Aſcanius, founder of the houſe of Anhalt; and all his other territories to different perſons. On this he retired to England; and by his father's interceſſion, Brunſwick and Lunenburgh were reſtored to him. His wife Maude died in 1189, and he in 1195. He left three ſons; but the two eldeſt not leaving any male iſſue, William, the third ſon, carried on the line of the family: and his ſon Otho was created duke of Brunſwick and Lunenburgh in 1235, by the emperor Ferdinand II. From him all the ſucceeding dukes of this family have deſcended. No family can boaſt of a line of princes who have more diſtinguiſhed themſelves, both by their political abilities and martial atchievements; and they are allied to all the principal families in Europe. The houſe of Brunſwick is divided into ſeveral branches. The preſent duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle is ſprung from the eldeſt; the duke of Brunſwick Zell was from the ſecond; and from this laſt ſprung the elector of Hanover.

(X.) BRUNSWICK, NEW, the N. W. diviſion of Nova Scotia, which, in 1784, was divided into two provinces. New Brunſwick is bounded on the W. of the river St Croix, by the ſaid river to its ſource, and by a line drawn due N. thence to the S. boundary of Canada; to the N. by the ſame boundary as far as the W. extremity of the bay of Chaleurs; to the E. by the ſaid bay to the gulf of St Lawrence to the bay called Bay Verte; to the S. by a line in the centre of the bay of Fundy, from the river St Croix to the mouth of the Muſquat river, by the ſaid river to its ſource, and thence by a due E. line acroſs the iſthmus into the Bay Verte to join the E. lot above deſcribed, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the coaſt. Since the concluſion of the American war, the emigration of loyaliſts to this province, from the United States has been very great.

* BRUNT. *n. ſ.* [*brunſt*, Dutch.] 1. Shock; violence.—Erona choſe rather to bide the *brunt* of war, than venture him. *Sidney.*—

God, who caus'd a fountain, at thy pray'r,
From the dry ground to ſpring, thy thirſt t' allay
After the *brunt* of battle. *Milton.*

—Faithful miniſters are to ſtand and endure the *brunt*: a common ſoldier may fly, when it is the duty of him that holds the ſtandard to die upon the place. *South.* 2. Blow; ſtroke.—

A wicked ambuſh which lay hidden long
In the cloſe covert of her guileful eyen,
Thence breaking forth, did thick about me throng,
Too feeble I t' abide the *brunt* ſo ſtrong. *Spenſ.*

The friendly rug preſerv'd the ground,
And headlong knight, from bruiſe or wound,
Like feather bed betwixt a wall
And heavy *brunt* of cannon-ball. *Hudibras.*

BRUNTHORP, a village in Lincolnſhire, 2 m. S. E. of Alford.

BRUNTISLAND. See BURNTISLAND.

BRUNTON, a village in Northumberland, near Dunſtaburg caſtle.

BRURY, a town of Ireland, in Limerick.

BRUSCHIUS, Gaſpar, a Latin hiſtorian and poet, born at Egra in Bohemia, in 1518. He was devoted to books from his childhood, and eſpecially to poetry, in which he gained ſo much reputation, that he attained to the poetical crown, to the dignity of poet laureat, and of count palatine. He wrote with prodigious facility; and his verſes are eaſy, and natural. He publiſhed Latin poems

on various ſubjects; the hiſtory of the biſhops and biſhoprics of Germany; of German monaſteries; and many other works, of which a catalogue is given in Geſner's *Bibliotheque*. He was very poor, ſubſiſting almoſt entirely by the benefactions of his poetical patrons, and by preſents from the abbots whoſe monaſteries he deſcribed. The liberality of ſome abbots at Baſil enabled him to buy a new ſuit of clothes; but when he found that appearing well dreſſed in the ſtreets procured him reſpect from the vulgar, he tore his new finery to pieces, "as ſlaves that had uſurped their maſter's honours." Bruſchius ſeems to have been too great a philoſopher for the age he lived in. He was murdered in the foreſt of Scalingenbach, between Rottemberg and Winſheim, by ſome gentlemen (it was ſuppoſed,) againſt whom he was about to write ſomething.

BRUSCIA, } in writers of the middle age, a
BRUSCUS, } ſmall thicket or coppice.

BRUSEBRIDGE, near Worſop, Nottingham.

(1.) * BRUSH. *n. ſ.* [*broſſe*, from *bruſcus*, Lat.] 1. An inſtrument to clean any thing, by rubbing off the dirt or ſoil. It is generally made of briſtles ſet in wood. 2. It is uſed for the larger and ſtronger pencils uſed by painters.—Whence comes all this rage of wit? this arming all the pencils and *bruſhes* of the town againſt me? *Stilling fleet.*

—With a ſmall *bruſh* you muſt ſmear the glue well upon the joint of each piece. *Moxon.* 3. A rude aſſault; a ſhock; rough treatment; which, by the ſame metaphor, we call a *ſcouring*.—

Let grow thy ſinews till their knots be ſtrong,
And tempt not yet the *bruſhes* of the war.
Shakeſpeare.

—It could not be poſſible, that, upon ſo little a *bruſh* as Waller had ſuſtained, he could not be able to follow and diſturb the king. *Clarendon.*—

Elſe when we put it to the puſh,
They had not giv'n us ſuch a *bruſh*. *Hudibras.*

(2.) BRUSH, [from *bruſcia*,] alſo denotes a ſmall thicket or coppice.

(3.) BRUSH, in electricity, denotes the luminous appearance of the electric matter iſſuing in a parcel of diverging rays from a point. Beccaria aſcribes this appearance to the force with which the electric fluid, going out of a point, divides the contiguous air, and paſſes through it to that which is more remote.

(4.) BRUSHES, METHOD OF MAKING. This is done by folding the hair or briſtle in two; and bringing it by means of a packthread, which is engaged in the fold, through the holes with which the wood is pierced all over, being afterwards faſtened therein with glue. When the holes are thus filled, the ends of the hair are cut to make the ſurface even.

(5.) BRUSH OF A FOX, among ſportſmen, ſignifies his drag or tail.

(6.) BRUSH, PAINTERS. See § 1. *def.* 2. The Chineſe painters bruſh conſiſts of the ſtalk of a plant; whoſe fibres being fretted at both ends, and tied again, ſerve for a bruſh.

(7.) BRUSH, SHEARMENS, is made of wild boar's briſtles; and ſerves to lay the wool or nap of cloth, after ſhearing it for the laſt time.

(8.) BRUSH, WIRE, is made of braſs or iron wires inſtead of hair. Theſe are uſed by ſilver-ſmiths and gilders, for ſcrubbing ſilver, copper, or braſs pieces, previous to the gilding of them.

(1.) * *To* BRUSH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſweep or rub with a bruſh.—If he be not in love with ſome woman, there is no believing old ſigns, he *bruſhes* his hat o' morning; what ſhould that bode? *Shakeſp.* 2. To ſtrike with quickneſs, as in bruſhing.—

The wrathful beaſt about him turned light,
And him ſo rudely paſſing by, did *bruſh*
With his long tail, that horſe and man to ground
did ruſh. *Spenſer's Fairy Queen.*
Has Somnus *bruſh'd* thy eyelids with his rod?
Dryden.
His ſon Cupavo *bruſh'd* the briny flood,
Upon his ſtern a brawny centaur ſtood. *Dryden.*
High o'er the billows flew the maſſy load,
And near the ſhip came thund'ring on the flood;
It almoſt *bruſh'd* the helm. *Pope.*

3. To paint with a bruſh.—You have commiſſioned me to paint your ſhop, and I have done my beſt to *bruſh* you up like your neighbours. *Pope.* 4. To carry away, by an act like that of bruſhing to ſweep.—

And from the boughs *bruſh* of the evil dew,
And heal the harms of thwarting thunder blew.
Milton.

—The receptacle of waters, into which the mouths of all rivers muſt empty themſelves, ought to have ſo ſpacious a ſurface, that as much water may be continually *bruſhed* off by the winds, and exhaled by the ſun, as, beſides what falls again, is brought into it by all the rivers. *Bentley.* 5. To move as the bruſh.—

A thouſand nights have *bruſh'd* their balmy wings
Over theſe eyes. *Dryden.*

(2.) * *To* BRUSH. *v. n.* 1. To move with haſte; a ludicrous word, applied to men.—

Nor wept his fate, nor caſt a pitying eye,
Nor took him down, but *bruſh'd* regardleſs by.
Dryden.
The French had gather'd all their force,
And William met them in their way;
Yet off they *bruſh'd*, both foot and horſe. *Prior.*

2. To fly over; to ſkim lightly.—

Nor love is always of a vicious kind,
But oft to virtuous acts inflames the mind,
Awakes the ſleepy vigour of the ſoul,
And, *bruſhing* o'er, adds motion to the pool.
Dryden.

* BRUSHER. *n. ſ.* [from *bruſh*.] He that uſes a bruſh.—Sir Henry Wotton uſed to ſay, that cynicks were like *bruſhers* of noblemen's cloaths. *Bacon.*

BRUSHFORD, a village in Devonſhire, S. of Winkley.

BRUSHING GALLOP, among jockies, denotes a briſk one: a horſe ſhould have his bruſhing gallop in a morning before watering.

BRUSHMENT, *n. ſ.* in old records, underwood.

* BRUSHWOOD. *n. ſ.* [from *bruſh* and *wood*. I know not whether it may not be corrupted from *browſe-wood*.] Rough, low, cloſe, ſhrubby thickets; ſmall wood fit for fire.—

It ſmokes, and then with trembling breath ſhe blows,

Till

Till in a cheerful blaze the flames aroſe.
With *bruſhwood*, and with chips, ſhe ſtrengthens theſe,
And adds at laſt the boughs of rotten trees.
Dryden.

* BRUSHY. *adj.* [from *bruſh.*] Rough or ſhaggy, like a bruſh.—I ſuſpected, that it might have proceeded from ſome ſmall unheeded drop of wood, wiped off by the *bruſhy* ſubſtance of the reve, from the knife wherewith it was cut. *Wotton.*

BRUSIARD, a village in Suffolk, 4 m. N. E. Framlingham.

BRUSK. *adj.* in heraldry, tawny.

BRUSKETH, a river in Cumberland, which runs into the Eden, near Carliſle.

BRUSSELS, a city of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, now the capital of the new department of Dyle. Under the Auſtrian government, it was the capital of Brabant, and generally the ſeat of the governor. The ſmall river Senne paſſes through it. It is a rich and handſome city; and among the public ſtructures, the palace, the town-houſe, and the arſenal, are moſt ſuperb.—It is a city in Europe, except Naples and Genoa, that likes a finer appearance at a diſtance: but, like them, it is all up and down hill. It is encompaſſed with a double brick wall, and has 7 gates; the being 7 miles in compaſs, is too large to hold out a long ſiege. In Bruſſels are 7 fine ſquares or market places; that of the great market is one of the moſt beautiful in the world. The town houſe takes up one quarter of it; and has a very high ſteeple, on the top of which is a brazen ſtatue of St Michael, 15 feet high. In 3 of the rooms there is the hiſtory of the reſignation of Charles V. wrought in tapeſtry; which is ſo well done, that it may be miſtaken for painting. In the other parts of this ſquare are the halls of the different trades, and ſeveral ancient palaces. The opera-houſe is built after the Italian manner, with rows of boxes, in which are chimneys. One is covered with looking glaſs, ſo that company can ſit by a fire, drink a bottle, and ſee what is doing.—There are 20 public fountains, adorned with ſtatues, at the corners of the moſt public ſtreets; and in the middle of the town houſe is one with Neptune, the tritons, and the horſes ſpouting water from their noſtrils. In the lower part of the city, there are ſeveral canals for the ſhipping.—One in particular was cut from the Scheldt, 15 miles from the city, and coſt 1,800,000 dollars. By this canal veſſels can paſs between Bruſſels and Antwerp. The hoſpitals are well endowed; ſome of them are for the maintenance of ſtrangers for days. There is alſo a foundling hoſpital, and one for penitent courtezans. Among the churches, that of St Gudula is very magnificent. It ſtands on the top of a hill, near the gate of Louvain, and is ſurrounded with iron balluſtrades.—It is an old Gothic ſtructure, with two large ſteeples at the eaſt end, and is finely adorned within. The Jeſuits had a fine church as well as library. In 1695, Bruſſels was bombarded by Marſhal Villeroy, who demoliſhed 4000 houſes, the ſtadthouſe, and ſeveral churches. In 1708, it was beſieged by the elector of Bavaria; but the D. of Marlborough obliged him to raiſe the ſiege with precipitation. Marſhal Saxe, the French general, took it in 1746; but it was reſtored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was taken by the French republican army in 1792; retaken by the Auſtrians, in March 1793; but recovered ſoon after by the French, of whoſe republic it is now a conſtituent part. Bruſſels has long been celebrated for its manufactures of laces, camblets, and tapeſtry. It is 21 miles S. of Antwerp, 26 S. E. of Ghent, and 148 N. by E. of Paris. Lon. 4. 28. E. Lat. 50. 51. N.

(2.) BRUSSELS, a ci-devant diſtrict of the Auſtrian Netherlands, was one of the 4 quarters of the duchy of Brabant. It was bounded on the E. by that of Louvain; on the N. by Antwerp; on the W. by that of Flanders; and on the S. by Hainault. It is now annexed to France.

BRUSTIN, *adj. obſ.* Burſt; broken. *Chaucer.*

* *To* BRUSTLE. *v. n.* [*bruſthan*, Saxon.] To crackle; to make a ſmall noiſe. *Skinner.*

* BRUTAL. *adj.* [*brutal*, French; from *brute.*] 1. That which belongs to a brute; that which we have in common with brutes.—There is no oppoſing *brutal* force to the ſtratagems of human reaſon: *L'Eſtrange.* 2. Savage; cruel; inhuman.

The *brutal* buſineſs of the war
Is manag'd by thy dreadful ſervants care.
Dryden.

* BRUTALITY. *n. ſ.* [*brutalité*, Fr.] Savageneſs; churliſhneſs; inhumanity.—Courage, in an ill bred man, has the air, and eſcapes not the opinion of *brutality*. *Locke.*

(1.) * *To* BRUTALIZE. *v. a.* To make brutal or ſavage.

(2.) * *To* BRUTALIZE. *v. n.* [*brutaliſer*, Fr.] To grow brutal or ſavage.—Upon being carried to the Cape of Good Hope, he mixed, in a kind of tranſport, with his countrymen, *brutalized* with them in their habit and manners, and would never again return to his foreign acquaintance. *Addiſon.*

* BRUTALLY. *adv.* [from *brutal.*] Churliſhly; inhumanly; cruelly.—Mrs Bull aimed a knife at John, though John threw a bottle at her head, very *brutally* indeed. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) * BRUTE. *adj.* [*brutus*, Latin.] 1. Senſeleſs; unconſcious.—Nor yet are we ſo low and baſe as their atheiſm would depreſs us; not walking ſtatues of clay, not the ſons of *brute* earth, whoſe final inheritance is death and corruption. *Bentley.* 2. Savage; irrational; ferine.—Even *brute* animals make uſe of this artificial way of making divers motions, to have ſeveral ſignifications to call, warn, chide, cheriſh, threaten. *Holder.*—In the promulgation of the Moſaick law, if ſo much as a *brute* beaſt touched the mountain, it was to be ſtruck through with a dart. *South.* 3. Beſtial; in common with beaſts.—

Then to ſubdue, and quell, through all the earth,
Brute violence, and proud tyrannick power.
Milton.

4. Rough; ferocious; uncivilized.—

The *brute* philoſopher, who ne'er has prov'd
The joy of loving, or of being lov'd. *Pope.*

(2.) * BRUTE. *n. ſ.* [from the adjective.] An irrational creature; a creature without reaſon; a ſavage.—

What may this mean? Language of man pronounc'd
By tongue of *brute*, and human ſenſe expreſs'd!
Milton.

—To thoſe three preſent impulſes, of ſenſe, memory and inſtinct, moſt, if not all, the ſagacities of *brutes* may be reduced. *Hale.*—*Brutes* may be conſidered as either aerial, terreſtrial, aquatick, or amphibious. I call thoſe aerial, which have wings, wherewith they can ſupport themſelves in the air; terreſtial are thoſe whoſe only place of reſt is upon the earth; aquatick are thoſe, whoſe conſtant abode is upon the water. *Locke.*—

Heav'n from all creatures hides the book of fate,
All but the page preſcrib'd this preſent ſtate;
From *brutes* what men, from men what ſpirits know;
Or who could ſuffer being here below? *Pope.*

(3.) BRUTE is a general name for all animals except mankind. Among brutes, the monkey kind bear the neareſt reſemblance to man; both in the external ſhape and internal ſtructure, but more in the former than in the latter. In the monkey kind, the neareſt approach to the likeneſs of man is the Oran Outang, or Homo Sylveſtris. See SIMIA. The ſtructure and economy of brutes make the objects of what is called COMPARATIVE ANATOMY. See that article.

(4.) BRUTES, DIFFERENT OPINIONS CONCERNING. Philoſophers have been much puzzled about the eſſential characteriſtics of brutes, by which they may be diſtinguiſhed from man. Some define a brute to be an *animal not riſible*, or a *living creature incapable of laughter*; others call them *mute animals*. The peripatetics allowed them a ſenſitive power, but denied them a rational one. The Platoniſts allowed them reaſon and underſtanding, though in a degree leſs pure and refined than that of men. Lactantius allows every thing to brutes which men have except a ſenſe of religion; and even this has been aſcribed to them by ſome ſceptics. Des Cartes maintained, that brutes are mere inanimate machines, abſolutely deſtitute not only of reaſon but of all thought and perception, and that all their actions are only conſequences of the exquiſite mechaniſm of their bodies. This ſyſtem, however, is much older than Des Cartes; it was borrowed by him from Gomez Pereira, a Spaniſh phyſician, who employed 30 years in compoſing a treatiſe which he intitled *Antoniana Margarita*, from the Chriſtian names of his father and mother. It was publiſhed in 1554: but his opinion had not the honour of gaining partizans, or even of being refuted; ſo that it died with him. Even Pereira ſeems not to have been the inventor of this notion; ſomething like it having been held by ſome of the ancients, as we find from Plutarch and St Auguſtin. Others, who rejected the Carteſian hypotheſis, have maintained that brutes are endowed with a ſoul eſſentially inferior to that of men; and to this ſoul ſome have allowed immortality, others not. And, laſtly, in a treatiſe publiſhed by Bougeant, a Jeſuit, intitled, *A philoſophical amuſement on the language of beaſts*, he affirms that they are animated by evil ſpirits or devils. In proof of this, he urges many ingenious metaphyſical arguments; but the reply to them all may be made in very few words. Though ſome beaſts are remarkably miſchievous, the generality are not ſo; they are in many inſtances capable of gratitude and love, which devils cannot poſſibly be. The very ſame paſſions that are in the brutes exiſt in the human nature; and if we choſe to argue from the exiſtence of thoſe paſſions, and the aſcendency they have over mankind at ſome times, we may ſay, with as great or greater juſtice, that the ſouls of men are *devils*, as that the ſouls of brutes are.—All that can be reaſonably inferred, from the greater prevalency of the malignant paſſions among the brutes than among men, is, that the former have leſs rationality than men: and accordingly it is found, that among ſavages, who exerciſe their reaſon leſs than other men, every ſpecies of barbarity is practiſed, without being deemed a crime.

(5.) BRUTES, HYPOTHESIS OF M. DES CARTES RESPECTING. The opinion of Des Cartes (§ 4) was probably adopted by him, to defeat two great objections; one againſt the immortality of the ſouls of brutes, if they were allowed to have any; the other againſt the goodneſs of God, in ſuffering creatures who have never ſinned, to be ſubjected to ſo many miſeries. The arguments in favour may be thus ſtated: 1. It is certain that many human actions are merely mechanical; becauſe they are done imperceptibly to the agent, and without any direction from the will; which are to be aſcribed to the impreſſion of objects and the primordial diſpoſition of the machine, wherein the influence of the ſoul has no ſhare; of which number are all habits of the body acquired from the reiteration of certain actions. In all ſuch circumſtances, human beings are no better than automata. 2. There are ſome natural movements ſo involuntary, that we cannot reſtrain them; for example, that admirable mechaniſm ever on the watch to preſerve an equilibrium, when we ſtoop, bend, or incline our bodies, and when we walk upon a narrow plank, or are in danger of falling. 3. The natural liking for, and antipathy againſt, certain objects, which in children precede the power of knowing and diſcriminating them, and which ſometimes in grown perſons triumph over all the efforts of reaſon; are all phenomena to be accounted for from the wonderful mechaniſm of the body, and are ſo many cogent proofs of that irreſiſtible influence which objects have on the human frame. 4. Every one knows how much our paſſions depend on the degree of motion into which the blood is put, and the reciprocal impreſſions cauſed by the animal ſpirits between the heart and brain, that are ſo cloſely connected by their nerves: and if ſuch effects may be produced by ſuch ſimple mechanical means as the mere increaſe of motion in the blood, without any direction of the will, we are not to wonder at the actions of brutes being the effects only of a refined mechaniſm, without thought or perception. 5. A farther proof will ariſe from the conſideration of many wonderful effects which even the ingenuity of men has contrived to bring out by mechanical means; the androides, for inſtance, of Mr Kempelen, which plays at cheſs. See ANDROIDES, § 3. and AUTOMATON, § 2. Now, it is not to be queſtioned, but that the mechaniſm of the bo-

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ty of the meaneſt animal infinitely ſurpaſſes that of Mr Kempelen's machine; and therefore the actions of that animal muſt be proportionally more ſurpriſing than thoſe of the wooden cheſs-player.

(6.) BRUTES, M. DES CARTES'S NOTIONS OF, REFUTED. The above (§ 5.) is a ſhort abſtract of all the arguments that are brought in favour of the Carteſian ſyſtem: but they are evidently very far from being concluſive. They are deficient, firſt, becauſe, though we allow them in the utmoſt extent the Carteſians can deſire, they prove only the poſſibility of brutes being inanimate, and that the power of God actually could produce ſuch and ſuch actions from inanimate machines; but that he actually hath done ſo, they have not the leaſt tendency to prove. 2. The Carteſian argument is inſufficient, becauſe it hath no limits, and knows not where to ſtop; for by the ſame method of arguing, every man might prove his neighbour to be an inanimate machine: for though every individual be conſcious of his own thoughts, he is not ſo of others; and it no more exceeds the power of God to cauſe an inanimate machine perform the actions of a man, than thoſe of a beaſt. Neither are the two objections which the hypotheſis is calculated to anſwer, to be at all admitted as arguments in its favour. They are, 1. That if we allow brutes to have ſouls, they muſt be immaterial, and conſequently immortal; and, 2. It ſeems a contradiction to the goodneſs of God, that he ſhould ſubject innocent creatures to ſuch a multitude of evils as we ſee the brutes endure in this world. The firſt of theſe is productive of no bad conſequence to us, though it ſhould be granted: and if it is ſuppoſed that the brute creatures are really immortal, the ſecond objection vaniſhes; becauſe, in the enjoyment of endleſs felicity, all temporary afflictions, how ſevere ſoever, muſt be ſwallowed up as though they had never been. As to a poſitive proof on the other ſide, viz. that brutes are really endowed with ſenſation and conſciouſneſs, there is undoubtedly the ſame evidence for the ſenſibility of brutes, that there is for that of mankind. We ſee brutes avoid pain as much as we do; and ſeek for pleaſure, and expreſs their happineſs in the enjoyment of certain things, by ſigns not at all equivocal. Therefore, though we grant the poſſibility of all this being the effect of mere mechaniſm; yet, as we are conſcious that in ourſelves ſimilar effects are produced by a ſentient principle, we have every reaſon to conclude, that in brutes they are derived from a ſimilar principle; eſpecially as we know no kind of mechaniſm in any other part of nature that produces any thing like the effects juſt mentioned; and until we ſee a mechaniſm of this kind in ſome part of nature, we have no right to ſuppoſe it in any. As to thoſe actions of the human body in which it ſeems to move ſpontaneouſly, like an automaton, without the direction of the mind or will, it is certain, that they were not performed in this manner originally, but required very great exertions of the will and intellectual faculty, before the body could be brought to perform them eaſily; ſo that from this nothing can be inferred. Add to this, that divine revelation ſets forth to us in many places the brute creation as objects of mercy; which could not be done without the higheſt abſurdity, if they were not really capable of feeling and pain as well as we. Thus it is paſt a doubt, that brutes are endowed with a principle of ſenſation as well as we; though of an inferior nature to ours. But great diſputes have ariſen on this ſubject; ſome maintaining, that the ſouls of brutes are merely ſenſitive, and that they are altogether deſtitute of reflection and underſtanding; others, that they not only reaſon, but make a better uſe of it than men do. That the brutes are endowed only with ſenſation, and totally deſtitute of all power of reflection, or even reaſoning, is what can by no means be maintained: neither can it be aſſerted that they act entirely from inſtinct, or a blind propenſity, without knowing *why*. In numberleſs inſtances, which will readily occur to every reader, it is evident, that education will get the better of many of the natural inſtincts of brutes; which could never be the caſe were they abſolutely incapable of reaſoning. On the other hand, it is equally certain, that they are by no means capable of education in the ſame degree that men are; neither are their rational exertions at all to be compared even with thoſe of the meaneſt ſavages. One remarkable inſtance of this is in the uſe of fire. The moſt ſavage nations have known how to make this element ſubſervient to their purpoſes; or if ſome have been found entirely ignorant of its exiſtence, they have quickly learned its uſes on ſeeing it made uſe of by others: but though many of the brute creatures are delighted with warmth, and have opportunities every day of ſeeing how fire is ſupplied with fuel, and by that means preſerved, it never was known that one of them attempted to preſerve a fire by this means. This ſhows a ſtrange defect of rationality, unaccountable upon any other ſuppoſition, than that the ſoul or ſentient principle of brutes is ſome how or other inferior in its nature to that of man; but ſtill it is a ſentient principle, capable of preceptions as quick, and in many inſtances much more ſo than our own.

(7.) BRUTES, PROF. BERGMAN'S RESEARCHES INTO THE NATURE OF. There is a very ingenious treatiſe in German, publiſhed by the late profeſſor Bergman, entitled "Reſearches deſigned to ſhow what the Brute Animals certainly *are not*, and alſo what they probably *are*." That they are *not* machines, he proves with more detail than ſeems neceſſary for refuting a hypotheſis which would equally tend to make *us all* machines. It is certain, that the *half-reaſoning* elephant cannot be deemed a machine by us, from any other conſideration, than that *he* goes upon four feet, while *we* go upon two; and he might as well take us for mere machines becauſe *we* go upon two feet, while *he* goes upon four. But if animals are not mere machines, what *are* they? Manifeſtly ſenſitive beings, with an immaterial principle; and thinking or reaſoning beings, to a *certain degree*. In certain claſſes of animals this appears evident to Sir T. Bergman, who ſeems to have obſerved with great ſagacity and attention their *various* operations, their ways and means, &c. He thinks it impoſſible to deduce this variety of action, in any animals, (if we except thoſe of the loweſt claſſes in the gradation of intelligence,) from a general and uniform inſtinct. For they accommodate their operations to times and

circumſtances. They combine; they chooſe their favourable moment; and receive inſtruction by experience. Many of their operations announce reflection: the bird repairs a ſhattered neſt, inſtead of conſtructing inſtinctively a new one: the hen, who has been robbed of her eggs, changes her place in order to lay the remainder with more ſecurity: the cat diſcovers both care and artifice in concealing her kittens. Again, it is evident, that, on many occaſions, animals know their faults and miſtakes, and correct them; they ſometimes contrive the moſt ingenious methods of obtaining their ends, and when one method fails have recourſe to another; and they have, without doubt, a kind of language for the mutual communication of their ideas. How is all this to be accounted for, (ſays Bergman,) unleſs we ſuppoſe them endowed with the powers of perceiving, thinking, remembering, comparing, and judging? They have theſe powers, indeed, in a degree inferior to that in which they are poſſeſſed by the human ſpecies, and form claſſes below them in the ſcale of intelligent beings. But ſtill it ſeems unreaſonable to exclude them from the place which the principles of ſound philoſophy, and facts aſcertained by conſtant obſervation, aſſign to them in the great and diverſified ſphere of life, ſenſation, and intelligence. He does not, however, conſider them as beings whoſe actions are directed to *moral* ends, nor conſequently as accountable and proper ſubjects for *reward* or *puniſhment* in a future world. That brutes poſſeſs reflection and ſentiment, and are ſuſceptible of the kindly as well as the iraſcible paſſions, independently of ſexual attachment and natural affection, is evident from the numerous inſtances of gratitude daily obſervable in different animals particularly the dog. Of thoſe and other ſentiments, ſuch as pride, and even a ſenſe of glory, the elephant exhibits proofs equally ſurpriſing and indubitable, as the reader may ſee under the article ELEPHAS.

(8.) BRUTES, REMARKABLE STRENGTH OF AFFECTION IN. Mr White, in his *Natural Hiſtory, &c. of Selborne*, ſpeaking of the natural affection of brutes, ſays "the more I reflect on it the more I am aſtoniſhed at its effects." Nor is the violence of this affection more wonderful than the ſhortneſs of its duration. Thus every hen is in her turn the virago of the yard, in proportion to the helpleſſneſs of her brood; and will fly in the face of a dog or a ſow in defence of thoſe chickens, which in a few weeks ſhe will drive before her with relentleſs cruelty. This affection ſublimes the paſſions, quickens the invention, and ſharpens the ſagacity of the brute creation. Thus an hen, juſt become a mother, is no longer that placid bird ſhe uſed to be, but with feather ſtanding on end, wings hovering, and clocking note, ſhe runs about like one poſſeſſed. Dams will throw themſelves in the way of the greateſt danger in order to avert it from their progeny. Thus a partridge will tumble along before a ſportſman, in order to draw away the dogs from her helpleſs covey. In the time of nidification the moſt feeble birds will aſſault the moſt rapacious. All the hirundines of a village are up in arms at the ſight of a hawk, whom they will perſecute till he leaves that diſtrict. A very exact obſerver has often remarked, that a pair of ravens neſtling in the of Gibraltar would ſuffer no vulture or ea reſt near their ſtation, but would drive the the hill with an amazing fury: even the thruſh at the ſeaſon of breeding would da from the clefts of the rocks, to chaſe away t tril or the ſparrow hawk. If you ſtand ne neſt of a bird that has young, ſhe will not duced to betray them by an inadvertent fo but will wait about at a diſtance with meat mouth for an hour together. The fire builds every year in the vines that grow walls of my houſe. A pair of theſe litt had one year inadvertently placed their ne naked bough, perhaps in a ſhady time, no aware of the inconvenience that followed: hot ſunny ſeaſon coming on before the bro half fledged, the reflection of the wall bec ſupportable, and muſt inevitably have de the tender young, had not affection ſugge expedient, and prompted the parent b hover over the neſt all the hotter hours, with wings expanded and mouths gapi breath they ſcreened off the heat for their ing offſpring. A farther inſtance I once notable ſagacity in a willow wren, whic built in a bank in my fields. This bird a and myſelf had obſerved as ſhe ſat in her ne were particularly careful not to diſturb her, t we ſaw ſhe eyed us with ſome degree of je Some days after, as we paſſed that way, we deſirous of remarking how this brood wer but no neſt could be found, till I happe take up a large bundle of long green moſs were careleſsly thrown over the neſt, in or dodge the eye of any impertinent intruder."

(9.) BRUTES, SURPRISING INSTANCES OF CIALITY IN. A wonderful ſpirit of ſociality i brute creation, independent of ſexual attachm has been frequently remarked. Many bir though quiet with company, will not ſtay one nute in a field by themſelves; the ſtrongeſt fe cannot reſtrain them. A horſe has been kno to leap out at a ſtable window, through wh dung was thrown, after company; and yet in ther reſpects was remarkably quiet. Oxen cows will not fatten by themſelves; but will gleck the fineſt paſture that is not recommen by ſociety. It would be needleſs to inſtance ſheep, which conſtantly flock together. But propenſity ſeems not to be confined to animal the ſame ſpecies. Mr White mentions "a that was brought up from a little fawn wit dairy of cows. With them it goes a-field, with them it returns to the yard. The dogs the houſe take no notice of this doe, being to her; but if ſtrange dogs come by, a chaſe ſues; while the maſter ſmiles to ſee his favou ſecurely leading her purſuers over hedge, or ga or ſtyle, till ſhe returns to the cows, who w fierce lowings and menacing horns drive the aſſailants quite out of the paſture." Even gr diſparity of kind and ſize does not always prev ſocial advances and mutual fellowſhip. Of t the following remarkable inſtance is given by t ſame author. "A very intelligent and obſerv perſon has aſſured me, that in the former part his life, keeping but one horſe, he happened a

time to have but one ſolitary hen. Theſe incongruous animals ſpent much of their time together, in a lonely orchard, where they ſaw no creature but each other. By degrees an apparent regard began to take place between theſe two ſequeſtered individuals. The fowl would approach the quadruped with notes of complacency, rub herſelf gently againſt his legs; while the horſe would look down with ſatisfaction, and move with the greateſt caution and circumſpection, leſt he ſhould trample on his diminutive companion. Thus by mutual good offices each ſeemed to contribute the vacant hours of the other." In the Gentleman's Magazine for March 1788, we have the following anecdotes of a raven, communicated by a correſpondent who does not ſign his name, but ſays it is at the ſervice of the doubtful. The perſon alluded to "lives, or did live 3 years ſince, at the red lion at Hungerford; his name, I think, Rafe. You muſt know then, that coming into the inn, my chaiſe run over or bruiſed the leg of a Newfoundland dog; and while we were examining the injury done the dog's foot, *Rafe was greatly a concerned ſpectator;* for the minute the dog was tied up under the manger with my horſe, he not only viſited him, but fetched him bones, and attended upon him with particular and repeated marks of kindneſs. The bird's notice of the dog was ſo *marked*, that I obſerved it to the landlord; for I had not heard a word *before* of the piety of this benevolent creature. John then told me, that he had been bred from his pin-feathers in intimacy with a dog; that the affection between them was mutual; and that all the neighbourhood had often been witneſſes of the innumerable acts of kindneſs they had conferred upon each other. Rafe's poor dog, after a while, unfortunately broke his leg; and during the long time he was confined, Rafe waited upon him conſtantly, carried him proviſions daily, and never ſcarce left him alone! One night by accident the hoſtler had ſhut the ſtable door, and Rafe was deprived of the company of his friend the whole night; but the hoſtler found in the morning the bottom of the door ſo pecked away, that had it not been opened, Rafe would in another hour have made his own entrance port. I then enquired of my landlady (a ſenſible woman,) and heard what I have related confirmed by her, with ſeveral other ſingular traits of the kindneſſes this bird ſhows to all dogs in general, but particularly to *maimed* or wounded ones. I hope and believe, however, the bird is ſtill living; and the traveller will find I have not *over-rated* this wonderful bird's merit." To theſe inſtances of attachment between incongruous animals from a ſpirit of ſociality or the feelings of ſympathy, may be added the following inſtance of fondneſs from a different motive, recounted by Mr White in the work already ſo often quoted. "My friend had a little helpleſs leveret brought to him, which the ſervants fed with milk in a ſpoon; and about the ſame time his cat kittened, and the young were diſpatched and buried. The hare was ſoon loſt, and ſuppoſed to be gone the way of moſt foundlings, or to be killed by ſome dog or cat. However, in about a fortnight, as the maſter was ſitting in his garden in the duſk of the evening, he obſerved his cat, with tail erect, trotting towards him, and calling with little ſhort inward notes of complacency, ſuch as they uſe towards their kittens, and ſomething gambling after, which proved to be the leveret which the cat had ſupported with her milk, and continued to ſupport with great affection. Thus was a graminivorous animal nurtured by a carnivorous and predaceous one! why ſo cruel and ſanguinary a beaſt as a cat, of the ferocious genus of *Felis*, the *murium leo*, (the lion of the mice,) as Linnæus calls it, ſhould be affected with any tenderneſs towards an animal which is its natural prey, is not ſo eaſy to determine. The ſtrange affection probably was occaſioned by that deſiderium, thoſe tender maternal feelings, which the loſs of her kittens had awakened in her breaſt; and by the complacency and eaſe ſhe derived to herſelf from the procuring her teats to be drawn, which were too much diſtended with milk, till from habit ſhe became as much delighted with this foundling, as if it had been her real offspring. This incident is no bad ſolution of that ſtrange circumſtance which grave hiſtorians as well the poets aſſert, of expoſed children being ſometimes nurtured by female wild beaſts that probably had loſt their young. For it is not one whit more marvellous that Romulus and Remus, in their infant ſtate, ſhould be nurſed by a ſhe wolf, than that a poor little ſucking leveret ſhould be foſtered and cheriſhed by a bloody grimalkin."

(10.) BRUTES, UNACCOUNTABLE FACULTIES POSSESSED BY SOME. Beſides the different qualities enumerated, (§ 9.) beſides reflection and ſagacity often in an aſtoniſhing degree, and beſides the ſentiments and actions prompted by ſocial or natural attachments, brutes ſeem on many occaſions inſpired with a ſuperior faculty, a kind of preſentiment or ſecond ſight as it were, with regard to events and deſigns altogether unforeſeen by the rational beings whom they concern. Of the faculty alluded to, various inſtances will probably conſiſt with the knowledge or recollection of moſt of our readers; We ſhall therefore only recite the following on account of its unqueſtionable authenticity. At the ſeat of the late earl of Lichfield, 3 miles from Blenheim, there is a portrait in the dining-room of Sir Henry Lee, by Johnſton, with that of a maſtiff dog which ſaved his life. A ſervant had formed the deſign of aſſaſſinating his maſter and robbing the houſe; but the night he had fixed on, the dog, which had never been much noticed by Sir Henry, for the firſt time followed him up ſtairs, got under his bed, and could not be got from thence by either maſter or man: in the dead of night, the ſame ſervant entered the room to execute his horrid deſign; but was inſtantly ſeized by the dog, and being ſecured confeſſed his intentions. Upon what hypotheſis can we account for a degree of foreſight and penetration ſuch as this? Will it be ſuggeſted, as a ſolution of the difficulty, that a dog may poſſibly become capable in great meaſure of underſtanding human diſcourſe, and of reaſoning and acting accordingly; and that, in the preſent inſtance, the villain had either uttered his deſign in ſoliloquy, or imparted it to an accomplice, in the hearing of the animal? It has been diſputed whether the brutes have any language

whereby they can expreſs their minds to each other; or whether all the noiſe they make conſiſts only of cries inarticulate, and unintelligible even to themſelves. We are, however, too little acquainted with the intellectual faculties of theſe creatures to be able to determine the point. Certain it is, that their paſſions, when excited, are generally productive of ſome peculiar cry, but whether this be deſigned as an expreſſion of the paſſion to others, or only a mechanical motion of the muſcles of the larynx occaſioned by the paſſion, is what we have no means of knowing. We may indeed, from analogy, conclude, with great reaſon, that ſome of the cries of beaſts are really expreſſions of their ſentiments; but whether one beaſt is capable of forming a deſign, and communicating that deſign by any kind of language to others, is what we ſubmit to the judgment of the readers, after giving the following inſtance, which among others is brought as a proof of it by father Bougeant. "A ſparrow, finding a neſt that a martin had juſt built, ſtanding very conveniently for him, poſſeſſed himſelf of it. The martin, ſeeing the uſurper in her houſe, called for help to expel him. A thouſand martins came full ſpeed, and attacked the ſparrow; but the latter being covered on every ſide, and preſenting only his large beak at the entrance of the neſt, was invulnerable, and made the boldeſt of them who durſt approach him repent of their temerity. After a quarter of an hour's combat, all the martins diſappeared. The ſparrow thought he had got the better, and the ſpectators judged that the martins had abandoned the undertaking. Not in the leaſt. Immediately they returned to the charge; and each of them having procured a little of that tempered earth with which they make their neſts, they all at once fell upon the ſparrow, and incloſed him in the neſt to periſh there, though they could not drive him thence. Can it be imagined that the martins could have been able to hatch and concert this deſign all of them together, without ſpeaking to each other, or without ſome medium of communication equivalent to language?"

* *To* BRUTE. *v. a.* [written ill for *bruit*.] To report.—This, once *bruted* through the army, filled them all with heavineſs. *Knolles.*

* BRUTENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brute*.] Brutality: a word not now uſed.—

Thou dotard vile,
That with thy *bruteneſs* ſhend'ſt thy comely age.
Spenſer.

(1.) BRUTIA, in ancient geography, a country in the extremity of Italy, from whence the pitch ſo named (N. 2.) was denominated and originally obtained. *Plin. lib.* XV. *cap.* 7.

(2.) BRUTIA, in the medical writings of the ancients, the fatteſt and moſt reſinous kind of pitch, ſuch as was propereſt for making the oil of pitch, called *oleum picinum.*

* *To* BRUTIFY. *v. n.* [from *brute*.] To make a man a brute.—O thou fallacious woman! am I then *brutified?* Ay; feel it here; I ſprout, I bud, I am ripe horn mad. *Congreve.*

BRUTII. See BRUTTII.

BRUTILNESS, *n. ſ. obſ.* brittleneſs. *Chaue.*

* BRUTISH. *adj.* [from *brute*.] 1. Beſtial; reſembling a beaſt —

Oſiris, Iſis, Orus, and their train,
With monſtrous ſhapes and ſorceries abus'd
Fanatick Egypt, and her prieſts, to ſeek
Their wand'ring gods diſguis'd in *brutiſh* forms.
Milton.

2. Having the qualities of a brute; rough; ſavage; ferocious.—Brutes, and *brutiſh* men, are commonly more able to bear pain than others. *Grew.* 3. Groſs; carnal.—

For thou thyſelf haſt been a libertine,
As ſenſual as the *brutiſh* ſting itſelf. *Shak-ſ.*

—After he has ſlept himſelf into ſome uſe of himſelf, by much ado he ſtaggers to his table again, and there acts over the ſame *brutiſh* ſcene. *South.* 4. Ignorant; untaught; uncivilized.—They were not ſo *brutiſh*, that they could be ignorant to call upon the name of God. *Hooker.*

* BRUTISHLY. *adv.* [from *brutiſh*.] In the manner of a brute, ſavagely; irrationally; groſsly.—I am ſo diffident of myſelf, as *brutiſhly* to ſubmit to any man's dictates. *King Charles.*—For a man to found a confident practice upon a diſputable principle, is *brutiſhly* to outrun his reaſon. *South.*

* BRUTISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brutiſh*.] Brutality; ſavageneſs.—All other courage, beſides that, is not true valour, but *brutiſhneſs.* *Spratt.*

BRUTON. See BRUTTON.

(1.) BRUTTII, in ancient geography, one of the two peninſulas of Italy, the ancient Calabria being the other; ſtretching S. towards Sicily; bounded by the ſea on every ſide except by the iſthmus, between the river Laus and the Thurii, where it is terminated by Lucania; inhabited by the Bruttii, for whoſe country the ancient Romans had no peculiar name, calling both the people and the country indiſcriminately *Bruttii*: though Mr Chambers ſtiles the country BRUTIA, for which he quotes Pliny. This and a part of Lucania formed the ancient Italia. It was called Βρέττια, which in Greek ſignifies *pitch*, from the great quantity of it produced there. It is divided into two coaſts by the Apennine; that on the Tuſcan and that on the Ionian Sea; and is now called *Calabria Ultra.* It now differs from the ancient Calabria or Meſſapia, on the eaſt on the Adriatic ſea, which formed the other peninſula or heel of the leg, now called *Calabria Citra*, the Bruttii forming the foot.

(2.) BRUTTII, the people of BRUTTII. N. 1.

BRUTTLE, *n. ſ. obſ.* under-wood.

BRUTTON, a town of Somerſetſhire, ſituated on the river Brue; and well inhabited. It is adorned with a very beautiful church; has a free ſchool, founded by Edward I. and the alms-houſe or hoſpital is ſo elegant, that it has the appearance of a college. It is famous for malt and for a woollen manufactory of cloth and ſerges. It is 22 miles S. E. of Wells, and 109 W. of London. Lon. 2. 30. W. Lat. 51. 15. N.

(1.) BRUTUS, Lucius Junius, the avenger of the rape of Lucretia, and founder of the Roman republic, flouriſhed about A. A. C. 509. See ROME, HISTORY OF.

(2.) BRUTUS, Marcus, the paſſionate lover of his country, and chief conſpirator againſt Cæſar, ſlew himſelf on loſing the battle of Philippi, A. A. C. 42. See ROME, HISTORY OF.

(3.) BRU-

(3.) BRUTUS, or BRUTE, according to the ancient fabulous hiſtory of this iſland, by Geoffroy of Monmouth, was the firſt king of Britain. He is ſaid to have been the ſon of Sylvius, and grandſon of Aſcanius the ſon of Æneas, and born in Italy. Having accidentally killed his father, he fled into Greece, where he took king Pandraſus priſoner, who kept the Trojans in ſlavery, whom he releaſed on condition of providing ſhips, &c. for the Trojans to emigrate with him. Being adviſed by the oracle to ſail weſt beyond Gaul, he, after ſome adventures, landed at Totneſs in Devonſhire. Albion was then inhabited by a remnant of giants, whom Brutus deſtroyed; and called the iſland, after his own name, BRITAIN. He built a city called *Troja Nova*, or *Trenovant*, now London; and having reigned 24 years, at his death divided the iſland among his 3 ſons: Locrine had the middle, called *Loegria*, now England; Camber had Cambria, now Wales; and Albanact Albania, now Scotland.

(4.) BRUTUS, Decimus Junius, one of the conſpirators againſt Cæſar. He was ſlain by Marc Antony.

(5.) BRUTUS, John Michael, a man of learning, in the 16th century. He was born in Venice; and, having ſtudied at Padua, ſpent great part of his life in travelling, and became hiſtoriographer to the Emperor. He wrote, 1. A hiſtory of Hungary. 2. A hiſtory of Florence. 3. Notes on Horace, Cæſar, Cicero, &c. and other works.

(6.) BRUTUS, Stephen Junius, the diſguiſed author of a political work intitled *Vindiciæ contra tyrannos*. See LANGUET.

BRUYERE, John DE LA, a celebrated French author, born at Dourdan, in 1664. He wrote Characters, deſcribing the manners of his age, in imitation of Theophraſtus. Theſe were not always imaginary, but deſcriptive, as was well known, of perſons of conſiderable rank. In 1693, he was choſen a member of the French Academy, and died in 1696.—"The Characters of Bruyere (ſays Voltaire) may juſtly be ranked among the extraordinary productions of this age. Antiquity furniſhes no example of ſuch a work. A ſtyle rapid, conciſe, and nervous; expreſſions animated and picturesque; an uſe of language altogether new, without offending againſt its eſtabliſhed rules, ſtruck the public at firſt; and the alluſions, which are crowded in almoſt every page, completed its ſucceſs." La Bruyere ſhowed his work in M. S. to Maleficux, who told him, that the book would have many readers, and its author many enemies. It contains many things applicable to all times and places.

BRUYIERS, a town of France, in the department of Voſges, and ci-devant province of Lorrain; 22 m. S. by E. of Luneville, Lon. 6. 50. E. Lat. 48. 18. N.

BRUYN. See BRUN, N. 1.

BRY, BREW, or BRUE, a river in Somerſetſh. which falls into the Briſtol channel, in Bridge-water bay.

BRYANS-BRIDGE, a town in Ireland, in the county of Clare and province of Connaught, ſeated on the river Shannon, 8 miles N. of Limeric. Lon. 8. 30. W. Lat. 52. 31. N.

BRYANSTON, a village near Dublin.

BRYANT, Sir Francis, a ſoldier, ſtateſman, and a poet, was born of a genteel family, educated at Oxford, and afterwards ſpent ſome time in travelling. In 1522, the 14th of Henry VIII. he attended the earl of Surrey to the coaſt of Brittany; and commanded the troops in the attack of Morlaix, which he took and burnt. For this ſervice he was knighted on the ſpot by the earl. In 1529, he was ſent ambaſſador to France; and, in 1530, to Rome on account of the king's divorce. He was gentleman of the privy chamber to Henry VIII. and to Edward VI. in the beginning of whoſe reign he marched with the protector againſt the Scots; and after the battle of Muſſelburgh, was made banneret. In 1548, he was appointed chief governor of Ireland, where he married the counteſs of Ormond. He died ſoon after, and was buried at Waterford. He wrote, 1. Songs and Sonnets; ſome of which were printed with thoſe of the earl of Surrey and Sir Thomas Wyat. Lond. 1565. 2. Letters written from Rome concerning the king's divorce; M. S. 3. Various letters of ſtate. 4. A diſpraiſe of the life of a courtier, &c. Lond. 1548, 8vo, from the French of Alaygri, who tranſlated it from the Caſtilian language, in which it was originally written by Guevara.

BRYCHEIN, [Βρυχω,] a word uſed by Hippocrates for chattering of the teeth.

BRYDE, ST. an ancient pariſh in Peebles-ſhire, now united with that of Traquair.

BRYE, John Theodore DE, an excellent engraver, a native of Liege, who reſided chiefly at Frankfort. He ſeldom uſed the point. He acquired a neat, free ſtyle of engraving, excellently adapted to ſmall ſubjects, with many figures; as funeral parades, proceſſions, &c. He alſo drew very correctly. His heads in general are ſpirited, and his back grounds are touched with a maſterly hand. He died in 1598. The two firſt parts of Boiſſard's collection of portraits were engraved by him, aſſiſted by his ſons, who afterwards continued it.

(1.) BRYENNIUS, Manuel, a Greek writer on muſic, is ſuppoſed to have flouriſhed under the elder Paleologus, about the year of Chriſt 1120. He wrote 3 books on Harmonics; the firſt is a kind of commentary on Euclid; the 2d and 3d on Ptolemy. He profeſſes to have ſtudied perſpicuity for the ſake of young men. Meibomius had given the public expectations of a tranſlation of this work; but not living to complete it, Dr Wallis undertook it; and it now makes a part of the 3d volume of his works, publiſhed at Oxford, in three volumes folio, 1699.

(2.) BRYENNIUS, Nicephorus, a prince diſtinguiſhed by his courage, probity, and learning, was born at Oreſtia in Macedonia; where his father by rebellion provoked the emperor to ſend his general Alexis Comnenus againſt him, who ordered his eyes to be put out; but being charmed with his ſon Nicephorus, he married him to his own daughter Anna Comnena, ſo famous by her writings. When Alexis came to the throne, he gave Bryennius the title of *Cæſar*; but would not declare him his ſucceſſor, though ſolicited by the empreſs Irene: and was therefore ſucceeded by his ſon John Comnenus, to whom Bryennius behaved

behaved with the utmoſt fidelity. Being ſent, about A. D. 1137, to beſiege Antioch, he fell ſick; and returning, died at Conſtantinople. This prince wrote the *Hiſtory of Alexis Comnenus*, which he compoſed at the requeſt of his mother-in-law, Irene.

BRYGMOS, or } among phyſicians, a grating
BRYGMUS, } noiſe made by the gnaſhing of the teeth.

BRYKEIN. See BRYCHEIN.

BRYN, a village in Lancaſhire, near Wigan.

BRYNING, 5 m. S. W. of Kirkham, Lancaſh.

BRYNTON, in Staffordſhire, N. of Blimhfll.

BRYON, in the botanical writings of the ancient Greeks, an abbreviation of BRYONIA.

(I.) BRYONIA, BRYONY, a genus of the ſyngeneſia order, and monœcia claſs of plants; in the natural method ranking under the 34th order, cucurbitaceæ. The calyx of the male is five-toothed, with a quinquefid corolla, and three filaments. In the female the calyx is dentated, the corolla quinquefid, the ſtyle trifid, with a roundiſh many-ſeeded berry. There are 6 ſpecies, viz.

1. BRYONIA AFRICANA, African tuberous-rooted bryony.

2. BRYONIA ALBA, rough or white bryony with red flowers, a native of dry banks under hedges in many parts of Britain. The roots of this plant have by impoſtors been brought into a human ſhape, and ſhown for mandrakes. Their method was to find a young thriving plant of bryony; then they open the earth all round, being careful not to diſturb the lower fibres; and being provided with ſuch a mould as is uſed for making plaſter figures, they fix the mould cloſe to the root, faſtening it with wire to keep it in its proper ſituation; then they filled the earth about the root, leaving it to grow to the ſhape of the mould; which in one ſummer it will do; ſo that if done in March, by September it will have the ſhape. The leaves of the plant are alſo impoſed on people for mandrake leaves; although there is no reſemblance between them, nor any agreement in quality. The roots of this ſpecies are uſed in medicine. Theſe are very large, ſometimes as thick as a man's thigh; their ſmell, when freſh is ſtrong and diſagreeable; the taſte nauſeouſly bitter, acrid, and biting; the juice is ſo ſharp, as in little time to excoriate the ſkin; in drying, they loſe great part of their acrimony, and almoſt their whole ſcent. Bryony root is a ſtrong irritating cathartic; and as ſuch has ſometimes been ſucceſsfully exhibited in maniacal caſes, in ſome kinds of dropſies, and in ſeveral chronical diſorders, where a quick ſolution of viſcid juices and a ſudden ſtimulus on the ſolids were required. An extract prepared by water acts more mildly, and with greater ſafety, than the root in ſubſtance: given from half a dram to a dram, it is ſaid to prove a gentle purgative, and likewiſe to operate powerfully by urine. Bryony root, applied externally, is ſaid to be a powerful diſcutient.

3. BRYONIA BONARIENSIS, bryony with hairy palmated leaves, divided into 5 parts, and obtuſe ſegments. It is a native of warm countries; but merits cultivation on account of the pretty appearance it makes when full of fruit.

4. BRYONIA ...ed bryony of Crete.

5. BRYONIA RACEMOSA, bryony with a red olive-ſhaped fruit. It is a native of warm climates, and perennial; but the branches decay every winter. They flower in July, and in warm ſummers will perfect their ſeeds in Britain.

6. BRYONIA VARIEGATA, the American bryony with variegated fruit.

(II.) BRYONIÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The 1ſt and 5th ſorts ſhould be planted in pots filled with freſh light earth; and in winter muſt be placed in the green houſe to protect them from froſts and rains, which would deſtroy them. In ſummer they may be expoſed to the open air, and muſt be frequently refreſhed with water in dry weather. The 3d, 4th, and 6th ſorts are annual: they muſt be raiſed on a hot-bed early in the ſpring; and when about 3 inches high, they ſhould be each tranſplanted into a ſmall pot, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's bark. When grown ſo large as to ramble about on the ſurface of the bed, and to entangle with other plants, they ſhould be ſhifted into larger pots, and placed in the bark-ſtove; where their branches may be trained to the wall, againſt an eſpalier, that they may have ſun and air, which is abſolutely neceſſary for their producing fruit.

BRYONIOIDES, a name given by ſome botaniſts to the ſingle ſeeded cucumber. See SICYOS.

(1.) * BRYONY. *n. ſ.* [*bryonia*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) BRYONY, BLACK. See TAMUS.

BRYTIA, among ancient naturaliſts, the mult of grapes, which remains after expreſſing the juice.

BRYUM, in botany, a genus of the 56th natural order, viz. *Muſci*, belonging to the cryptogamia claſs of plants. The anthera is operculated or covered with a lid, the calyptra poliſhed; and there is a filament ariſing from the terminal tubercle. There are 41 ſpecies, moſt of them natives of Britain.

BRZEST, a town in Sileſia.

BRZEZY. See BERZEZY.

BUA, an iſland of the gulph of Venice, on the coaſt of Dalmatia, near Trau; called alſo the PARTRIDGE ISLAND, becauſe frequented by thoſe birds. It is called BUBUS by Pliny. During the decline of the empire it was called BOAS; and ſeveral illuſtrious men who fell under diſgrace at court were baniſhed to it, particularly Florentius maſter of the offices under Julian, Immentius de Valenti, and the heretic Jovinian. The emperors of Conſtantinople either were not acquainted with it, or were willing to treat the baniſhed with great clemency. The climate is exceedingly mild; the air good; the oil, grapes, and fruit excellent; the ſea around it abounds in fiſh, and the port is large and ſecure. It is ten miles in length, and 25 in circuit; but rather high and mountainous.

BUANES, a town of France, in the department of Gers, and ci-devant province of Gaſcony, ſeated on the river Bahus. Lon. 0. 5. E. Lat. 43. 47. N.

BUARCOS, a town of Portugal, in Beira, on the Mondego. Moſt of its buildings were deſtroyed by the earthquake in 1752. Lon. 8. 5. W. Lat. 40. 3. N.

* BUB. *n. ſ.* [a cant word.] Strong malt liquor.—

Or

Or if it be his fate to meet
With folks who have more wealth than wit,
He loves cheap port, and double *bub*,
And ſettles in the humdrum club. *Prior.*

BUBALINUS. See ANACANDAYA.

BUBALUS, in zoology, the trivial name of the buffalo. See Bos, No. IV. § v. 1—4.

(1.) BUBASTIS, a name of Iſis, or the moon. The Egyptians beſtowed different names on the ſun and moon, to characterize their effects and relations with reſpect to the earth. Chæremon, a ſacred writer of Egypt, leaves no doubt on this ſubject. "Every thing which is publiſhed of Oſiris and Iſis, all the ſacerdotal fables, allude only to the phaſes of the moon, and the courſe of the ſun." Theology, having perſonified Bubaſtis, formed a divinity, of whom a cat was the ſymbol. The prieſts fed it with ſacred food; and when it died, they embalmed its body, and carried it in pomp to the tomb prepared for it. The ancients have explained this worſhip variouſly. The Greeks pretend, that when Typhon declared war againſt the gods, Apollo transformed himſelf into a vulture, Mercury into an ibis, and Bubaſtis into a cat, and that the veneration of the people for cats took riſe from that fable; but they aſcribe their own ideas to the Egyptians, who thought very differently. However that may be, the cat was greatly honoured in Egypt, and a Roman ſoldier having imprudently killed one, was immediately put to death by the populace. The Greeks who worſhipped the moon by the name of DIANA, beſtowed it alſo on this Egyptian divinity. The Egyptians attributed to her the virtue of aſſiſting pregnant women, as the Greeks and Latins did to Diana. The philoſopher will ſeek for the origin of this ancient worſhip in the laws impoſed by nature on women, and which in ſome meaſure follow the lunar revolutions. The natural philoſophers and the poets buried it under allegories unintelligible to the people. A perfect reſemblance, however, does not exiſt between the two deities. The Greeks conſtituted Diana goddeſs of the chace, an attribute the Egyptians did not acknowledge in Bubaſtis. Diana was the daughter of Jupiter and Latona, but Bubaſtis of Oſiris and Iſis. A queſtion naturally ariſes here: How could Bubaſtis be called the daughter of Iſis, ſince ſhe alſo was a ſymbol of the moon? The Egyptian theology eaſily explains this. Iſis was the general appellation of the moon; Bubaſtis a particular attribute. The ſun, in conjunction with the ſtar of the night, formed the celeſtial marriage of Oſiris and Iſis; the creſcent, which appears 3 days after, was allegorically called their daughter. Accordingly, in the city of *Iliuhyia*, where Bubaſtis was adored under that title, the 3d day of the lunar month was conſecrated by a particular worſhip; becauſe 3 days after the conjunction, the moon diſengaged from the rays of the ſun, appears as a creſcent, and is viſible. The Egyptians celebrated therefore a ſolemnity in honour of Bubaſtis, which in their tongue ſignified *new moon*.

(2.) BUBASTIS, in ancient geography, a city of Egypt, built in honour of the goddeſs, (No. 1.) and where, according to Herodotus, the people annually aſſembled from all parts of Egypt, to celebrate her feſtival.

(1.) * BUBBLE. *n. ſ.* [*bobbel*, Dutch.] 1. A ſmall bladder of water; a film of water filled with wind. —*Bubbles* are in the form of a hemiſphere; air within, and a little ſkin of water without: and it ſeemeth ſomewhat ſtrange, that the air ſhould riſe ſo ſwiftly, while it is in the water, and when it cometh to the top, ſhould be ſtayed by ſo weak a cover as that of the *bubble* is. *Bacon.*—The colours of *bubbles*, with which children play, are various, and change their ſituation variouſly, without any reſpect to confine or ſhadow. *Newton.* 2. Any thing which wants ſolidity and firmneſs; any thing that is more ſpecious than real.—The earl of Lincoln was induced to participate, not lightly upon the ſtrength of the proceedings there, which was but a *bubble*, but upon letters from the lady Margaret. *Bacon.*—

Then a ſoldier,
Seeking the *bubble* reputation,
Even in the cannon's mouth. *Shakeſpeare.*

War, he ſung, is toil and trouble,
Honour but an empty *bubble*,
Fighting ſtill, and ſtill deſtroying. *Dryden.*

3. A cheat; a falſe ſhow.—

The nation then too late will find,
Directors promiſes but wind.
South-Sea at beſt a mighty *bubble*. *Swift.*

4. The perſon cheated.—

Ceaſe, deareſt mother, ceaſe to chide;
Gany's a cheat, and I'm a *bubble*;
Yet why this great exceſs of trouble? *Prior.*

—He has been my *bubble* theſe twenty years, and, to my certain knowledge, underſtands no more of his own affairs, than a child in ſwaddling clothes. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) BUBBLE, in commerce, a cant term given to a project for raiſing money on imaginary grounds, too much practiſed in France and England, in 1719, 1720, and 1721. The pretence of theſe ſchemes was the raiſing a capital for retrieving, ſetting on foot, or carrying on, ſome promiſing and uſeful branch of trade, manufacture, machinery, or the like. To this end propoſals were made out, ſhowing the advantages to be derived from the undertaking, and inviting perſons to be engaged in it. The ſum neceſſary to manage the affair, together with the profits expected from it, were divided into ſhares or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by any diſpoſed to adventure therein. Bubbles by which the public have been tricked, are of two kinds, viz. 1. Thoſe which we may properly enough term *trading bubbles*; 2. Stock or fund bubbles. The former have been of various kinds; and the latter at different times, as in 1719 and 1720.

(3.) BUBBLE, in natural philoſophy, a ſmall drop or veſicle of any fluid filled with air; and formed either on its ſurface by an addition of more of the fluid, as is raining, &c.; or in its ſubſtance by an inteſtine motion of its component particles. Bubbles are dilatable or compreſſible, *i. e.* they take up more or leſs room as the included air is more or leſs heated, or more or leſs preſſed from without; and are round, becauſe the included air acts equally from within all around.

(1.) * *To* BUBBLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cheat: a cant word.—He tells me, with great paſſion, that ſhe has *bubbled* him out of his youth; and has drilled him on to five and fifty. *Addiſon.*

—Charles Mather could not *bubble* a young beau better with a toy. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) * *To* BUBBLE. *v. n.* 1. To riſe in bubbles.—

Alas! a crimſon river of warm blood,
Like to a *bubbling* fountain ſtirr'd with wind.
Doth riſe and fall. *Shakeſpeare.*

Adder's fork, and blind worm's ſting,
Lizard's leg, and owlet's wing:
For a charm of pow'rful trouble,
Like a hellbroth boil and *bubble.* *Shakeſpeare.*

Still *bubble* on, and pour forth blood and tears. *Dryden.*

—The ſame ſpring ſuffers at ſometimes a very manifeſt remiſſion of its heat: at others, as manifeſt an increaſe of it; yea, ſometimes to that exceſs, as to make it boil and *bubble* with extreme heat. *Woodward.* 2. To run with a gentle noiſe.—

For thee the *bubbling* ſprings appear'd to mourn,
And whiſpering pines made vows for thy return. *Dryden.*

Not *bubbling* fountains to the thirſty ſwain,
Not ſhow'rs to larks, or ſunſhine to the bee,
Are half ſo charming as thy ſight to me. *Pope.*

* BUBBLER. *n. ſ.* [from *bubble.*] A cheat.—What words can ſuffice to expreſs, how infinitely I eſteem you, above all the great ones in this part of the world; above all the Jews, jobbers, and *bubblers! Digby to Pope.*

* BUBBY. *n. ſ.* A woman's breaſts.—Foh! ſay they, to ſee a handſome, briſk, genteel young fellow, ſo much governed by a doating old woman; why don't you go and ſuck the *bubby? Arbuthnot.*

BUBNALL, the name of two villages, viz. 1. in Peak of Derby: 2. in Warwickſhire, W. of Dunſmore Heath.

(1.) * BUBO. *n. ſ.* [Lat. from βουβων, the groin.] That part of the groin from the bending of the thigh to the ſcrotum; and therefore all tumours in that part are called *buboes. Quincy.*—I ſuppurated it after the manner of a *bubo*, opened it, and endeavoured deterſion. *Wiſeman.*

(2.) BUBO, in ornithology, the trivial name of a ſpecies of ſtrix. See STRIX.

(3.) BUBO, or BUBOE, } in ſurgery, a tumor which ariſes, with inflammation, in the arm-pits and the groin. See MEDICINE, *Index.*

BUBON; MACEDONIAN PARSLEY: a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 46th order, Umbellatæ. The fruit is ovated, ſtriated and villous. There are 4 ſpecies which are propagated by ſeeds, and require the common culture of other exotic vegetables; viz.

1. BUBON GALBANUM or African ferula, riſes with an upright ſtalk to the height of 8 or 10 feet, which at bottom is woody, having a purpliſh bark covered with a whitiſh powder that comes off when handled. The upper part of the ſtalk is garniſhed with leaves at every joint, the foot-ſtalks half embracing them at their baſe, and are ſet with leaves like thoſe of the lovage, but ſmaller, and of a grey colour: the top of the ſtalk is terminated by an umbel of yellow flowers; which are ſucceeded by oblong channelled ſeeds, which have a thin membrane or wing on their borders. When any part of the plant is broken, there iſſues out a little thin milk of a cream colour, which hath a ſtrong ſcent of galbanum.

2. BUBON GUMMIFERUM, with a mock chervil leaf, riſes with a ligneous ſtalk about the ſame height; and is garniſhed with leaves at each joint, which branch out like the former; but the ſmall leaves or lobes are narrow and indented like thoſe of baſtard hemlock. The ſtalk is terminated by an umbel of ſmall yellow flowers, which are ſucceeded by ſeeds like thoſe of the former ſort.—The galbanum of the ſhops is ſuppoſed to be procured from theſe two ſpecies.

3. BUBON MACEDONICUM ſends out many leaves from the root; the loweſt grow almoſt horizontally, ſpreading near the ſurface of the ground: the foot-ſtalk of each leaf divides into ſeveral ſmaller; which are garniſhed with ſmooth rhomb-ſhaped leaves, which are of a bright pale green colour, and ſawed on their edges. In the centre of the plant ariſes the flower-ſtem, which is little more than a foot high, dividing into many branches, each terminated by an umbel of white flowers, which are ſucceeded by oblong hairy ſeeds. This plant, in warm countries, is biennial; the plants, which riſe from ſeeds, one year produce flowers, and ſeeds the next, and then periſh: but in Britain they ſeldom flower till the 3d or 4th; but whenever the plant flowers, it always dies.

4. BUBON RIGIDUM, hard or rigid ferula, is a native of Sicily. It is a low perennial plant, having ſhort, ſtiff, and very narrow leaves: the flower-ſtalk riſes a foot high, which is terminated by an umbel of ſmall white flowers; which are ſucceeded by ſmall, oblong, channelled ſeeds. It is a plant of little beauty or uſe, ſo is only cultivated for the ſake of variety.

BUBONA, in ancient mythology, the tutelar goddeſs of the larger cattle.

(1.) BUBONIUM, in botany, a ſynonime of the INULA.

(2.) BUBONIUM is alſo a name given by ſome botaniſts to the ASTER ATTICUS, or golden ſtar-wort.

BUBONIUS LAPIS, a figured ſtone, in ſhape reſembling an owl's head, of a flinty ſubſtance, black within, and cineritious without; thus denominated by Dr Plott. *Hiſt. Oxford.* ch. v. 45.

(1.) * BUBONOCELE. *n. ſ.* [Lat. from βουβων, the groin, and κηλη, a rupture.] a particular kind of rupture, when the inteſtines break down into the groin. *Quincy.*—When the inteſtine, or omentum, falls through the rings of the abdominal muſcles into the groin, it is called *hernia inguinalis*, or if into the ſcrotum, *ſcrotalis*: theſe two, though the firſt only is properly ſo called, are known by the name of *bubonocele. Sharp.*

(2.) BUBONOCELE. See SURGERY.

BUBTON, a village in Derbyſhire, in Appletree hundred.

* BUBUKLE. *n. ſ.* a red pimple.—His face is all *bubukles*, and Whelks, and knobs, and flames of fire. *Shakeſpeare.*

BUBULCA, in ichthyology, a ſmall freſh-water fiſh, called by ſome BOUVIERA and PETENSI. It is ſmall, flat, and very ſhort, approaching to a

round rather than a long ſhape, and of a fine ſilvery whiteneſs, ſeldom above 2 inches in length.

BUBULCUS. } Names of the conſtellation
BUBULUS. } Bootes.

BUBUS. See Bua.

BUBWITH, in Yorkſhire, W. of Wighton.

BUC, George, a learned Engliſh antiquarian, who flouriſhed in the beginning of the 17th century. In the reign of king James I. he was made one of the gentlemen of the privy chamber, knighted; and conſtituted maſter of the revels. He wrote, 1. The hiſtory of the reign of Richard III. in which he takes great pains to wipe off the bloody ſtains that have blotted his character, and repreſents the perſon and actions of that prince in a much leſs odious light, than other hiſtorians have done: 2. A treatiſe of the art of revels; and 3. A work intitled the Third univerſitie of England.

BUCA, in natural hiſtory, a name given by ſome authors to the BUCCINUM.

BUCAN. See BUCCAN.

To BUCAN. See *To* BUCCAN.

BUCANEER, or } See BUCCANIER, § I.
(1.) BUCANIER. }

(2.) BUCANIERS. *n. ſ.* a cant word for the privateers, or pirates, of America.

BUCANNING. See BUCCANING.

BUCAO, in natural hiſtory, a name given by the people of the Philippine iſlands to a ſpecies of ſcreech owl, of the ſize of a peacock, common in thoſe iſlands. It is very beautiful, but makes a hideous noiſe in the night.

BUCARDIA, or } in natural hiſtory, a name
BUCARDITES, } given by many authors to a ſtone, in ſome degree reſembling the figure of an ox's heart. It is uſually of the ſubſtance of the coarſer ſtones, and is no other than a quantity of the matter of ſuch ſtone, received while moiſt into the cavity of a large cockle, and thence aſſuming the figure of the inſide of that ſhell, the depreſſion of the head of the cockle, where the *cardo* or hinge of this ſhell is, makes a long and large dent in the formed maſs, which gives it a heart-like ſhape. Plott mentions a *bucardites*, which he found at Stretford in Staffordſhire, which weighed 20lb. though broken half away, curiouſly reticulated, with a white-ſpar coloured ſtone.

BUCARDIUM, in natural hiſtory, a name given by authors to a kind of heart ſhell, reſembling an ox's heart in ſhape; it is of the genus of the cordiformes, or heart-ſhells, and differs from the other kinds, in being of a more globular figure.

BUCCA, in anatomy, the cheek.

BUCCÆ MUSCULUS, in anatomy, a name given by ſome to the muſcle more uſually called the BUCCINATOR, and *contrahens labiorum*.

BUCCA FERREA, in botany, a name given by Micheli to a genus of plants, called ſince by Linnæus *ruppia*.

BUCCAL, *adj.* belonging to the cheek.

BUCCALES GLANDULÆ are ſmall glands diſperſed over the inner ſide of the cheeks and lips, which ſeparate a ſpittle uſeful in maſtication and digeſtion. Steno, and ſome other writers, confound the buccal with the maxillary glands.

BUCCAN, *n. ſ.* the place where the Buccaniers ſmoke and dry their meat. The name is alſo applied to the grate or hurdle, made of Braſil wood, upon which the meat is hung above the fire.

To BUCCAN, or BUCAN, *v. a.* To ſmoke and dry fleſh, or fiſh. See BUCCANIERS, § 2.

(1.) BUCCANIER, or BUCANIER, one who dries and ſmokes fleſh or fiſh after the manner of the Indians. The name was particularly given to the firſt French ſettlers on the iſland of St Domingo, whoſe ſole employment conſiſted in hunting wild bulls or boars, in order to ſell their hides and fleſh. See § 2. It has alſo been applied to thoſe famous piratical adventurers, chiefly Engliſh and French, who joined together to make depredations on the Spaniards of America. See § 5—7.

(2.) BUCCANIERS OF ST DOMINGO. The Spaniards had not been long in poſſeſſion of the Weſt Indies and the continent of America, when other nations, eſpecially the Engliſh and French, began to follow them. But though the Spaniards were unable to people ſuch extenſive countries themſelves, they were reſolved that no others ſhould do it for them; and therefore made a moſt cruel war on all thoſe of any other nation who attempted to ſettle in any of the Antilles or Caribbee iſlands. The French, however, were at laſt lucky enough to acquire ſome footing in the iſland of St Chriſtopher's; but by the time they began to form a regular government, the Spaniards found means to diſlodge them. Upon this the wretched fugitives, conſidering at how great a diſtance they were from their mother country, and how near to the iſland of Hiſpaniola or St Domingo, the northern parts of which were then uninhabited and full of ſwine and black cattle, immediately reſolved to take poſſeſſion of that country, in conjunction with other adventurers of their own and the Engliſh nation. And the Dutch promiſed to ſupply them plentifully with all kinds of neceſſaries they might require, in exchange for the hides and tallow they ſhould procure by hunting. Theſe new ſettlers obtained the name of *buccaniers*, from their cuſtom of buccaning their beef and pork to preſerve it for conſumption or ſale. But ſome of them ſoon grew tired of this new way of life, and took to planting; while many more choſe to turn pirates, truſting to find among thoſe who remained on ſhore a quick ſale for all the plunder they could make at ſea. This new body of adventurers were called *free-booters*, from their making free booty of whatever came in their way.—The colony now began to thrive faſt by the riches acquired by theſe free-booters, and the profuſion with which they diſtributed them among their old companions, the buccaniers and planters, for the meereſt trifles. This brought numbers of ſettlers from France, in quality of indented ſervants, tho' they toiled rather like ſlaves during the 3 years for which they generally bound themſelves. One of theſe men preſuming to repreſent to his maſter, who always fixed upon a Sunday for ſending him with ſkins to the port, that God had forbidden ſuch a practice, when he had declared, "Six days ſhalt thou labour, and on the 7th day ſhalt thou reſt:" "And I (replied the brutal buccanier) ſay to thee, Six days ſhalt thou kill bulls, and ſtrip them of their ſkins, and on the ſeventh day ſhalt thou carry their hides to the ſea-ſhore." This command, followed by blows,

ſoon enforced obedience. Thus the colony conſiſted of 4 claſſes; buccaniers; freebooters; planters; and indented ſervants; who now began to call themſelves the *body of adventurers*. They lived together in perfect harmony under a kind of democracy; every freeman had a deſpotic authority over his own family; and every captain was ſovereign in his own ſhip, though liable to be diſcarded at the diſcretion of the crew. The planters ſettled chiefly in the little iſland of Tortuga on the northern coaſt of Hiſpaniola: but it was not long before ſome of them going to the great iſland to hunt with the buccaniers, the reſt were ſurpriſed by the Spaniards; and all, even thoſe who had ſurrendered at diſcretion, were put to the ſword or hanged. The Spaniards now reſolving to rid the great iſland of the buccaniers, aſſembled a body of 500 lance men, who, by their ſeldom going fewer than 50 in a company, obtained the name of *the Fifties* from their enemies.

(3.) BUCCANIERS OF ST DOMINGO, CUSTOMS, &c. OF THE. The buccaniers had hitherto lived in little huts built on ſome ſpots of cleared ground, juſt large enough to dry their ſkins on, and contain their buccaning houſes. Theſe ſpots they called *Boucans*, and the huts they dwelt in *Ajoupas*, a word which they borrowed from the Spaniards, and the Spaniards from the natives.—Though theſe ajoupas lay open on all ſides, they were very agreeable to the hardy inhabitants, in a climate where wind and air are ſo very deſirable. As the buccaniers had neither wives nor children, they aſſociated by pairs, and mutually rendered each other all the ſervices a maſter could reaſonably expect from a ſervant, living together in ſo perfect a community, that the ſurvivor always ſucceeded his deceaſed partner. This kind of union or fellowſhip they called *ſ'emateleter*, inſailoring, and each other *matelot*, or ſailor, whence is derived the cuſtom of giving, at leaſt in ſome parts of the French Antilles, the name *mateletage*, ſailorage, to any kind of ſociety formed by private perſons for their mutual advantage. They behaved to each other with the greateſt juſtice and openneſs of heart; it would have been a crime to keep any thing under lock and key; but on the other hand, the leaſt pilfering was unpardonable, and puniſhed with expulſion from the community.—And indeed there could be no great temptation to ſteal, when it was reckoned a point of honour never to refuſe a neighbour what he wanted; and where there was ſo little property, it was impoſſible there ſhould be many diſputes. If any happened, the common friends of the parties at variance interpoſed, and ſoon put an end to the difference. As to laws, the buccaniers acknowledged none but ſome rules drawn up in conventions among themſelves. They ſilenced all objections from ſtrangers, by coolly anſwering, that it was not the cuſtom of the coaſt; and grounded their right of acting in this manner, on their baptiſm under the tropic, which freed them, in their opinion, from all obligations antecedent to that marine ceremony. The governor of Tortuga, when that iſland was again ſettled, though appointed by the French court, had very little authority over them; they contented themſelves with rendering him from time to time ſome ſlight homage. They had in a manner entirely ſhaken off religion, and thought they did a great deal in not wholly forgetting the God of their fathers. We need not be ſurpriſed to meet with nations, among whom it is difficult to diſcover any trace of religious worſhip: for it is certain, that had the buccaniers of St Domingo been perpetuated on the ſame footing they ſubſiſted at this time, the 3d or 4th generation of them would have as little religion as the Caffres and Hottentots of Africa, or the Topinambous and Cannibals of America. They even laid aſide their ſurnames, and aſſumed nicknames, or martial names, moſt of which have continued in their families to this day. Many, however, on their marrying, which ſeldom happened till they turned planters, took care to have their ſurnames inſerted in the marriage contract; and this practice gave occaſion to a proverb ſtill current in the French Antilles, *a man is not to be known till he takes a wife*. Their dreſs conſiſted of a filthy greaſy ſhirt, dyed with the blood of the animals they killed; a pair of trouſers ſtill more naſty: a thong of leather by way of belt, to which they hung a caſe containing ſome Dutch knives, and a kind of very ſhort ſabre called *Manchette*; a hat without any brim except a little flap on the front, and ſhoes of hog ſkins all of a piece. Their guns were 2½ feet in the barrel, and of a bore to carry balls of an ounce. Every man had his contract ſervants, more or fewer according to his abilities; beſides a pack of 20 or 30 dogs, among which there was alſo a couple of beagles. Their chief employment at firſt was ox-hunting; and if at any time they chaſed a wild hog, it was rather for paſtime, or to make proviſion for a feaſt, than for any other advantage. But in proceſs of time, ſome of them betook themſelves entirely to hunting of hogs, whoſe fleſh they buccaned in the following manner: Firſt, they cut the fleſh into very long pieces, an inch and an half thick, and ſprinkled them with ſalt, which they rubbed off after 24 hours. Then they dried theſe pieces in ſtoves over the fire made of the ſkin and bones of the beaſt till they grew as hard as a board, and aſſumed a deep brown colour. Pork prepared in this manner will keep in caſks above a year; and when ſteeped but a little while in lukewarm water, become plump and roſy, and yield moreover a moſt grateful ſmell, either broiled or boiled, or otherwiſe dreſſed, enough to tempt the moſt languid appetite, and pleaſe the moſt delicate palate. Thoſe who hunt the wild boar have of late been called ſimply *hunters*. In hunting, they ſet out at day break, preceded by the beagles, and followed by their ſervants with the reſt of the dogs; and as they made it a point never to balk their beagles they were often led by them over the moſt frightful precipices, and through places which any other mortal would have deemed abſolutely impaſſable. As ſoon as the beagles had rouſed the game, the reſt of the dogs ſtruck up and ſurrounded the beaſt, ſtopping it, and keeping a conſtant barking till the buccanier could get near enough to ſhoot it; in doing this, he commonly aimed at the pit of the breaſt; when the beaſt fell, he hamſtrung it to prevent its riſing again. But it has ſometimes happened that the creature, not wounded enough to tumble to the ground, has run fu-

ously at his purſuer, and ripped him up. But, in general, the buccanier ſeldom miſſed his aim; and when he did, was nimble enough to get up the tree, behind which he had the precaution to place himſelf. Some of them have even been ſeen to overtake the beaſt in chace, and hamſtringing it without any further ceremony. As ſoon as the prey was half ſkinned, the maſter cut out a large bone, and ſucked the marrow for breakfaſt. The reſt he left to his ſervants, one of whom always remained behind to finiſh the ſkinning, and bring the ſkin with a choice piece of meat for the huntſmens dinner. They then continued the chace till they had killed as many beaſts as there were heads in the company. The maſter was the laſt to return to the boucan, loaded like the reſt with a ſkin and a piece of meat. Here the buccaniers found their tables ready: for every one had his ſeparate table; which was the firſt thing, any way fit for the purpoſe, that came in their way, a ſtone, the trunk of a tree, and the like. No tablecloth, no napkin, no bread or wine graced their board; not even potatoes or bananas, unleſs they found them ready to their hands. When this did not happen, the fat and lean of the game, taken alternately, ſerved to ſupply the place. A little pimento, and the ſqueeze of an orange, their only ſauce; contentment, peace of mind, a good appetite, and abundance of mirth, made every thing agreeable. Thus they lived till they had compleated the number of hides, for which they had agreed with the merchants; when they carried them to Tortuga, or ſome port of the great iſland. As the buccaniers uſed much exerciſe, and fed only on fleſh, they generally enjoyed a good ſtate of health. They were indeed ſubject to fevers, but either ſuch as laſted only a day, and left no ſenſible impreſſion the day following; or ſlight ſlow fevers, which did not hinder them from action, and were of courſe ſo little regarded, that it was uſual with the patient, when aſked how he did, to anſwer, "Very well; nothing ails me but the fever." It was impoſſible, however, they ſhould not ſuffer conſiderably by ſuch fatigues under a hot climate, to which few of them had been early inured. Hence the moſt conſiderate among them, after they had got money enough for that purpoſe, turned planters. The reſt ſoon ſpent the fruits of their labour in taverns and tippling houſes; and many had ſo habituated themſelves to this kind of life, as to become incapable of any other. Nay, there have been inſtances of young men, who having early embarked through neceſſity in this painful and dangerous profeſſion, periſted in it afterwards, merely through habit, rather than return to France and take poſſeſſion of the moſt plentiful fortunes. Such were the buccaniers of St Domingo, and ſuch their ſituation, when the Spaniards undertook to extirpate them. And at firſt they met with great ſucceſs; for as the buccaniers hunted ſeparately, every one attended by his ſervants, they were eaſily ſurpriſed. Hence the Spaniards killed numbers, and took many more, whom they condemned to a moſt cruel ſlavery. But whenever the buccaniers had time to put themſelves into a ſtate of defence, they fought like lions, to avoid falling into the hands of a nation from whom they were ſure to receive no quarter; by which means they often eſcaped: nay, there are many inſtances of ſingle men fighting their way through numbers. Theſe dangers, however, and the ſucceſs of the Spaniards in diſcovering their boucans, where they uſed to ſurpriſe and cut the throats of them and their ſervants in their ſleep, engaged them to cohabit in great numbers, and even to act offenſively, in hopes that by ſo doing they might at laſt induce the Spaniards to let them live in peace. But the fury with which they behaved whenever they met any Spaniards, ſerved only to make their enemies more intent on their deſtruction; and aſſiſtance coming to both parties, the whole iſland was turned into a ſlaughter houſe, and ſo much blood ſpilt on both ſides, that many places, on account of the carnage of which they had been the theatres, were intitled, *of the maſſacre*; ſuch as *the hill of the maſſacre*; *the plain of the maſſacre*; *the valley of the maſſacre*; names which they ſtill retain. At length the Spaniards had recourſe to their old method of ſurpriſe, which againſt enemies of more courage than vigilance was likely to ſucceed better. This put the buccaniers under a neceſſity of never hunting but in large parties, and fixing their boucans in the little iſlands on the coaſt, where they retired every evening. This expedient ſucceeded; and the boucans, by being more fixed ſoon acquired the air of little towns. When the buccaniers had once fixed themſelves, each boucan ordered ſcouts every morning to the higheſt part of the iſland, in order to reconnoitre the coaſt, and ſee if any Spaniſh parties were abroad. If no enemy appeared, they appointed a place and hour of rendezvous in the evening, and were never abſent if not killed or priſoners. When therefore any one of the company was miſſing, it was not lawful for the reſt to hunt again till they had got intelligence of him if taken, or avenged his death if killed. Things continued long in this ſituation till the Spaniards made a general hunt over the whole iſland; and, by deſtroying their game, put the buccaniers under a neceſſity of betaking themſelves to another courſe of life. Some of them turned planters; and thereby increaſed ſome of the French ſettlements on the coaſt, and formed others. The reſt, not reliſhing ſo confined and regular a life, entered among the free-booters, who thereby became a powerful body. France, who had hitherto diſclaimed for her ſubjects theſe ruffians whoſe ſucceſſes were only temporary, acknowledged them, as ſoon as they formed themſeves into ſettlements; and took meaſures for their government and defence. See DOMINGO, ST.

(4.) BUCCANIERS OF ST DOMINGO, TRADE OF THE. The hunting both of the bull and boar is ſtill carried on, and proves of conſiderable importance. That of the former furniſhes France with the fineſt hides brought from America. The buccaniers put the hides in packs which they call loads, mixing together hides of full grown bulls, of young bullocks, and of cows. Each of theſe loads is compoſed of two bull hides, or of an equivalent; *i. e.* either of two bull hides, or of one bull hide and two cow hides, or of 4 cow hides, or 3 bullocks hides. Each load is commonly ſold for ſix Spaniſh dollars. The boar meat buccaned is ſold by the bundle or pack, weighing commonly

ly 60 pounds, at the rate of 6 dollars per pack. The palmetto leaves ſerve to pack it up; but their weight is deducted, ſo that there muſt be in each pack 60 lib. of fleſh. Theſe buccaniers have alſo a great trade of the lard of boars, which they melt, and gather in large pots called *potiches*. This lard, which is called *mantegua*, is alſo ſold for about 8 dollars per pot. There is a great trade, and a great conſumption of each of theſe merchandiſes in the French ſettlements of St Domingo, and Tortuga: beſides which, they uſed to ſend great quantities to the Antilles, and even into the continent of French America. There is alſo a great deal of it ſold for the ſupport of the crews of the ſhips that come from France for trading, or which the privateers of Tortuga fit out for cruizing againſt the Spaniards. The Spaniards, who have large ſettlements in St Domingo, have alſo their buccaniers, whom they call *matadores* or *monteros*. Their chace has ſomething in it, which favours of the Spaniſh pride: the huntſman being on horſeback, uſes the lance to ſtrike the bull, thinking it beneath his courage to ſhoot him at a diſtance. When the ſervants, who are on foot, have diſcovered the beaſt, and with their dogs have driven it into ſome meadow, in which the maſter waits for them on horſeback, armed with two lances, the matadore hamſtrings it with the firſt lance, the head of which is made like a creſcent or half moon, and extremely ſharp, and kills it afterwards with the other lance, which is a common one. This chace is very pompous; the huntſman commonly making, to attack the bull, the ſame turns and ceremonies which are practiſed in thoſe barbarous feſtivals ſo famous in Spain, wherein the greateſt lords expoſe themſelves, make the people admire their dexterity and intrepidity in attacking thoſe furious animals; although it is a very dangerous ſport; the bulls, in their fury, often running directly againſt the huntſman, who may think himſelf very happy if he comes off with only the loſs of his horſe. The Spaniards dreſs their hides like the French, and the hides being carried to the Havannah, are part of the trade of that celebrated town. The flota and the galleons ſcarce ever fail touching there, on their return from Vera Cruz and Porto Bello, and carry the hides into Spain, where they are ſold, and are the moſt eſteemed of any that are brought from America into Europe.

(5.) BUCCANIERS, PIRATICAL. Before the Engliſh had made any ſettlement at Jamaica, and the French at St Domingo, ſome pirates of both nations, who have ſince been peculiarly diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Buccaniers*, had driven the Spaniards out of the ſmall iſland of Tortuga; and, fortifying themſelves there, had with amazing intrepidity made excurſions againſt the common enemy. They formed themſelves into ſmall companies, conſiſting of 50, 100, or 150 men each. A boat, of a greater or ſmaller ſize, was their only armament. Here they were expoſed night and day to all the inclemencies of the weather, having ſcarce room enough to lie down. A love of abſolute independence, the greateſt bleſſing to thoſe who are not proprietors of land, rendered them averſe from thoſe mutual reſtraints which the members of ſociety impoſe upon themſelves for the common good. As the authority they had conferred on their captain, was confined to his giving orders in battle, they lived in the greateſt confuſion. Like the ſavages, having no apprehenſion of want, nor any anxiety to preſerve the neceſſaries of life, they were conſtantly expoſed to the ſevereſt extremities of hunger and thirſt. But deriving, even from their very diſtreſſes, a courage ſuperior to every danger, the ſight of a ſhip tranſported them to a degree of frenzy. They never deliberated on the attack, but it was their cuſtom to board the ſhip as quickly as poſſible. The ſmallneſs of their veſſels, and the ſkill they ſhowed in the management of them, ſcreened them from the fire of the greater ſhips; and they preſented only the fore part of our little veſſels filled with fuſileers; who fired at the port holes with ſo much exactneſs, that it entirely confounded the moſt experienced gunners. As ſoon as they threw out the grappling, the largeſt veſſels ſeldom eſcaped them. In caſes of extreme neceſſity, they attacked the people of every nation, but fell upon the Spaniards at all times They thought that the cruelties the latter had exerciſed on the inhabitants of the new world juſtified the implacable averſion they had ſworn againſt them. But this was heightened by a perſonal pique, from the mortification they felt in ſeeing themſelves debarred from the privilege of hunting and fiſhing, which they conſidered as natural rights. Such were their principles of juſtice and religion, that, whenever they embarked on any expedition, they uſed to pray to heaven for the ſucceſs of it; and they never came back from the plunder, but they conſtantly returned thanks to God for their victory! The ſhips that ſailed from Europe to America ſeldom tempted their avidity. The merchandiſe they contained would not eaſily have been ſold, nor been very profitable in thoſe early times. The buccaniers waited for their return, when they were laden with gold, ſilver, jewels, and the moſt valuable productions of the new world. If they met a ſingle ſhip, they were ſure to attack her. They followed the fleets till they ſailed out of the gulph of Bahama; and as ſoon as any one of the veſſels was ſeparated by accident from the reſt, it was taken. The Spaniards, who trembled at the approach of the buccaniers, whom they called devils, immediately ſurrendered. Quarter was granted, if the cargo proved to be a rich one; if not, all the priſoners were thrown into the ſea. The buccaniers, when they had got a conſiderable booty, at firſt held their rendezvous at the iſland of Tortuga, to divide the ſpoil; but afterwards the French went to St Domingo, and the Engliſh to Jamaica. Each perſon, holding up his hand, ſolemnly proteſted, that he had ſecreted nothing of what he had taken. If any one was convicted of perjury, a caſe that ſeldom happened, he was left, as ſoon as an opportunity offered, upon ſome deſert iſland, as a traitor unworthy to live in ſociety. Such brave men as had been maimed in any of their expeditions, were firſt provided for. If they had loſt a hand, an arm, a leg, or a foot, they received 26 l. An eye, finger, or toe, loſt in fight, was valued only at half the ſum. The wounded were allowed 2s. 6d. a day for two months, to enable them to have their wounds taken care of.

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If they had not money enough to anſwer theſe ſeveral demands, the whole company engaged in ſome freſh expedition, and continued it till they had acquired a ſufficient ſtock to enable them to ſatisfy ſuch honourable contracts. After theſe acts of juſtice and humanity, the remainder of the booty was divided into as many ſhares as there were buccaniers. The commander could only claim a ſingle ſhare, but they complimented him with two or three, in proportion as he had acquitted himſelf to their ſatisfaction. Favour never had any influence in the diviſion of the booty; for every ſhare was determined by lot. Inſtances of ſuch rigid juſtice as this are not often met with; and they extended even to the dead. Their ſhare was given to the man who was known to be their companion when alive, and therefore their heir. If the perſon who had been killed had no intimate, his part was ſent to his relations when they were known. If there were no friends or relations, it was diſtributed in charity to the poor and to churches, to obtain prayers for the perſon in whoſe name theſe benefactions were given! When theſe duties had been complied with, they indulged themſelves in gaming, wine, women, and every kind of debauchery; which was carried to the utmoſt pitch of exceſs, and was ſtopt only by the want which ſuch profuſions brought on. Thoſe men who were enriched with ſeveral millions, were ſoon after totally ruined, and deſtitute of clothes and proviſions. They returned to ſea; and the new ſupplies they acquired were quickly laviſhed in the ſame manner. The Spaniſh colonies, reduced almoſt to deſpair in finding themſelves a perpetual prey to theſe ruffians, grew weary of navigation. They gave up all the power, conveniences, and fortune, which their connections procured them, and formed themſelves into many diſtinct and ſeparate ſtates. They were ſenſible of the inconveniences ariſing from ſuch conduct, but the dread of falling into the hands of theſe rapacious monſters, had greater influence over them than the dictates of honour, intereſt, and policy; and gave riſe to that ſpirit of inactivity which ſtill continues. Their deſpondency increaſed the boldneſs of the buccaniers. As yet they had only appeared in the Spaniſh ſettlements, to carry off ſome proviſions when they were in want of them. They no ſooner found their captures begin to diminiſh, than they determined to recover by land what they loſt at ſea. The richeſt and moſt populous countries of the continent were plundered and laid waſte. The culture of lands was equally neglected with navigation; and the Spaniards dared neither appear in their public roads, nor ſail in the latitudes which belonged to them.

(6.) BUCCANIERS, PIRATICAL, HISTORY OF THE MOST CELEBRATED. Among thoſe who ſignalized themſelves in this new ſpecies of excurſions, MONTBAR, a gentleman of Languedoc, particularly diſtinguiſhed himſelf. Having, in his infancy, met with a circumſtantial account of the cruelties practiſed by the Spaniards, in the conqueſt of the new world, he conceived an averſion which he carried to a degree of frenzy againſt that nation which had committed ſuch enormities. The enthuſiaſm this ſpirit of humanity worked him up to, was turned into a rage more cruel than even that of religious fanaticiſm; thus literally fulfilling the text, *the tender mercies of the wicked are cruelty*. The names of theſe unhappy ſufferers ſeemed to rouze him, and call upon him for vengeance. He had heard that the buccaniers were the moſt inveterate enemies to the Spaniſh name: he therefore embarked on board a ſhip, to join them. In the paſſage, they met with a Spaniſh veſſel; attacked it; and, as uſual, immediately boarded it. Montbar, with a ſabre in his hand, fell upon the enemy; broke through them; and, hurrying twice from one end of the ſhip to the other, levelled every thing that oppoſed him. When he had compelled them to ſurrender, leaving to his companions the dividing of ſo rich a booty, he contented himſelf with the ſavage pleaſure of contemplating the dead bodies of the Spaniards, lying in heaps together, againſt whom he had ſworn a conſtant and deadly hatred. Freſh opportunities ſoon occurred, that enabled him to glut this ſpirit of revenge. The ſhip he was in arrived at the coaſt of St Domingo; where the buccaniers on land immediately applied to barter ſome proviſions for brandy. As the articles they offered were of little value, they alledged in excuſe, that their enemies had over-run the country, laid waſte their ſettlements, and carried off all they could. "Why (replied Montbar) do you tamely ſuffer ſuch inſults?"—"Neither do we; (anſwered they in the ſame tone) the Spaniards have experienced what kind of men we are, and have therefore taken advantage of the time when we were engaged in hunting. But we are going to join ſome of our companions, who have been ſtill more ill treated than we; and then we ſhall have warm work."—"If you approve of it, (anſwered Montbar) I will head you, not as your commander, but as the foremoſt to expoſe myſelf to danger." The buccaniers, perceiving that he was ſuch a man as they wanted, cheerfully accepted his offer. The ſame day they overtook the enemy, and Montbar attacked them with an impetuoſity that aſtoniſhed the braveſt. Scarce one Spaniard eſcaped the effects of his fury. The remaining part of his life was equally diſtinguiſhed. The Spaniards ſuffered ſo much from him, both by land and at ſea, that he acquired the name of the *Exterminator*. The ſavage diſpoſitions of the buccaniers, having obliged the Spaniards to confine themſelves within their ſettlements, theſe free-booters reſolved to attack them there. This new method of carrying on the war required ſuperior forces; and their aſſociations in conſequence became more numerous. The firſt that was conſiderable was formed by LOLONOIS, who, from the abject ſtate of a bondſman, had gradually raiſed himſelf to the command of two canoes, with 22 men. With theſe he took a Spaniſh frigate on the coaſt of Cuba. He then repaired to Port-au-Prince, in which were 4 ſhips, fitted out purpoſely to purſue him. He took them, and threw all the crews into the ſea except one man, whom he ſaved, in order to ſend him with a letter to the governor of the Havannah, acquainting him with what he had done, and aſſuring him that he would treat in the ſame manner all the Spaniards that ſhould fall into his hands, not excepting the governor himſelf, if he ſhould be ſo fortunate as

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to take him. After this, he ran his canoes and prize ships aground, and failed with his frigate only to Tortuga. Here he met with Michael de Basco, who had distinguished himself by having taken, even under the cannon of Porto Bello, a Spanish ship, estimated at 218,500l. and by other actions equally brave and daring. These two soon collected together 440 men. This body, the most numerous the buccaniers had yet been able to muster, failed to the bay of Venezuela, which runs up into the country 50 leagues. The fort that was built at its entrance was taken; the cannon were nailed up; and the whole garrison, consisting of 250 men, put to death. They then reimbarked, and came to Maracaybo, built on the western coast of the lake, at the distance of ten leagues from its mouth. This city, which had become rich by its trade in skins, tobacco, and cocoa, was deserted. The inhabitants had retired with their effects to the other side of the bay. If the buccaniers had not lost a fortnight in riot and debauch, they would have found at Gibraltar, near the extremity of the lake, every thing that the inhabitants had secreted to secure it from being plundered. On the contrary, they met with fortifications lately erected, which they had the useless satisfaction of making themselves masters of, at the expence of a great deal of blood; for the inhabitants had already removed at a distance the most valuable part of their property. Exasperated at this disappointment, they set fire to Gibraltar. Maracaybo would have shared the same fate, had it not been ransomed. Besides the sum they received for its ransom, they also carried off with them all the crosses, pictures, and bells of the churches; intending, as they said, to build a chapel in the island of Tortuga, and consecrate this part of their spoils to sacred purposes. Such was the religion of these barbarous people, who made an offering to heaven of the spoils which arose from their robberies and murders! While they were idly dissipating the money they had got on the coast of Venezuela, MORGAN, the most renowned of the English buccaniers, sailed from Jamaica to attack Porto-Bello. His plan of operations was so well contrived, that he surprised the city, and took it without opposition. The conquest of Panama was an object of much greater importance. To secure this, Morgan thought it necessary to sail in the latitudes of Costa-Ricca; to procure some guides in the island of St Catharine's, where the Spaniards confined their malefactors. This place was so strongly fortified, that it ought to have held out for ten years against a considerable army. Notwithstanding this, the governor, on the first appearance of the pirates, sent privately to concert measures how he might surrender himself without incurring the imputation of cowardice. The result of this consultation was, that Morgan, in the night, should attack a fort at some distance, and the governor should sally out of the citadel to defend a post of so much consequence; that the assailants should then attack him in the rear, and take him prisoner, which would consequently occasion a surrender of the place. It was agreed that a smart firing should be kept on both sides, without doing mischief to either. This farce was admirably carried on. The Spaniards, without being exposed to any danger, appeared to have done their duty: and the buccaniers, after having totally demolished the fortifications, and put on board their vessels a prodigious quantity of warlike ammunitions which they found at St Catharine's, steered their course towards the river Chagre, the only channel that was open to them to arrive at the place which was the object of their utmost wishes. At the entrance of this considerable river, a fort was built upon a steep rock, which the waves of the sea continually beat against. This bulwark, very difficult of access, was defended by an officer whose extraordinary abilities were equal to his courage, and by a garrison that deserved such a commander. The buccaniers, for the first time, here met with a resistance that could only be equalled by their perseverance: It was doubtful whether they would succeed or be obliged to raise the siege, when the commander was killed, and the fort accidentally taking fire, they made themselves masters of the place. Morgan left his vessels at anchor, with a sufficient number of men to guard them; and sailed up the river in his sloops for 33 miles, till he came to Cruces, where it ceases to be navigable. He then proceeded by land to Panama, 9 leagues distant. Upon a large and extensive plain before the city, he met with a considerable body of troops, whom he put to flight with the greatest ease, and entered into the city, now abandoned. Here were found prodigious treasures concealed in the wells and caves. Some valuable commodities were also taken up upon the boats that were left aground at low water; and in the neighbouring forests were found several rich depots. Having burnt the city, they set sail with a great number of prisoners, who were ransomed a few days after; and came to the mouth of the Chagre with a prodigious booty. In 1603, an expedition of the greatest consequence was formed by VAN HORN, a native of Offend, but who had served all his life among the French. His intrepidity would never let him suffer the least signs of cowardice among those who associated with him. In the heat of an engagement, he went about his ship, successively observed his men; and immediately killed those who shrank at the sudden report of a pistol, gun, or cannon. This extraordinary discipline had made him become the terror of the coward, and the idol of the brave. He readily shared with the men of spirit and bravery the immense riches that were acquired by so truly warlike and diabolical a disposition. He generally failed in his frigate, which was his own property. But these new expeditions requiring greater numbers to carry them into execution, he took to his assistance Gramont, Godfrey, and Jonquè, three Frenchmen distinguished by their exploits; and Lawrence de Graff, a Dutchman, who had signalized himself still more than they. These famous commanders were joined by 1200 buccaniers, and failed in six vessels for Vera Cruz. The darkness of the night favoured their landing, which was effected at 3 leagues from the place, where they arrived without being discovered. The governor, the fort, the barracks, and the posts of the greatest consequence, were all taken by the break of day. All the citizens, men, women, and chil-

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icard, and Le Sage, were
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ebla Nuevo, Leon, Realejo,
juita, Leſparſo, Granada, Vil-
teca, Mucmeluna, Chiloteca,
f.

New Segovia, and Guayaquil, the moſt conſider-
able of all theſe places. Many of them were ta-
ken by ſurprize; and moſt of them deſerted by
their inhabitants, who fled at the ſight of the ene-
my. As ſoon as they took a town, it was direct-
ly ſet on fire, unleſs a ſum proportionate to its
value was given to ſave it. The priſoners in bat-
tle were maſſacred without mercy, if they were
not ranſomed by their governor or the inhabitants,
by gold, pearls, or precious ſtones. Silver being
too common, and too weighty for its current va-
lue, would have been troubleſome to them. The
almighty, who ſeldom leaves guilt unpuniſhed,
nor adverſity without a compenſation for its ſuf-
fering, thus employed theſe monſters to puniſh
the crimes committed in the conqueſt of the new
world; and the Indians were amply revenged of
the Spaniards, by the hands of the buccaniers.

(7.) BUCCANIERS, PIRATICAL, HISTORY OF THE, TO THEIR DISSOLUTION. While ſuch pi-
racies were committed on the ſouthern ocean, the
northern was threatened with ſimilar by GRA-
MONT. He was a native of Paris, by birth a
gentleman, and had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in a mi-
litary capacity in Europe; but his paſſion for
wine, gaming, and women, had obliged him to
join the pirates. He was, however, affable, po-
lite, generous, and eloquent; had a ſound judge-
ment, and was a perſon of approved valour;
which ſoon made him be conſidered as the chief
of the French buccaniers. As ſoon as it was
known that he had taken up arms, he was imme-
diately joined by a number of brave men. The
governor of St Domingo, who had at length pre-
vailed upon his maſter to approve of the project,
equally wiſe and juſt, of fixing the pirates to ſome
place, and inducing them to become cultivators,
was deſirous of preventing the concerted expedi-
tion, and forbad it in the king's name. Gramont
ſternly replied, "How can Louis diſapprove of a
deſign he is unacquainted with, and which has
been planned only a few days ago?" This anſwer
highly pleaſed all the buccaniers; who directly
embarked, in 1685, to attack Campeachy. They
landed without oppoſition. But at ſome diſtance
from the coaſt, they were attacked by 800 Spa-
niards, who were beaten and purſued to the
town; which both parties entered at the ſame
time. The cannon found there was immediately
levelled againſt the citadel. As it had very little
effect, they were contriving ſome ſtratagem to
enable them to become maſters of the place, when
intelligence was brought that it was abandoned.
There remained in it only a gunner; an Engliſh-
man; and an officer of ſuch ſignal courage, that
he choſe rather to expoſe himſelf to the greateſt
extremities, than baſely to fly from the place with
the reſt. The commander of the buccaniers re-
ceived him with marks of diſtinction, generouſly
releaſed him, gave him up all his effects, and be-
ſides complimented him with ſome valuable pre-
ſents: ſuch influence have courage and fidelity
even on the minds of thoſe who violate all the
rights of ſociety. The conquerors of Campeachy
ſpent two months in ſearching all the environs of
the city, from 12 to 15 leagues, carrying off every
thing that the inhabitants, in their flight, thought
they had preſerved. When all the treaſure they

had collected from every quarter was depoſited in the ſhips, a propoſal was made to the governor of the province, who ſtill kept the field with 900 men, to ranſom his capital city. His refuſal determined them to burn it, and demoliſh the citadel. The French buccaniers, on the feſtival of St Louis, celebrated the anniverſary of their king; and in the tranſports of their patriotiſm, intoxication, and national loyalty, they burnt to the value of a million of logwood; a part, and a very conſiderable one, of the ſpoil they had made. After this ſingular and extravagant inſtance of folly, they returned to St Domingo. In 1697, 1200 buccaniers were induced to join a ſquadron of 7 ſhips that ſailed from Europe under the command of POINTIS, to attack the famous city of Carthagena. This was the moſt difficult enterpriſe that could be attempted in the new world. The ſituation of the port, the ſtrength of the place, the badneſs of the climate, were ſo many obſtacles that ſeemed inſurmountable to any but buccaniers. But every obſtacle yielded to their valour: the city was taken, and booty gained to the amount of 1,750,000 l. Their rapacious commander, however, deprived them of the advantages reſulting from this ſucceſs. He ſcrupled not, as ſoon as they ſet ſail, to offer 5250 l. for the ſhare of thoſe who had been the chief inſtruments in procuring him ſo conſiderable ſpoil. The buccanniers, exaſperated at this treatment, reſolved immediately to board the veſſel, called the *Sceptre*, where Pointis himſelf was, and which at that time was too far diſtant from the reſt of the ſhips to expect to be aſſiſted by them. This avaricious commander was upon the point of being maſſacred, when one of the malecontents cried out: "Brethren, why ſhould we attack this raſcal? he has carried off nothing that belongs to us. He has left our ſhare at Carthagena, and there we muſt go to recover it." This propoſal was received with general applauſe. A ſavage joy at once ſucceeded that gloomy melancholy which had ſeized them; and without further deliberation all their ſhips ſailed towards the city. As ſoon as they entered the city without reſiſtance, they ſhut up all the men in the great church; and exacted payment of 218,750 l. the amount of their ſhare of booty which they had been defrauded of; promiſing to retreat immediately upon their compliance, but threatening the moſt dreadful vengeance if they refuſed. Upon this, the moſt venerable prieſt in the city mounted the pulpit, and made uſe of the influence his character, his authority, and his eloquence gave him, to perſuade his hearers to yield up without reſerve all the gold, ſilver, and jewels they had. The collection, which was made after the ſermon, not furniſhing the ſum required, the city was ordered to be plundered. At length, after amaſſing all they could, theſe adventurers ſet ſail; when they met with a fleet of Dutch and Engliſh ſhips, both which nations were then in alliance with Spain. Several of the pirates were either taken or ſunk, with all the cargo they had on board their ſhips; the reſt eſcaped to St Domingo. Such was the laſt memorable event in the hiſtory of the buccaniers. The ſeparation of the Engliſh and French, when the war, on account of the prince of Orange, divided the two nations: the ſucceſsful means they both made uſe of to promote the cultivation of land among their colonies, by the aſſiſtance of theſe enterpriſing men; and the prudence they ſhowed in fixing upon the moſt diſtinguiſhed among them, and entruſting them with civil and military employments: the protection they were both under a neceſſity of affording to the Spaniſh ſettlements, which till then had been a general object of plunder: all theſe circumſtances, and various others, beſides the impoſſibility there was of ſupplying the place of theſe remarkable men, who were continually dropping off, concurred to put an end to a ſociety as extraordinary as ever exiſted. Without any regular ſyſtem, without laws, without ſubordination, and even without any fixed revenue, they became the aſtoniſhment of the age in which they lived.

BUCCEA, or } in medicine, a term uſed by
BUCCELLA, } ſome to expreſs a fragment of any thing; others uſe it for a polypus of the nose.

(1.) BUCCELLARII, an order of ſoldiery under the Greek emperors, appointed to guard and diſtribute the ammunition bread. Authors differ, however, as to their office and quality. Some give the denomination to paraſites in the courts of princes, ſome make them the body guards of emperors, and ſome fancy they were only ſuch as emperors employed in putting perſons to death privately.

(2.) BUCCELLARII, was a general name among the Viſigoths for vaſſals who lived at the expence of their lords.

(1.) BUCCELLATIO, in ancient phyſic, a medicine, in which ſcammony was the chief ingredient.

(2.) BUCCELLATIO, in ſurgery, is uſed by ſome for ſtopping the bleeding of an artery or vein, by lint.

* BUCCELLATION. *n. ſ.* [*buccella*, a mouthful, Lat.] In ſome chymical authors, ſignifies a dividing into large pieces. *Harris.*

BUCCELLATUM, in ancient military affairs, camp bread, or biſcuit baked hard and dry, for lightneſs and keeping. Soldiers always carried with them enough for a fortnight, and ſometimes much longer, during the time that military diſcipline was kept up. See BAGGAGE, § 2.

(1.) BUCCINA, an ancient muſical and military inſtrument, uſually taken for a kind of trumpet. Feſtus defines it a crooked horn, played on like a trumpet. Vegetius obſerves, that the buccina bent in a ſemicircle, in which reſpect it differed from the TUBA or trumpet. It is hard to diſtinguiſh it from the CORNU, or horn, unleſs it was ſomething leſs, and not quite ſo crooked. It certainly was different, as we never read of the cornu uſed by the watch. Beſides, the ſound of the buccina was ſharper, and to be heard much farther than either the cornu or the tuba. In ſcripture, the like inſtrument, uſed both in war and in the temple, was called KIREN-JOBEL, ram's horn, and *ſopheroth hagijobelim*. It was uſed among the Jews to proclaim their feaſt-days, new moons, jubilees, ſabbatic years, and the like. At Lacedemon, notice was given by the buccina, when

when it was ſupper time; and the like was done at Rome, where the grandees had a buccina blown both before and after they ſat down to table.

(2.) BUCCINA AURIS, in middle age writers, the *drum* of the ear.

(1.) BUCCINATOR, in anatomy, a muſcle on each ſide of the face common to the lips and cheeks; making the inner ſubſtance of the latter. See ANATOMY, § 197.

(2.) BUCCINATOR, in antiquity, he that ſounded the BUCCINA.

(3.) BUCCINATOR NOMINUM, a ſlave, among the ancient Romans, who attended the public crier.

(1.) BUCCINUM, in botany, a name given by ſome to the lark-ſpur.

(2.) BUCCINUM, in ichthyology, the WHELK, a genus of ſhell fiſh belonging to the order of vermes teſtaceæ. This animal is one of the ſnail kind. The ſhell is univalve, ſpiral, and gibbous. The aperture is oval, ending in a ſmall ſtrait canal. Linnæus enumerates about 60 ſpecies, moſt of which are found in the ſouthern ſeas. The ſix following are found in the Britiſh ſeas.

1. BUCCINUM LAPILLUS, or maſſy whelk, with about 5 ſpires; the ſide of the mouth ſlightly toothed; and a very ſtrong thick ſhell, of a whitiſh colour. A variety yellow, or faſciated with yellow, on a white ground; or fulcated ſpirally, and ſometimes reticulated. It is near an inch and an half long, and inhabits, in vaſt abundance, rocks near low-water mark. This is one of the Britiſh ſhells that produce the purple dye analogous to the PURPURA of the ancients. See MUREX. The proceſs of obtaining the Engliſh purpura is thus deſcribed by Mr William Cole of Briſtol, in 1684: "The ſhells, being harder than moſt other kinds, are to be broken with a ſmart ſtroke of a hammer, on a plate of iron or firm piece of timber, (with their mouth downwards,) ſo as not to cruſh the body of the fiſh within. The broken pieces being picked off, there will appear a white vein lying tranſverſely in a little furrow or cleft next to the head of the fiſh, which muſt be digged out with the ſtiff point of a horſe-hair pencil, being made ſhort and tapering. The letters, figures, or what elſe ſhall be made on the linen, (and perhaps ſilk too,) will preſently appear of a pleaſant light green colour; and if placed in the ſun, will change into the following colours; (i. e. if in winter, about noon; if in ſummer, an hour or two after ſun riſing, and ſo much before ſetting; for in the heat of the day in ſummer, the colours will come on ſo faſt, that the ſucceſſion of each colour will ſcarcely be diſtinguiſhed.) Next to the light green, it will appear of deep green; and in a few minutes, change into a ſea-green; after which, in a few minutes more, it will alter to a watchet-blue; from that, in a little time more, it will be of a purple-red; after which (ſuppoſing the ſun ſtill ſhining,) it will be of a very deep purple red, beyond which the ſun can do no more. But then, the laſt and moſt beautiful colour, after waſhing in ſcalding water and ſoap, will (the matter being again put into the wind or ſun to dry) be of a fair bright crimſon, or near to the prince's colour; which afterwards, notwithſtanding there is no uſe of any ſtyptic to bind the colour, will continue the ſame if well ordered; as I have found in handkerchiefs, that have been waſhed more than 40 times; only it will be ſomewhat allayed from what it was after the firſt waſhing. While the cloth ſo writ upon lies in the ſun, it will yield a very ſtrong and fetid ſmell, as if garlic and aſſafœtida were mixed together." *Phil. Tranſ. Abr.* II. 826.

2. BUCCINUM MINUTUM, or ſmall whelk, with 5 ſpires, ſtriated ſpirally, ribbed tranſverſely; is leſs than a pea, and is found in Norway.

3. BUCCINUM PULLUS, or brown whelk, with 5 ſpires, ſtriated, waved, and tuberculated; aperture wrinkled; upper part replicated; and in length ⅛ of an inch.

4. BUCCINUM RETICULATUM, with ſpires ſcarcely raiſed, and ſtrongly reticulated, is of a deep brown colour, and of an oblong form, and of the ſize of a hazel nut. The aperture is white, gloſſy, and denticulated.

5. BUCCINUM STRIATUM has 8 ſpires, with elevated ſtriæ, undulated near the apex. It is near 4 inches long.

6. BUCCINUM UNDATUM, the waved whelk, with 7 ſpires, ſpirally ſtriated and deeply and tranſverſely undulated. It is 3 inches long, and inhabits deep water.

BUCCINUS, the ſound of the Buccina.

BUCCLEUGH, a village of Scotland, in the county of Selkirk, from which the noble family of Scott have the title of Duke.

(1.) BUCCO, in anatomy, a name given by Riolanus, and others to the muſcle called BUCCINATOR.

(2.) BUCCO, the BARBET, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The beak is cultrated, turned inwards, compreſſed on the ſides, and emarginated on each ſide at the apex; and there is a long ſlit below the eyes. The noſtrils are covered with feathers. The feet have 4 toes, 2 before and 2 behind. Ornithologiſts enumerate ſeveral ſpecies, either as ſuch, or as individuals, differing only in age or ſex, all found in Aſia, Africa, or the ſouthern parts of America.—But Linnæus mentions only one, viz.

BUCCO CAPENSIS, the bull-faced barbet. See *Plate* XLII. *Fig.* 17.

(1.) BUCCULA, in anatomy, the fleſhy part under the chin.

(2.) BUCCULA, in antiquity, the umbo or prominent part in the middle of a ſhield; thus called becauſe uſually made in the form of a mouth or face.

BUCCULENT, *adj. obſ.* wide-mouthed. *Aſh.*

(1.) BUCENTAUR, a galeas, or large galley of the ci-devant doge of Venice, adorned with fine pillars on both ſides, and gilt over from the prow to the ſtern. This veſſel is covered over head with a kind of tent made of purple ſilk. In it the doge received the great lords and perſons of quality that went to Venice, accompanied with the ambaſſadors, counſellors of ſtate, and all the ſenators ſeated on benches by him. It ſerved alſo in the magnificent ceremony of aſcenſion day, on which the doge threw a ring into the ſea to eſpouſe it, and to denote his dominion over the gulph of

Venice. Some aſcribe the name to its being ornamented with the figure of a centaur; and trace its origin to the year 1177.

(2.) BUCENTAUR is alſo the name of a ſhip, as great and magnificent as that of the Venetians, built by order of the elector of Bavaria, and launched on a lake ſix leagues in length.

BUCEPHALA, or BUCEPHALOS, in ancient geography, a town, built by Alexander, on the W. ſide of the Hydaſpis, a river of the Hither India, in memory of his horſe.

BUCEPHALON, in botany. See TROPHIS.

BUCEPHALUS, the horſe of Alexander the Great, which was killed in the action with Porus, after croſſing that river. Others ſay, this horſe died of age, 30 years old; and not in the battle, but ſome time after. Heſychius ſays, his being marked on the buttock with the head of an ox, gave riſe to his name. This animal who had ſo long ſhared the toils and dangers of his maſter, had formerly received ſignal marks of royal regard. Having diſappeared in the country of Uxii, Alexander iſſued a proclamation, commanding his horſe to be reſtored, otherwiſe he would ravage the whole country with fire and ſword. This command was immediately obeyed. "So dear" ſays Arrian, "was Bucephalus to Alexander, and ſo terrible was Alexander to the Barbarians!"

BUCER, Martin, one of the firſt reformers at Straſburg, was born in 1491, in Alſace; and took the religious habit of St Dominic, at 7 years of age: but meeting with the writings of Martin Luther, and comparing them with the Scriptures, he began to doubt of ſeveral things in the Romiſh religion. After ſome conferences with Luther at Heidelburg in 1521, he adopted moſt of his ſentiments; but, in 1532, he gave the preference to thoſe of Zuinglius. He aſſiſted in many conferences concerning religion; and, in 1548, was ſent for to Augſburg to ſign the agreement between the Papiſts and Proteſtants, called the *interim*. His warm oppoſition to this project expoſed him to many difficulties and hardſhips; the news of which reaching England, where his fame had already arrived, Cranmer, Abp. of Canterbury, gave him an invitation to come over, which he readily accepted. In 1549, an handſome apartment was aſſigned him in the univerſity of Cambridge, and a ſalary to teach theology. K. Edward VI. had the greateſt regard for him. Being told that he was very ſenſible of the cold of the climate, and ſuffered much for want of a German ſtove, he ſent him 100 crowns to purchaſe one. He died in 1551; and was buried at Cambridge with great funeral pomp. In the reign of Mary, 5 years after, he was buried, his body was dug up and publicly burnt, and his tomb demoliſhed; but it was afterwards re-built by order of queen Eliſabeth. He compoſed many works, among which are commentaries on the evangeliſts and goſpels.

BUCERAS, in botany, fenugreek. See TRIGONELLA.

BUCERISM, the tenets of Bucer.

BUCEROS, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The beak is convex, cultrated, very lar[illegible]ted outwards: the forehead is nak[illegible]gibboſity. The noſtrils are behind the baſe of the beak. The tongue is ſharp and ſhort. The feet are of the greſſarii kind, *i. e.* the toes are diſtinct from each other. There are 4 ſpecies, viz.

(1.) BUCEROS, BICORNIS, with a flat bony fore-head, and two horns before. The body is black, and about the ſize of a hen; but the breaſt, belly, and thighs are white. There is a white ſpot on the wing; the tail is long, with ten black prime feathers, and the 4 outermoſt on each are white. The feet are greeniſh with 3 toes before, and one behind. It is a native of China, and called CALAO by Willoughby and other authors. The PIED HORN-BILL, deſcribed by Mr Latham (*Synopſ.* Vol. I. p. 349.) from a living ſpecimen which came from the E. Indies, the author ſuppoſes to be the ſame ſpecies, differing merely in ſex or age. In ſize it was a trifle bigger than a crow. The manners of this bird were peculiar: it would leap forwards or ſideways with both legs at once like a magpie or jay, never walking: when at reſt it folded its head back between the wings: the general air and appearance was rather ſtupid and dull, though it would ſometimes put on a fierce look when ſurpriſed: it would eat lettuce, after bruiſing it with its bill, and ſwallow raw fleſh; as well as devour rats, mice, and ſmall birds, it ſeven to him: it had different tones of voice on different occaſions; ſometimes a hoarſe ſound in the throat, moſt like *ouck, ouck*; at other times very hoarſe and weak, not unlike the clucking of a Turkey hen. This bird uſed to diſplay its wings and enjoy itſelf in a warm ſun, but ſhivered in the cold; and, as the winter approached, died, unable to bear the ſeverity of the climate, ſo different to its nature. See *Plate* XLI. *Fig.* 1. Another variety, the calao (*Phil. Tranſ.* vol. xxiii. p. 94), is about the ſize of a hen. It inhabits the Philippine iſlands, and has a cry more like that of a hog or a calf than of a bird. The Gentoos rank it among their gods, and worſhip it. It lives altogether in woods, feeding on fruits, ſuch as the Indian fig, piſtachios, &c. which it ſwallows whole; and after the external parts have been digeſted, it brings up the nuts again whole, with the kernels fit for vegetation.

2. BUCEROS HYDROCORAX, the Indian crow of Ray, has a plain bony fore-head without any horns. The body is yellowiſh, and blackiſh below. It inhabits the Molucca iſles. Willoughby obſerves, that it reſembles our raven in the bill, but is red on the temples like ſome kinds of turkies; has wide noſtrils and ill-favoured eyes; and that it feeds chiefly on nutmegs, whence its fleſh has a fine aromatic reliſh. In its native place it is frequently tamed, and is uſeful in deſtroying rats and mice in houſes.

3. BUCEROS NASUTUS, has a ſmooth fore-head, is about the ſize of a magpye, and is a native of Senegal. Theſe birds are very common at Senegal, and other warm parts of the old continent, where they are called *tock*. They are very tame while young, inſomuch as to ſuffer themſelves to be taken by the hand; but having learned experience with age, they become rather ſhy. When taken young they immediately become familiar; but are ſo ſtupid, as not to feed of themſelves though food be offered to them. In their wild

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ſtate they feed on fruits, but when domeſticated eat bread, and almoſt any thing that is offered to them.

4. BUCEROS RHINOCEROS has a crooked horn in the forehead joined to the upper mandibile. It is a native of India. It is ſaid to feed on fleſh and carrion; and to follow the hunters for the purpoſe of feeding on the entrails of the beaſts which they kill. They chace rats and mice, and after preſſing them flat with the bill in a peculiar manner and toſſing them up into the air, ſwallow them whole immediately on their deſcent.

BUCHAM, a village in Norfolkſhire, near Haveigate, W. of Yarmouth.

(1.) BUCHAN, a territory of Scotland, lying partly in the county of Aberdeen and partly in that of Banff. The latter diſtrict extends northwards from the Ugie to the ſea, and weſtward as far as Deveron, comprehending a tract of 20 miles in length and 9 in breadth, is more free from hills and mountains than any other county of the ſame extent in Scotland. That part which lies in Aberdeenſhire, extends S. to the river Ythan. It is inhabited chiefly by Lowlanders, and gives the title of *earl* to the family of Erſkine; of which family, however, Erſkine of Mar is the chief.

(2.) BUCHAN, BULLERS OF. See BULLERS BUCHAN.

(1.) BUCHANAN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Stirlingſhire, anciently called INCH-CAILLOCH, about 27 m. long and 9 broad. A long tract of it lies on the N. ſide of Lochlomond, and the Grampian hills ſtretch through it, from S. W. to N. E. The climate is healthy, but rather moiſt. Some of the natives have reached to 98 and 99 years of age. The ſoil is various, and produces oats, barley, ſown graſs, and potatoes, upon which laſt the people live half the year. The population, about 1790, was 1111, and had decreaſed 598, ſince 1755, according to Mr M'Gibbon's ſtatement to Sir J. Sinclair.

(2.) BUCHANAN, George, the beſt Latin poet of his time, was born in February 1506. This accompliſhed ſcholar and diſtinguiſhed wit was not deſcended of a family remarkable for its rank. He had no occaſion for the ſplendor of anceſtry. He wanted not a reflected greatneſs, the equivocal, and too often the only ornament of the rich and noble. A ſmall farm called the Moss, 2 miles from the village of Killearn, in Stirlingſhire, was the place of his nativity, and the property of his father. George, however, might have been confined to toil at the loweſt employments of life, if the generoſity of his uncle, George Heriot, had not aſſiſted him in his education, and enabled him to purſue for two years his ſtudies at Paris, after his father's death. But that ſhort ſpace was ſcarcely elapſed, when the death of his benefactor obliged him to return to his own country, and forſake, for a time the paths of ſcience. He was yet under his 20th year, and in this extremity, he enliſted as a common ſoldier under John duke of Albany, who commanded the troops which France had ſent, to aſſiſt Scotland in the war againſt England. But he was diſguſted with the fatigues of one campaign; and, fortunately, John Major, then profeſſor of philoſophy at St Andrew's, hearing of his neceſſity and his merit, afforded him a temporary relief. He now became the pupil of John Maiz, a celebrated teacher in that univerſity under whom he ſtudied logic: and contracting an attachment to his maſter, he followed him to Paris, where he was invited to teach grammar in the college of St Barbe. In this ſlaviſh occupation, he was found by the earl of Caſſillis; with whom having remained 5 years at Paris, he returned to Scotland. He next acted as a preceptor to the famous earl of Murray, the natural ſon of James V. But while he was forming this nobleman for foreign affairs, he found that his life was in danger, from enemies, whoſe vindictive rage could ſuffer no abatement, and who would not ſcruple the moſt diſhonourable means of gratifying it. The ſcandalous lives of the clergy had excited his indignation; and, more than reaſoning or argument, had eſtranged him from the errors of Popery. The Franciſcan monks, enraged at the beautiful but poignant ſatires he had written againſt them, branded him with the appellation of *atheiſt*; a term which bigots of all denominations are too apt indiſcriminately to laviſh upon thoſe who differ from them. Not ſatisfied with the outrage of abuſe and caſumny, they conſpired his deſtruction. Cardinal Beaton gave order to apprehend him, and bribed king James V. with a very conſiderable ſum to permit his execution. He was ſeized accordingly; and the firſt genius of the age was about to periſh by the halter, or by fire, to ſatisfy a few bloody prieſts, when eſcaping the vigilance of his guards, he fled into England. Henry VIII. at all times the ſlave of caprice and paſſion, was then burning at the ſame ſtake, the Lutheran and the Papiſt. His court did not ſuit a philoſopher or a ſatyriſt. After a ſhort ſtay, Buchanan croſſed the ſea to France; and to his extreme diſappointment, found, at Paris, cardinal Beaton, as ambaſſador from Scotland. He retired privately to Bourdeaux, dreading new misfortunes, and concerned that he could not proſecute his ſtudies in obſcurity and in ſilence. Here he met with Andrew Govea, a Portugueſe of great learning and worth, with whom he had formerly been acquainted during his travels, and who was employed in teaching a public ſchool. He diſdained not to act as the aſſiſtant of his friend; and during the 3 years he reſided at this place, he compoſed the tragedies which do him ſo much honour. It was here, alſo, that he wrote ſome of the moſt pleaſant of thoſe poems, in which he rallied the Muſes, and threatened to forſake them, as not being able to maintain their votary. About this time, too, he preſented a copy of verſes to the emperor Charles V. who happened to paſs through Bourdeaux. His enemies, mean time, were not inactive. Cardinal Beaton wrote about him to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux; and by every motive which a cunning and wicked heart can invent, he invited him to puniſh the moſt peſtilential of all heretics. The archbiſhop, however, on enquiry, was convinced that the poet had committed a very ſmall impropriety. Meantime Govea being called by the K. of Portugal, to eſtabliſh an academy at Coimbra, intreated Buchanan to accompany him. He conſented, but had not been a year in Portugal, when Govea died, and left him expoſed to the malice of his inveterate enemies the monks. They loud-

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ly objected to him, that he was a Lutheran; that he had written poems againſt the Franciſcans; and that he had been guilty of the abominable crime of eating fleſh in lent. He was confined to a monaſtery till he ſhould learn what theſe men fancied to be religion; and they enjoined him to tranſlate the Pſalms into Latin verſe; a taſk which every man of taſte knows with what admirable ſkill and genius he performed. On obtaining his liberty, he had the promiſe of a ſpeedy promotion from the king of Portugal; the iſſue of which, his averſion to the clergy did not allow him to wait. He haſtened to England; but the perturbed ſtate of affairs during the minority of Edward VI. not giving him the proſpect of any laſting ſecurity, he ſet out for France. There he had not been long, when he publiſhed his Jephthes, which he dedicated to the marſhal de Briſſac. This patron did not want generoſity, and could judge of merit. He ſent him to Piedmont, as preceptor to his ſon Timoleon de Coſſi. In this employment he continued ſeveral years; and during the leiſure it afforded him, he fully examined the controverſies which now agitated Europe; and put the laſt hand to many of the moſt admired of his ſmaller poems. After this, he returned to Scotland, and made an open profeſſion of the reformed faith. But he ſoon quitted his native country for France; which appears to have been more agreeable to his taſte. Q. Mary, however, having determined that he ſhould have the charge of educating her ſon, recalled him; and till the prince ſhould arrive at a proper age, he was nominated to the principality of St Andrew's. His ſucceſs as James's preceptor is well known.—When it was reproached to him, that he had made his majeſty a pedant: "It is a wonder (replied he) that I have made ſo much of him." Mackenzie relates a ſtory concerning his tutelage of his pedantic majeſty, which is ſtrongly expreſſive of Buchanan's character as a man of humour, and at the ſame time ſhows the degree of his veneration for royalty. The young king being one day at play with his fellow pupil, the maſter of Erſkine, Buchanan, who was then reading, deſired them to make leſs noiſe. Finding that they diſregarded his admonition, he told his majeſty, if he did not hold his tongue, he would certainly whip his breech. The king replied, he would be glad to ſee who would *bell the cat*, alluding to the fable. Buchanan, in a paſſion, threw the book from him, and gave his majeſty a ſound flogging. The old counteſs of Mar, who was then in the next apartment, ruſhed into the room, and taking the king in her arms, aſked how he dared to lay his hand on *the Lord's anointed?* "Madam, ſays Buchanan, I have whipped his a—; you may kiſs it, if you pleaſe." During the misfortunes that befel the amiable but imprudent Mary, he joined the party of the Earl of Murray; and at his earneſt deſire, he was prevailed upon to write his *Detection*, a work which his greateſt admirers have read with regret. Having been ſent with other commiſſioners to England, againſt his miſtreſs, he was, on his return, rewarded with the abbacy of Croſs Reguel; made director to the chancery; and ſome time after lord of privy council and privy ſeal. He was likewiſe rewarded by Q. Elizabeth with a penſion of L. 100 a-year. The laſt 12 years of his life he employed in compoſing the hiſtory of Scotland. After having vied with the moſt eminent of the Latin poets, he conteſted with Livy and Salluſt the palm of eloquence and political ſagacity. But like the former of theſe hiſtorians, he was not always careful to preſerve himſelf from the charge of partiality. He expired at Edinburgh, in 1582, aged 76. Authors ſpeak of him in very different language, according to their religious and political principles. As a Latin writer, however, in proſe as well as poetry, he has hardly been equalled ſince the reign of Auguſtus; nor is he leſs deſerving of remembrance as a friend to the natural liberties of mankind, in oppoſition to uſurpation and tyranny. "The happy genius of Buchanan, (ſays Doctor Robertſon,) equally formed to excel in proſe and in verſe, more various, more original, and more elegant, than that of almoſt any other modern who writes in Latin, reflects, with regard to this particular, the greateſt luſtre on his country." And the Earl of Buchan, in his *Introd.* to his *Life of Fletcher*, (p. xxi.) ſays, "Buchanan aroſe in Scotland like the morning ſtar, to announce the approach of philoſophical day. He was the father of *Whiggery as a ſyſtem* in Britain, if not in Europe; the Lord Bacon or Newton of political ſcience; by far the greateſt man of his age, as Napier was of his country, in invention; in as much as political ſcience is above all others in real importance. Buchanan and Fletcher alone were elevated above the ages in which they lived; and ſhed a luſtre towards thoſe that were to ſucceed, which will continue to ſhine more and more unto the perfect day." The following is a liſt of his works, 1. *Rerum Scoticarum Hiſtoria*, &c. 2. *Pſalmorum Davidis paraphraſis poetica.* 3. *De jure regni apud Scotos Dialogus.* 4. *Pſamus* civ. *cum judicio Bartolii*, &c. 5. *Pſalmus* cxx. *cum analyſi organica Beuzeri.* 6. *Baptiſtes, ſive Calumnia.* 7. *Jephthes, ſive votum, tragœdia.* 8. *Euripidis Medea et Alcæſtis, tragœdiæ.* 9. *De Caleto recepto carmen.* 10. *Franciſcanus et Fratres.* 11. *Elegiæ, Silvæ*, &c. 12. *De ſphæra.* 13. *Poemata miſcellanea.* 14. *Satyra in cardinalem Lotharingium.* 15. *Rudimenta grammatices, Thomæ Linacri ex Anglico ſermone in Latinum verſa.* 16. An admonition to the true lords. 17. *De prodia.* 18. *Chamæleon*, 1572. 19. *Ad viros ſuſculi epiſtolæ.* 20. *Literæ reginæ Scoticæ ad comitem Bothwelium.* 21. A detection of the doings of Mary queen of Scots, and of James earl of Bothwell, againſt Henry lord Darnly. 22. *Hendecaſyllabi et Jambi.* 23. *Fratres Fraterrimi.* 24. *Epigrammata.* 25. *Vita ab ipſo ſcripta biennio ante mortem.* 26. Life of Mary queen of Scots. Theſe have been ſeverally printed often, and in various countries. An edition of his whole works was printed at Edinburgh, in 1704, in 2 vols folio. An elegant monument was erected to his memory, in 1788, at Killearn; which is thus deſcribed by the rev. Mr Ure: "It is a well proportioned obeliſk, 19 feet ſquare at the baſis, and reaching to the height of 103 feet. In the middle is a cavity of 6 feet ſquare at the bottom, gradually diminiſhing until it reaches the height of 54 feet; where it becomes

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ɔ narrow as to receive the end of a Norway pole, ɾhich is continued to the top of the obeliſk. The oundation ſtone was laid in June, 1788, by the ev. J. Graham. In it was depoſited a cryſtal ottle hermetically ſealed, containing a ſilver meal; on which was engraved the following inɔription:

IN MEMORIAM
GEORGII BUCHANANI,
POETÆ & HISTORICI CELEBERRIMI:
ICCOLIS HUJUS LOCI ULTRA CONFERENTIBUS,
HÆC COLUMNA POSITA EST, 1788.
JACOBUS CRAIG, ARCHITECT. EDINBURGEN."

(3.) BUCHANAN HOUSE, an ancient manſion in the above pariſh, (No. 1.) which belonged for near 700 years to the Buchanans of that ilk, but is now the ſeat of the D. of Montróſe.

(4.) BUCHANAN'S SOCIETY, a charitable inſtitution in Glaſgow, founded in 1725, for the reliet of perſons of the name of Buchanan.

BUCHANITES, a ſect of enthuſiaſts, who ſprung up in the weſt of Scotland, about 1783, and took their name from a Mrs Buchan of Glaſgow, who gave herſelf out to be the woman ſpoken of in the Revelations, and that all who believed in her ſhould be taken up into Heaven without taſting death, as the end of the world was near. Mr White miniſter of the Relief Church at Irvine, (whom ſhe ſtiled the man-child brought forth by the woman,) with the town clerk and ſome others, were among the principal people, who were ſo infatuated as to liſten to her ravings, and join her followers. From the folly of ſome bigots, the Buchanites had their ſhare of perſecution. At Irvine, the houſe in which they met was aſſaulted, and the furniture and windows broken; and in Dec. 1784, ſimilar outrages were committed againſt them at Cloſeburn, in Dumfries-ſhire; in conſequence whereof 21 of the rioters were fined by the ſheriff. Their party, however, never increaſed much, and the death of their leader within a year or two afterwards, occaſioned their diſperſion by putting an end to their hopes of reaching the New Jeruſalem without death. See *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* VII. 181; and *Scots Mag.*

BUCHAN-NESS, a promontory of Scotland, of which it is the fartheſt point, and the moſt eaſtern of all Scotland. It is near Peterhead. Lon. 1. 20. E. Lat. 57. 28. N.

BUCHANTY, a place in Perthſhire, where there is a bridge over the Almon.

BUCHARS, a people of Great Tartary, who inhabit ABLAI, and are ſubject to Ruſſia.

BUCHAU, or } a free and imperial town of
(1.) BUCHAW, } Germany in Suabia, ſeated on the Tederſee, 22 miles S. W. of Ulm. It has a monaſtery, whoſe abbeſs has a voice in the diets of the empire. Lon. 9. 40. E. Lat. 48. 5. N.

(2.) BUCHAW, a ſmall territory of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, which comprehends the diſtrict of Flud.

BUCHNERA, in botany, a genus of the angioſpermia order, in the didynamia claſs of plants; ranking, in the natural method, under the 40th order, Perſonatæ. The characters are theſe: the perianthium is tubular, conſiſting of one leaf, divided into 5 ſegments at the edge, and remaining after the flower is fallen. The flower conſiſts of one petal, which forms a very long and capillary arched tube; its verge is plain and ſhort, and is divided lightly into 5 ſegments, which are ſmall at the baſe, and broader, and figured like a heart at the top. The ſtamina are 4 very ſhort filaments; the antheræ are oblong and obtuſe; the germen of the piſtil is oblong and oval; the ſtyle is very ſlender, and of the length of the tube; and the ſtigma is obtuſe. The fruit is capſule of an oblong oval figure, pointed at the end, containing two cells, and opening at the top into two parts. The ſeeds are numerous, and of an angular figure. There are 4 ſpecies.

BUCHOREST, a pretty large town of Turkey in Europe, ſeated in the middle of Walachia, and the ordinary reſidence of a hoſpodar. The houſes are mean and very ill built, except a few that belong to the principal perſons. In 1716, a party of Germans from Tranſylvania entered this town, and took the prince priſoner with all his court, and carried them off. The prince to regain his liberty, gave up that part of Walachia, which lies between the river Aluth and Tranſylvania, to the emperor, in 1718. But after the fatal battle of Crotzka, in 1737, the emperor was obliged to reſtore this part of Walachia to the hoſpodar by the treaty of Belgrade. Lon. 26. 30. E. Lat. 44. 30. N.

BUCHORN, a ſmall, free, and imperial town of Suabia in Germany, ſeated on the lake, 14 m. E. from the town of Conſtance. Lon. 9. 20. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

BUCIDA, in botany, a genus of the order monogynia, in the decandria claſs of plants; ranked, in the natural method, under the 12th order, Holeraceæ. The calyx is indented in 5 ſegments; it has no corolla; and the fruit is a ſingle ſeeded berry. There is only one ſpecies.

BUCINAM, in botany, the comfrey. See SYMPHYTUM.

BUCIOCHE, in commerce, a ſort of woollen cloth manufactured in France, chiefly in the departments of Var, Lower Alps and the Mouths of the Rhone, which the French export to Alexandria and Cairo.

(1.) * BUCK. *n. ſ.* [*bauche*, Germ. ſuds, or lye.] 1. The liquour in which clothes are waſhed.—*Buck!* I would I could waſh myſelf of the *buck*: I warrant you, buck, and of the ſeaſon too it ſhall appear. *Shakeſp.* 2. The clothes waſhed in the liquour.—Of late, not able to travel with her furred pack, ſhe waſhes *bucks* here at home. *Shakeſ.*

(2.) * BUCK. *n. ſ.* [*bwch*, Welch; *bock*, Dutch; *bouc*, Fr.] The male of the fallow deer; the male of rabbets, and other animals.—*Bucks*, goats, and the like are ſaid to be tripping or ſaliant, that is, going or leaping. *Peacham.*

(3.) BUCK, in geography, a mountain of Scotland, in Aberdeenſhire, which is 2377 feet above the level of the ſea, and is ſeen at the diſtance of 30 miles from land, though ſituated above 30 m. from the neareſt ſea.

(4.) BUCK, in zoology and hunting. See CERVUS, LEPUS, and HUNTING.

(1.) * *To* BUCK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To waſh clothes.

clothes.—Here is a baſket; he may creep in here, and throw foul linen upon him, as if it were going to *bucking*. *Shakeſpeare*.

(2.) * *To* BUCK. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To copulate as bucks and does.—The chief time of ſetting traps, is in their *bucking* time. *Mortimer*.

BUCK-A-BANK, a village in Cumberland.

* BUCKBASKET. *n. ſ.* The baſket in which clothes are carried to the waſh.—They conveyed me into a *buckbaſket*; rammed me in with foul ſhirts, foul ſtockings, and greaſy napkins. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) * BUCKBEAN. *n. ſ.* [*bockſboonen*, Dutch.] A plant; a ſort of *trefoil*.—The bitter nauſeous plants, as centaury, *buckbane*, gentian, of which teas may be made, or wines, by infuſion. *Floyer*.

(2.) BUCK-BEAN, in botany. See MENYANTHES.

BUCKBY, LONG, a village in Northamptonſh. 3 miles N. E. of Daventry.

BUCKDEN, or BUGDEN. See BUGDEN.

BUCKDON, near Biſhopſdale, Yorkſhire.

BUCKELLY, 4 miles S. W. of Camelford, Cornwall.

BUCKEN-HALL, in Eſſex, N. of Bocking.

(1.) BUCKENHAM, a town in Norfolkſhire, 12 miles from Thetford, and 90 from London.

(2.) BUCKENHAM FERRY, a village in Norfolkſhire, over the Yare, 5 miles E. of Norwich.

(3.) BUCKENHAM HOUSE, 4 m. N. of Thetford.

(4.) BUCKENHAM, NEW, a town of Norfolk, which formerly had a ſtrong caſtle. It is ſeated on the river Wavency, between Ipſwich and Norwich, 96 miles from London. Lon. 1. 10. E. Lat. 52. 30. N.

(5.) BUCKENHAM, OLD, N. W. of New Buckenham.

BUCKERALL, 3 miles W. of Honiton, Devonſhire.

BUCKEREST. See BUCHOREST.

BUCKERN, 3 miles N. of Bodnin, Cornwall.

(1.) * BUCKET. *n. ſ.* [*baquet*, Fr.] 1. The veſſel in which water is drawn out of a well.—

Now is this golden crown like a deep well,
That owes two *buckets*, filling one another;
The emptier ever dancing in the air,
The other down unſeen, and full of water.
Shakeſpeare.

—Is the ſea ever likely to be evaporated by the ſun, or to be emptied with *buckets*? *Bentley*. 2. The veſſels in which water is carried, particularly to quench a fire.—

Now ſtreets grow throng'd, and, buſy as by day,
Some run for *buckets* to the hallow'd quire;
Some cut the pipes, and ſome the engines play;
And ſome, more bold, mount ladders to the fire.
Dryden.

The porringers, that in a row
Hung high, and made a glitt'ring ſhow,
To a leſs noble ſubſtance chang'd,
Were now but leathern *buckets* rang'd. *Swift*.

(2.) BUCKETS (§ 1. *def.* 2.) are often made of leather for lightneſs and eaſy uſe in caſes of fire.

BUCKFASTLEIGH, a village in Devonſhire, 3 miles from Aſhburnham.

BUCKHAM, in Surry, near Egham.

BUCKHAMPTON, near Lamborn, Berkſhire.

BUCKHAVEN, a village on the coaſt of Fifeſhire, in the pariſh of Wemyſs, inhabited chiefly by fiſhermen, who generally marry young, and all of them fiſhermen's daughters. Its firſt inhabitants were Dutchmen, whoſe veſſel being ſtranded on this coaſt, in the reign of Philip II. they propoſed to ſettle on it, which the family of Wemyſs agreed to. By the rev. Mr Gibb's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it contained, in 1791, 163 families, conſiſting of 601 inhabitants, of ſober, honeſt, and induſtrious characters. Above 40 years ago, haddocks were ſo plentiful on this coaſt that they would have caught 25,000 in one day, which ſold at from 6d. to 10d. per 100.

BUCKHOLE, 2 miles S. E. of Hoo, Suſſex.

BUCKHOLE FOREST, in Hampſhire, near Wilts.

BUCKHORN WESTON, in Dorſetſhire.

BUCK-HUNTING. See HUNTING.

BUCKHURST, in Suſſex, near Aſhdown.

(1.) BUCKIE, a fiſhing town on the coaſt of Banff-ſhire, in the pariſh of Rathven, ſeated on the mouth of the rivulet. (N° 2.) By the rev. Mr Donaldſon's report to Sir J. Sinclair, in 1793, it contained 165 houſes, and 703 inhabitants; and employed 6 ſloops, 14 boats, and 1 yawl.

(2.) BUCKIE, a rivulet in Banff-ſhire.

BUCKING. See BLEACHING, *Index*.

(1.) BUCKINGHAM, a county of the United States, in Virginia, bounded on the N. by James river, which ſeparates it from Fluvanna; on the S. E. by Cumberland; on the S. W. by Campbell; and on the S. by the Appamattox, which divides it from Prince-Edward County. It is 65 miles long and 30 broad; and in 1795, contained 5,611 free inhabitants, and 4,168 ſlaves.

(2.) BUCKINGHAM, BUCKS, or BUCKINGHAMSHIRE, an inland county of England. Before the landing of the Romans it was included in the diviſion of Catieuchlani; and after their conqueſt it was included in their 3d province of Flavia Cæſarienſis. During the heptarchy it belonged to the kingdom of Mercia; and it is now included in the Norfolk circuit, the dioceſe of Lincoln, and the province of Canterbury. It is bounded on the N. by Northamptonſhire; S. by Berkſhire; E. by Bedfordſhire, Hertfordſhire, and Middleſex; and W. by Oxfordſhire. It is of an oblong form, and its greateſt extent is from N. to S. It contains 441,xxx acres, has above 111,400 inhabitants, 185 pariſhes, 73 vicarages, is 39 miles long, 18 broad, and 120 in circumference. It has 15 market towns, viz. Buckingham and Aylesbury the county towns, Marlow, Newport-Pagnel, Winſlow, Wendover, Beaconsfield, Wiccomb, Cheſham, Amerſham, Stony Stratford, Colnbrook, Ivingho, Olney, and Riſborough; beſides the conſiderable villages of Eaton and Fenny Stratford, and 613 others inferior. It is divided into 8 hundreds, provides 1200 men for the militia, ſends 14 members to parliament, and pays 12 parts of the land tax. Its rivers are the Thames, Ouſe, Coln, Wicham, Amerſham, Iſa, Tame, and Loddon. Its chief trade conſiſts in bone-lace, paper, corn, fine wool, and breeding rams. The moſt noted places are the Chiltren Hills, Vale of Aylesbury, Bernwood Foreſt, Wooburn Heath, and 15 parks. The air is generally good, and the ſoil moſtly chalk or marle.

(3.) BUCKINGHAM, the chief town of the above county, (N° 2.) ſtands in a low ground, on the river

ver Ouſe, by which it is almoſt ſurrounded, and over which there are 3 handſome ſtone bridges. It is large and populous, and ſends two members to parliament. At the conqueſt, according to Doomſday-book, it paid only for one hide, and had but 26 burgeſſes. Edward the elder fortified it in 918, againſt the incurſions of the Danes, with a rampart and turrets. It alſo had formerly a caſtle in the middle of the town, of which no veſtiges now remain. The ſhrine of St Rumbald, the patron of Fiſhermen, preſerved in the church, was held in great veneration. The county gaol ſtands in this town, and the aſſizes are ſometimes held in it. It was formerly a ſtaple for wool. It is governed by a bailiff and 12 burgeſſes, who are the ſole electors of the members. In its neighbourhood are many paper mills upon the Ouſe. It is 25 miles N. E. of Oxford, and 57 N. W. of London. Lon. 0. 58. W. Lat. 51. 56. N.

(4.) BUCKINGHAM, a village in Suſſex, N. of Shoreham.

(5, 6.) BUCKINGHAM, dukes of. See SHEFFIELD, and VILLIERS.

BUCKINGTON, a town in Wilts, between Devizes and Trowbridge.

BUCKLAND, the name of 15 Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Berkſhire, near Farrington: 2. in Bucks, N. E. of Wendover: 3. EAST, and 4. WEST, in Devonſh. near S. Moulton: 5. NORTH, in ditto, near Bear-Alſton: 6. in Glouceſterſhire, 5 miles W. of Campden: 7. in Hertfordſhire, 34 miles from London: 8, 9, & 10. in Kent, near Dover, Faverſham, and Maidſtone: 11. in Lincolnſhire, between Tatterſhall and Horncaſtle: 12. in Somerſetſhire, 2 miles N. E. of Frome; 13. in ditto, 5 miles from Taunton; 14. in ditto, near Wellington: and 15. in Surry, near Ryegate.

BUCKLAND-ABBAS, or NEWTON, in Dorſetſh. 4 miles E. of Cerne-Abbas.

BUCKLAND-ABBOTS, near Calne, Wilts.

BUCKLAND-BRUER, in Devonſhire, N. W. of Torrington.

BUCKLAND BURN, a rivulet of Scotland, in Kirkcudbrightſhire.

BUCKLAND-FEE, a village in Somerſetſhire, near N. Petherton.

BUCKLAND-FILLY, in Devonſhire, N. W. of Sheepwaſh.

BUCKLAND HOUSE, New Foreſt, Hampſhire.

BUCKLAND-MARY, in Somerſetſhire, 4 miles S. W. of Ilminſter. It has a fair September 18.

BUCKLAND MONACHORUM, [*i. e.* OF THE MONKS,] in Devonſhire, near Taviſtock. It has a fair on Whit. Tueſday and November 2.

BUCKLAND-RIPERS, in Dorſetſhire, S. W. of Briſpole.

BUCKLAND'S PLACE, in Glouceſterſhire, near Badeworth.

BUCKLAND-TOWNSEND, in Devonſhire, near Dartmouth.

(1.) * BUCKLE. *n. ſ.* [*bwcel*, Welch, and the ſame in the Armorick; *boucle*, Fr.] 1. A link of metal, with a tongue or catch made to faſten one thing to another.—

Fair lined ſlippers for the cold,
With *buckles* of the pureſt gold. *Shakeſpeare.*

—The chlamys was a ſort of ſhort cloak tied with a *buckle*, commonly to the right ſhoulder. *Arbuth.*

Three ſeal rings; which after, melted down,
Form'd a vaſt *buckle* for his widow's gown. *Pope.*

2. The ſtate of the hair criſped and curled; by being kept long in the ſame ſtate.—The greateſt beau was dreſſed in a flaxen periwig; the wearer of it goes in his own hair at home, and lets his wig lie in *buckle* for a whole half year. *Spectat.*—

That live-long wig, which Gorgon' ſelf might own,
Eternal *buckle* takes in Parian ſtone. *Pope.*

(2.) BUCKLE, in heraldry, is conſidered as a token of the ſurety, faith, and ſervice of the bearer.

(3.) BUCKLES, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) are made of various metals, as gold, ſilver, ſteel, braſs, &c.

(1.) * *To* BUCKLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To faſten with a buckle.—

Like ſaphire, pearl, in rich embroidery,
Buckled below fair knighthood's bending knee. *Shakeſpeare.*

France, whoſe armour conſcience *buckl'd* on,
Whom zeal and charity brought to the field. *Shakeſpeare.*

Thus, ever, when I *buckle* on my helmet,
Thy fears afflict thee. *Philips.*

—When you carry your maſter's riding coat, wrap your own in it, and *buckle* them up cloſe with a ſtrap. *Swift.* 2. To prepare to do any thing: the metaphor is taken from *buckling* on the armour.—

The Saracen, this hearing, roſe amain,
And catching up in haſte his three-ſquare ſhield,
And ſhining helmet, ſoon him *buckled* to the field. *Spenſer.*

3. To join in battle.—The lord Gray, captain of the men at arms, was forbidden to charge, until the foot of the avantguard were *buckled* with them in front. *Hayward.* 4. To confine.—

How brief the life of man
Runs his erring pilgrimage!
That the ſtretching of a ſpan
Buckles in his ſum of age. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) * *To* BUCKLE. *v. n.* [*bucken*, Germ.] 1. To bend; to bow.—

The wretch, whoſe fever-weaken'd joints,
Like ſtrengthleſs hinges, *buckle* under life
Impatient of his fit, breaks like a fire
Out of his keeper's arms. *Shakeſpeare.*

2. *To buckle to.* To apply to; to attend. See the *active*, 2d ſenſe.—

Now a covetous old crafty knave,
At dead of night, ſhall raile his ſon, and cry,
Turn out, you rogue; how like a beaſt you lie;
Go *buckle to* the law. *Dryden.*

—This is to be done in children, by trying them, when they are by lazineſs unbent, or by avocation bent another way, and endeavouring to make them *buckle to* the thing propoſed. *Locke.* 3. *To buckle with.* To engage with; to encounter; to join in a cloſe fight, like men locked or buckled together.—

For ſingle combat, thou ſhalt *buckle with* me. *Shakeſpeare.*

Yet thou, they ſay, for marriage doſt provide;
Is this an age to *buckle with* a bride? *Dryden.*

BUCKLEBURY, a town N. E. of Newbury, Berkſhire.

(1.) * BUCKLER. *n. ſ.* [*bwccled*, Welch; *boucl-*

lier, Fr.] A ſhield; a defenſive weapon buckled on the arm.—

He took my arms, and while I forc'd my way,
Thro' troops of foes, which did our paſſage ſtay;
My *buckler* o'er my aged father caſt,
Still fighting, ſtill defending as I paſt. *Dryden.*

—This medal compliments the emperor, as the Romans did dictator Fabius, when they called him the *buckler* of Rome. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BUCKLERS were compoſed of wickers woven together, or wood of the lighteſt ſort, covered with hides, and fortified with plates of braſs or other metal. The figure was ſometimes round, ſometimes oval, and ſometimes almoſt ſquare. Moſt bucklers were adorned with figures of birds, beaſts, gods, celeſtial bodies, &c. &c. a cuſtom derived from the heroic times, and from them communicated to the Grecians, Romans, and Barbarians. See § 3.

(3.) BUCKLERS, ROMAN. The SCUTUM, or Roman buckler, was of wood, the parts being joined together with little plates of iron, and the whole covered with a bull's hide. An iron plate encompaſſed it without, to keep off blows; and another within, to prevent damage by lying on the ground. In the middle was an iron boſs (*umbo*) jutting out, to glance off ſtones and darts; and ſometimes to preſs violently upon the enemy, and drive all before them. The CLYPEI, were leſs, and quite round, belonging more properly to other nations, though for ſome time uſed by the Romans. The ſcuta were of two kinds; the OVATA, of a plain oval figure; and the IMBRICATA, oblong, and bending inward like half a cylinder. Polybius makes the ſcuta 4 feet long, and Plutarch calls them ποδηρεις, reaching down to the feet. And it is probable that they covered almoſt the whole body, for in Livy, we find that ſoldiers on guard ſometimes ſlept with their head on their ſhield, having fixed the other part of it in the earth.

(4.) BUCKLERS, VOTIVE, were thoſe conſecrated to the gods, and hung up in their temples, either in commemoration of ſome hero, or as a thankſgiving for a victory obtained over an enemy; whoſe bucklers, taken in war, were offered as a trophy.

* *To* BUCKLER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſupport; to defend.—

Fear not, ſweet wench, they ſhall not touch thee, Kate;
I'll *buckler* thee againſt a million. *Shakeſpeare.*
Can Oxford, that did ever fence the right,
Now *buckler* falſhood with a pedigree? *Shakeſ.*

BUCKLER-MUSTARD. See BISCUTELLA.

* BUCKLER-THORN. *n. ſ.* Chriſt's thorn.

BUCKLESHAM, a village in Suffolk, between Ipſwich and Bawdſey.

BUCKLESTOWN, a ſmall town of Virginia, 8 miles from Martinſburg, and 250 from Philadelphia.

BUCKLEY, two villages; viz. 1. in Cheſhire, W. of lake Combermere: 2. in Cornwall, 3 miles N. W. of Camelford.

BUCKLEY-FEKEY, in Northamptonſhire, near Daventry.

* BUCKMAST. *n. ſ.* The fruit or maſt of the beech tree.

BUCKMINSTER, two villages; viz. 1. in Leiceſterſhire, near Rutlandſhire: 2. in Wiltſhire, 4 miles N. of Ambreſbury.

BUCKNALL, 5 miles W. of Horncaſtle, Lincolnſhire.

BUCKNELL, 4 villages: viz. 1. in Oxfordſh. near Biceſter: 2. in Shropſhire, near Herefordſh. 3. in Somerſetſhire, near Staple-Fitz-Pain: and, 4. in Staffordſhire, 3 miles N. of Stone.

BUCKNESS, W. of Stapleton, Cumberland.

BUCKNOL, 1 mile S. W. of Corſe-Caſtle, Derſetſhire.

BUCKNY, a rivulet of Perthſhire, which riſes from Lochnachat, and running S. E. between the mountains Ben-achally and Deuchara, forms the lake called DOO-LOCH; thence thunders down a deep narrow rocky den, covered with wood, called Richip, and after ſeparating the pariſhes of Caputh and Clunie, falls into the river Lunan.

(1) BUCKOR, a province of Aſia, ſubject to the Great Mogul. It is ſeated on the Indus, on the banks of which there are corn and cattle; but the W. part is a deſert. It is bounded on the N. by the province of Multan; on the S. by Tattan, and on the W. by Sageſtan in Perſia. The inhabitants are ſtrong, robuſt, and apt to mutiny; for which reaſon the mogul has a garriſon at the capital. (N° 2.) They are all Mahometans, and drive a great trade in cotton cloth, and other Indian commodities.

(2.) BUCKOR, the capital of the above province, N° 1. Lon. 70. 5. E. Lat. 28. 20. N.

(1.) * BUCKRAM. *n. ſ.* [*bougran*, Fr.] A ſort of ſtrong linen cloth, ſtiffened with gum, uſed by taylors and ſtaymakers.—I have peppered two of them; two, I am ſure, I have paid, two rogues in *buckram* ſuits. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) BUCKRAM is more generally, if not always, ſtiffened with glue, and uſed in the making of garments to keep them in the form intended. It is alſo uſed in the bodies of women's gowns; and often to make wrappers to cover cloths, ſerges and ſuch other merchandiſes, to preſerve them, and keep them from the duſt, and their colours from fading. Buckrams are ſold wholeſale by the dozen of ſmall pieces or remnants, each about 4 ells long, and broad according to the piece from which they are cut. Sometimes new pieces of linen cloth are uſed to make buckrams, but moſt commonly old ſheets and old pieces of ſails.

* BUCKRAMS. *n. ſ.* The ſame with *wild garlick*.

(1.) BUCKS, a populous and well cultivated county of the United States in Pennſylvania; bounded on the N. E., E. and S. E. by the Delaware; which ſeparates it from Hunterdon county; on the S. W. by Philadelphia and Montgomery counties, and on the N. W. by Northampton. Its greateſt length is 41 miles, and breadth 21. It contains 411,900 acres; and is divided into 27 townſhips. Its population, in 1795, was 25,143 free citizens, and 261 ſlaves. On the S. it is fertile, but the land on the N. is rather poor: But it abounds in lime ſtone. Lead and iron ores have alſo been diſcovered in it. Newton is the chief town.

(2.) BUCKS. See BUCKINGHAM, N° 2.

BUCKSEED, a village near Haynham, Suffex.

(1.) * BUCKS-

(1.) * BUCKSHORN PLANTAIN. *n. ſ.* [*corono-pus*, Lat. from the form of the leaf.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) BUCKS-HORN PLANTAIN. See PLANTAGO.

(3.) BUCKS-HORN, WARTED. See COCHLEARIA.

BUCK-SKIN, *adj.* made of leather; prepared from the ſkin of a buck. *Aſh.*

BUCK-STALL, a toil to take deer, which muſt not be kept by any perſon, who has not a park of his own, under penalties.

BUCKSTEAD, a town of Suſſex, near Aſhdown Foreſt, where the firſt pieces of caſt iron ever made in England were run. It has a fair, July 31.

(1.) * BUCKTHORN. *n. ſ.* [*rhamnus*, Lat. ſuppoſed to be ſo called from *bucc*, Saxon, the belly.] A tree that bears a purging berry.

(2.) BUCK-THORN, in botany. See RHAMNUS.

(3.) BUCK-THORN, SEA. See HIPPOPHAE.

BUCKTHORP, a town 4 m. S. of Glouceſter.

BUCKTON, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. in Herfordſh. near Brampton-Bryan: 2. in Northamptonſhire, near Fenwick: 3. in ditto, W. of Moulton; and, 4. in Yorkſh. N. of Bridlington.

BUCKWARE, in Eſſex, W. of Roding-Abbots.

BUCKWELL, in Kent, between Canterbury and Whitſtable.

* (1.) BUCKWHEAT. *n. ſ.* [*buckzweitz*, Germ. *fagopyrum*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) BUCK-WHEAT, in botany. See POLYGONUM.

BUCKWORTH, two villages; 1. near Leighton, Huntingdonſh. 2. near Newcaſtle on Tyne.

BUCOLICA, a term uſed by ſome authors for the art of managing cattle.

(1.) * BUCOLICK. *adj.* [βουκολικὸς, from βουκόλος, a cowherd.] Paſtoral.

(2.) BUCOLICS, in ancient poetry, a kind of poems relating to ſhepherds and country affairs, which, according to the moſt generally received opinion, originated in Sicily. Bucolics, ſays Voſſius, have ſome conformity with comedy. Like it, they are pictures and imitations of ordinary life; with this difference, that comedy repreſents the manners of the inhabitants of cities, and bucolics the occupations of country people. Sometimes, this laſt poem is in form of a monologue, and ſometimes of a dialogue. Sometimes there is action in it, and ſometimes only narration; and ſometimes it is compoſed both of action and narration. The hexameter verſe is the moſt proper for bucolics in the Greek and Latin tongues. Moſchus, Bion, Theocritus, and Virgil, are the moſt renowned of the ancient bucolic poets.

BUCTON, in anatomy, a word uſed by Severinus and others for the Hymen.

* (1.) BUD. *n. ſ.* [*bouton*, Fr.] The firſt ſhoot of a plant; a gem.—

Be as thou was wont to be,
See as thou waſt wont to ſee:
Dian's *bud* o'er Cupid's flower
Hath ſuch force and bleſſed power. *Shakeſp.*

Writers ſay, as the moſt forward *bud*
Is eaten by the canker ere it blow,
Even ſo by love the young and tender wit
Is turn'd to folly, blaſting in the *bud*,
Loſing his verdure even in the prime. *Shakeſp.*

When you the flow'rs for Chloe twine,
Why do you to her garland join
The meaneſt *bud* that falls from mine? *Prior.*

—Inſects wound the tender *buds*, with a long hollow trunk, and depoſit an egg in the hole, with a ſharp corroding liquour, that cauſeth a ſwelling in the leaf, and cloſeth the orifice. *Bentley.*

(2.) BUD. See GEMMA, and BOTANY, *Index.*

(1.) * *To* BUD. *v. a.* To inoculate; to graff by inſerting a bud into the rind of another tree.—Of apricocks, the largeſt is much improved by *budding* upon a peach ſtock. *Temple.*

(2.) * *To* BUD. *v. n.* [from the noun] 1. To put forth young ſhoots, or gems.—*Bud* forth as a roſe growing by the brook of the field. *Eccleſ.* 2. To riſe as a gem from the ſtalk.—There the fruit, that was to be gathered from ſuch a conflux, quickly *budded* out. *Clarendon.*—

Heav'n gave him all at once, then ſnatch'd away,
Ere mortals all his beauties could ſurvey;
Juſt like that flower that *buds* and withers in a day. *Dryden.*

Tho' lab'ring yokes on their own necks they fear'd,
And felt for *budding* horns on their ſmooth foreheads rear'd. *Dryden's Silenus.*

3. To be in the bloom, or growing.—

Young *budding* virgin, fair and freſh and ſweet,
Whither away, or where is thy abode? *Shakeſp.*

(1.) BUDA, the capital of Lower Hungary, called OSEN by the inhabitants, and BUDEN by the Turks. It is large and well fortified; and has a caſtle that is almoſt impregnable. The houſes are moſtly built with ſquare ſtones. The Turks had it in their poſſeſſion 135 years, and ſuffered the fineſt buildings to decay. The lower city, or Jews town, extends like ſuburbs from the upper city to the Danube. The upper town occupies the declivity of a mountain; and is fortified with good walls, which have towers at certain diſtances. The caſtle, which is at the extremity of the hill, on the E. ſide, and commands the greateſt part of it, is ſurrounded with a very deep ditch, and defended by an old-faſhioned tower, with new fortifications. The ſuburbs are incloſed with hedges. The moſt ſumptuous ſtructures are the caravanſeras, the moſques, bridges, and baths; which laſt are the fineſt in Europe, for the magnificence of the buildings, and plenty of water. Some of the ſprings are uſed for bathing and drinking; and others are ſo hot, that they cannot be uſed without a mixture of cold water. The Danube is about ⅓ of a mile in breadth; and there is a bridge of boats between this city and Peſt, conſiſting of 63 large pontoons. The Jews have a ſynagogue near the caſtle gardens. Buda was the reſidence of the Hungarian monarchs, till the Turks took it in 1526. Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria, recovered it in 1527; but in 1529, the Turks took it again. In 1684, the Chriſtians laid ſiege to it, but were obliged to raiſe it ſoon after, though they had an army of 80,000 men. In 1686, however, they took it by aſſault, in the fight of a very numerous army. The booty that they found in it was almoſt incredible, the rich Turks having lodged their treaſures in it as a place of ſafety. After this they augmented its fortifications, to which the pope contributed 100,000 crowns, Buda being conſidered as the key of Chriſtendom. It is ſeated on the Danube, 105

miles S. E. of Vienna, 163 N. by E. of Belgrade, and 563 N. W. of Conſtantinople. Lon. 19. 22. E. Lat. 47. 26. N.

(2.) BUDA, THE BEGLERBEGLIC OF, was one of the chief governments of the Turks in Europe. It included all the countries of Upper Hungary between the rivers Teiſſe and Danube, and between Agria and Novogrod; all Lower Hungary, from Gran and Canifca, the eaſtern part of Sclavonia, and almoſt all Servia: but great part of this government now belongs to Hungary.

BUDÆUS, William, the moſt learned man in France in the 15th century, was born at Paris in 1467. He was placed young under maſters, but ſpent his whole time in idleneſs, till his parents ſent him to the univerſity of Orleans to ſtudy law; where he paſſed 3 years without adding to his knowledge. His parents ſending for him back to Paris, found his ignorance not diminiſhed, and his reluctance to ſtudy, and love to gaming, &c. much increaſed. They talked no more to him of learning, but, as he was heir to a large fortune, left him to follow his own inclinations. He was paſſionately fond of hunting, and took great pleaſure in horſes, dogs, and hawks. But the fire of youth beginning to cool, he was at length ſeized with an irreſiſtible paſſion for ſtudy. He immediately diſpoſed of his hunting equipage, and even abſtracted himſelf from all buſineſs, to apply wholly to ſtudy; in which he made, without any aſſiſtance, a very rapid and amazing progreſs, particularly in the Latin and Greek languages. The work which gained him greateſt reputation was his treatiſe *de Aſſe*. His erudition and high birth were not his only advantages; he had an uncommon ſhare of piety, modeſty, gentleneſs, and good breeding. The French king, Francis I. often ſent for him; and at his perſuaſion, and that of Du Bellay, founded the royal college of France, for teaching the languages and ſciences. The king ſent him to Rome, as his ambaſſador, to Leo X. and in 1522 made him maſter of requeſts. The ſame year he was choſen provoſt of the merchants. He died at Paris in 1540. His works, in 4 vols. folio, were printed at Baſil in 1557.

BUDBROOK, a village, 2 miles W. of Warwick.

BUDBY, near Towerbridge, Nottinghamſh.

BUDDÆUS, John Francis, a celebrated Lutheran divine, and one of the moſt learned men Germany has produced, was born in 1667, at Anclam, in Pomerania. He was at firſt profeſſor of Greek and Latin at Colburg; afterwards of morality and politics in the univerſity of Hall; and at length, in 1705, of divinity at Jena; where he died, with a very great reputation. His principal works are, 1. A large hiſtorical German dictionary. 2. *Hiſtoria eccleſiaſtica Veteris Teſtamenti*, 2 vols. 4to. 3. *Elementa philoſophiæ practicæ, inſtrumentalis, et theoreticæ*, 3 vols 8vo. In moſt of the univerſities of Germany the profeſſors take this work for their text book. 4. *Selecta juris naturæ et gentium*. 5. *Miſcellanea ſacra*, 3 vols 4to. 6. *Iſagoge hiſtorico-theologica ad theologiam univerſam, ſingulaſque ejus partes*, 2 vols 4to. 7. A treatiſe on atheiſm and ſuperſtition.

BUDDESDALE, or BOTTESDALE, a town of Suffolk, on the borders of Norfolk, ſeated in a valley. Its ſtreet takes in a good part of Ricking, which makes up the town, for of itſelf it is but a hamlet. It has a ſmall chapel, and an endowed grammar-ſchool, to which belong certain ſcholarſhips, aſſigned to Bennet or Corpus Criſti-college in Cambridge, being the gift of Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord keeper of the great ſeal. It is 15 miles W. E. of Bury, on the Yarmouth road, and 81 from London. Lon. 1. 8. E. Lat. 52. 25. N.

BUDDING, in gardening. See ENGRAFTING.

BUDDLE, in mineralogy, a large ſquare frame of boards, uſed in waſhing the tin-ore.

To BUDDLE, *v. a.* To waſh ore. *Aſh.*

BUDDLEIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, in the tetrandria claſs of plants. The calyx and corolla are quadrifid; the ſtamina placed at the inciſures of the corolla. The capſule is biſulcated, bilocular, and polyſpermous. There are two ſpecies, viz.

1. BUDDLEIA AMERICANA, a native of Jamaica and moſt of the other American iſlands. It riſes to the height of 10 or 12 feet, with a thick woody ſtem covered with grey bark; and ſends out many branches towards the top, which come out: oppoſite at the ends of the branches the flowers are produced in long cloſe ſpikes branching out in cluſters, which are yellow, conſiſting of one leaf cut into 4 ſegments: theſe are ſucceeded by oblong capſules filled with ſmall ſeeds.

2. BUDDLEIA OCCIDENTALIS, a native of Carthagena. It riſes much higher than the other, dividing into a great number of ſlender branches covered with a ruſſet hairy bark, garniſhed with long ſpear-ſhaped leaves ending in ſharp points: at the end of the branches are produced branching ſpikes of white flowers growing in whorls round the ſtalks, with ſmall ſpaces between each. All theſe plants grow in low ſheltered ſpots; their branches being too tender to reſiſt the force of ſtrong winds. They may be propagated by ſeeds procured from their native countries, and muſt be managed like other exotics: only the ſeeds muſt be ſown in pots as ſoon as they arrive, and very lightly covered; for if they are buried deep in the earth they will all periſh.

BUDDLING-DISH, a ſmall, ſhallow veſſel, like the baſons of a pair of ſcales, for waſhing ores of metals by the hand.

BUDDLING OF CALAMINE, the operation of cleanſing it from filth, by waſhing and picking it, preparatory to the baking of it in the oven.

BUDDO, an inſulated rock, on the coaſt of Fife, about 2 m. E. from the harbour of St Andrews, which ſerves for a land mark; being between 30 and 40 feet high, and perforated by a kind of gate-way, 4 or 5 feet wide.

BUDDON BURN, a rivulet of Angus-ſhire, which riſes at the foot of the hill of Dodd, and after meandering through the pariſhes of Monikie and Monifieth, falls into the æſtuary of the Tay.

BUDE, William. See BUDÆUS.

BUDELICH, a town of Germany, in the electoral circle of the Rhine and archbiſhopric of Treves, ſeated on the river Traen. Lon. 6. 55. E. Lat. 49. 52. N.

BUDESDEN, a village in Cheſhire, W. of the Merſey, oppoſite to Liverpool.

BUDESTON, near Chippenham, Wiltſhire.

(1.) * BUDGE.

(1.) * BUDGE. *adj.* [of uncertain etymology.] Surly; ſtiff; formal.—

O fooliſhneſs of men! that lend their ears
To thoſe *budge* doctors of the ſtoick fur. *Milt.*

(2.) * BUDGE. *n. ſ.* The dreſſed ſkin or fur of lambs. *Diſt.*

(3.) BUDGE. See BOUCHE, N. 2.

* *To* BUDGE. *v. n.* [*bouger*, Fr.] To ſtir; to move off the place: a low word.—

All your priſoners are
In the lime grove, which weatherſends your cell,
They cannot *budge* till you releaſe. *Shakeſ.*

The mouſe ne'er ſhunn'd the cat, as they did *budge*
From raſcals worſe than they. *Shakeſ.*

I thought th' hadſt ſcorn'd to *budge*
For fear. *Hudibras.*

BUDGE BACHELORS, a company clothed in long gowns, who attend the Lord Mayor of London during his inauguration. *Aſh.*

BUDGE BARRELS, among engineers, ſmall barrels well hooped, with only one head; on the other end is nailed a piece of leather, to draw together upon ſtrings like a purſe. Their uſe is for carrying powder along with a gun or mortar; being leſs dangerous, and eaſier carried, than whole barrels. They are likewiſe uſed upon a battery of mortars for holding meal powder.

BUDGELL, Euſtace, Eſq; the ſon of Gilbert Budgell, D. D. was born near Exeter, about 1686. He was educated at Chriſt-church college, Oxford; from which he removed to the Inner Temple, London: but inſtead of ſtudying the law, for which his father intended him, he applied to literature, and contracted a ſtrict intimacy with the ingenious Mr Addiſon, who was firſt coſin to his mother, and who, on his being made ſecretary to the lord lieutenant of Ireland, took him with him as one of the clerks of his office. Mr Budgell, who was then about 20 years of age, and had read the claſſics, and the works of the beſt Engliſh, French, and Italian authors, now became concerned with Sir Richard Steele and Mr Addiſon, in writing the Tatler, as he had, ſoon after, a ſhare in writing the Spectators, where all the papers written by him are marked X. He had likewiſe a hand in the Guardian, where his performances are marked with an aſteriſk. He was afterwards made under-ſecretary to Mr Addiſon, chief ſecretary to the lords juſtices of Ireland, and deputy-clerk of the council. Soon after, he was choſen a member of the Iriſh parliament; and in 1717, Mr Addiſon, having become principal ſecretary of ſtate in England, procured him the place of accountant and comptroller general of the revenue in Ireland. But next year, the duke of Bolton being appointed lord lieutenant, Mr Budgell wrote a lampoon againſt Mr Webſter, his ſecretary, in which he did not ſpare the duke. This imprudent ſtep was the primary cauſe of his ruin: for the duke got him removed from his poſt; upon which, returning to England, he, contrary to Mr Addiſon's advice, publiſhed his caſe in a pamphlet, intitled, "A letter to the lord * * *, from Euſtace Budgell, Eſq; accountant-general," &c. Mr Addiſon had now reſigned the ſeals, and retired into the country: Mr Budgell had alſo loſt ſeveral other powerful friends by death; particularly lord Halifax and the earl of Sunderland: and his attempts to ſucceed at court, were conſtantly repreſſed by the duke of Bolton. In 1720, he loſt 20,000 l. by the South-ſea ſcheme, and afterwards ſpent 5000 l. more in unſucceſsful attempts to get into parliament. This completed his ruin. He at length employed himſelf in writing pamphlets againſt the miniſtry, and wrote many papers in the Craftſman. In 1733, he began a weekly pamphlet, called *The Bee;* which he continued for above 100 numbers, in 8 volumes 8vo. During the progreſs of this work, Dr Tindal's death happened, by whoſe will Mr Budgell had 2000 l. left him; and the public being ſurpriſed at ſuch a gift from a man entirely unrelated to him, to the excluſion of the heir, a nephew, immediately imputed it to his making the will himſelf. It was thought, however, that he had ſome hand in publiſhing Dr Tindal's *Chriſtianity as old as the Creation;* for he often talked of another additional volume on the ſame ſubject, but never publiſhed it. He alſo wrote a traſlation of Theophraſtus's characters. After the ceſſation of the Bee, Mr Budgell became ſo involved in law-ſuits, that he was reduced to a very unhappy ſituation. He got himſelf called to the bar, and attended for ſome time in the courts of law; but finding himſelf unable to make any progreſs, and being diſtreſſed to the utmoſt, he loſt his reaſon, and determined to make away with himſelf. Accordingly in 1736, he took a boat at Somerſet-ſtairs, after filling his pockets with ſtones, and, while the boat was under the bridge, threw himſelf into the river. Upon his bureau was found a ſlip of paper, on which were theſe words:

What Cato did, and Addiſon approv'd,
Cannot be wrong.

* BUDGER. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] One that moves or ſtirs from his place.—

Let the firſt *budger* die the other's ſlave,
And the gods doom him after. *Shakeſ.*

BUDGEROW, a peculiar kind of boat uſed in Bengal. See BENGAL, § 6.

(1.) * BUDGET. *n. ſ.* [*bogette*, French.] 1. A bag, ſuch as may be eaſily carried.—

If tinkers may have leave to live,
And bear the ſowſkin *budget;*
Then my account I well may give,
And in the ſtocks avouch it. *Shakeſ.*

—Sir Robert Clifford, in whoſe boſom, or *budget*, moſt of Perkin's ſecrets were laid up, was come into England. *Bacon.*—

His *budget* with corruptions cramm'd,
The contributions of the damn'd. *Swift.*

2. It is uſed for a ſtore, or ſtock.—It was nature, in fine, that brought off the cat, when the fox's whole *budget* of inventions failed him. *L'Eſtrange.*

(2.) BUDGET, in parliamentary language, implies the miniſter's propoſed plan of taxation for the ſubſequent year; and comprehends not only the new taxes and an eſtimate of their probable amount, but a general view of the national debt, income and expenditure, ways and means of raiſing ſupplies, &c. with the real product of laſt budget.

BUDHURS,

BUDHURS, in ichthyology, a name given by the Iriſh to a large ſpecies of trout, reſembling the red GILLAROO. *Phil. Tranſ.* vol. lxiv. N. 14, 15.

BUDIC, a village in Northumberland, near Bamburgh caſtle.

(1.) BUDINGEN, a county of Germany, in the circle of Upper Rhine, and landgraviate of Heſſe.

(2.) BUDINGEN, the capital of the county, (N. 1.) 20 m. N. E. of Frankfort.

BUDINUS, in ancient geography, a mountain of Sarmatia Europæa, from which the northern ſpring of the Boryſthenes is ſaid to take its riſe, according to Ptolemy. But this is contradicted by later accounts. It is now called PODOLIA.

BUDLEY, a town in Devonſhire, near the mouth of the Otter. It has a market on Monday.

BUDNÆANS, in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, a ſect, who not only denied all kind of religious worſhip to Jeſus Chriſt, but aſſerted, that he was not begotten by any extraordinary act of divine power; being born, like other men, in a natural way.

BUDNÆUS, Simon, the founder of the abovementioned ſect, was a clergyman, but was depoſed from his miniſterial functions in the year 1584, and publicly excommunicated, with all his diſciples; but afterwards abandoning ſome of his peculiar ſentiments, he was admitted to the communion of the Socinian ſect.

BUDNAHOC, a village in Bedfordſ. 3 m. N. W. of Biggleſwade.

BUDOA, a maritime town of Dalmatia, ſubject to the Venetians. It is ſeated between the gulf of Cattaro and the city of Dulugno, on the coaſt of Albany; and is an important fortreſs, where the Venetians always kept a ſtrong garriſon. In 1667, it ſuffered greatly by an earthquake: and in 1686 was beſieged by Soliman, baſha of Scutari; but general Cornaro obliged him to raiſe the ſiege. Lon. 19. 20. E. Lat. 42. 15. N.

BUDOC, a village near Penrynn, Cornwall.

BUDOE. See BATUA.

BUDOX, ST, a town 4 m. N. of Plymouth.

BUDRIO, a town of Italy, in the Bologneſe, belonging to the new republic of CISPADANA, or LOMBARDY. The adjacent fields produce large quantities of fine hemp. Lon. 11. 35. E. Lat. 44. 27. N.

BUDSCHACK TARTARY. See BUDZIAC.

BUDUN, one of the Ceyloneſe gods, who is fabled to have arrived at ſupremacy, after ſucceſſive tranſmigrations from the loweſt ſtate of an inſect, through the various ſpecies of living animals. There are 3 deities of this name, each of whom is ſaid to reign till a bird ſhall have removed a hill of ſand, half a mile high, and ſix miles round, by carrying off a ſingle grain once in 1000 years. See SAKRADAWENDRA.

BUDWEIS, a royal city of Bohemia in Germany. It is pretty large and well built, ſurrounded with ſtrong walls, fortified with a good rampart, and might be made an important place. It was taken by the king of Pruſſia in 1744, but he did not keep it long. Lon. 14. 19. E. Lat. 49. 10. N.

(1.) BUDWORTH, a town 3 m. from Warwick.

(2.) BUDWORTH MAGNA, } two villages in the

(3.) BUDWORTH PARVA, } county of Cheſhire.

BUDZIAC TARTARY, lies on the rivers Neiſter, Bog, and Nieper; having Poland and Ruſſia on the N. Little Tartary on the E. the Black Sea on the S. and Beſſarabia on the W. The chief town is Oczakow. It is ſubject to Turky.

BUEIL. See BOGLIO, N. 1. and 2.

BUENA-VISTA, one of the Cape de Verd Iſlands, called alſo BONAVISTA, and *Bonneveue*; all ſignifying a *good proſpect*, intimating the beautiful appearance it makes to ſhips at ſea. It is reckoned near twenty leagues in circumference, and is diſtinguiſhed on the N. ſide by a ridge of white rocks. The coaſt ſtretches E. and N. W. and is terminated with ſundry banks to the ſea. The interior part is chiefly mountainous. From the N. point there is a large ridge of rocks projecting near a whole league into the ſea, againſt which the waves break with incredible fury. Another point of rocks ſtretches into the ſea on the S. E. a league and a half beyond the other: and in that bay is the beſt road for ſhipping. See BONAVISTA.

(1.) BUENOS AYRES, a country of South America, belonging to the Spaniards. This name, given from the pleaſantneſs of the climate, is extended to all that country lying between Tucuman on the E. Paraguay on the N. and Terra Magellanica on the S. or to the vertex of that triangular point of land which compoſes South America. The country is watered by the great river La Plata. It was firſt diſcovered in 1515 by Juan Diaz de Solis, who, with two of his attendants, was maſſacred by the natives; and partly ſubdued by Sebaſtian Gaboto, who gave the great river the appellation of *La Plata*, from the abundance of the precious metals he procured from the inhabitants, imagining them to be the produce of the country, though in fact they were brought from Peru. No country in the world abounds more in horned cattle and horſes, than Buenos Ayres, where the greateſt expence of a horſe or cow is in the catching of it, and they are frequently to be had at the ſmall price of two or three reals. In ſuch abundance are theſe uſeful animals, that the hide alone is deemed of any value, as this conſtitutes a main article in the trade of the country. They all rove wild in the fields, but are now become more difficult of acceſs, the terrible havock made among them having taught the cautious brutes to keep at a greater diſtance. All kinds of fiſh are in the ſame abundance; the fruits produced by every quarter of the globe grow up here in the utmoſt perfection; and for the enjoyment of life, and the ſalubrity of the air, a finer country cannot be imagined. The principal cities are the capital, (N. 2.) Monte Video, Corienteo, and Santa Fe.

(2.) BUENOS AYRES, NEUSTRA SENNORA DE, the capital of the above country, (N. 1.) was founded in 1535, under the direction of Don Pedro de Mendoza, then governor. It ſtands on a point called *Cape Blanco*, on the S. ſide of the Plata, fronting a ſmall river, in a fine plain, riſing by a gentle aſcent from the river. It is truly paradiſiacal, whether we regard the temperature of the climate, the fertility of the ſoil, or the beautiful verdure which overſpreads the whole face of the country, of which the inhabitants have a proſpect as far as the eye can reach. The city contains

contains 3000 houſes, inhabited by 30,000 people, including Spaniards and natives of different complexions. The ſtreets are ſtraight, broad, and pretty equal in the heights and dimenſions of the buildings; one very handſome ſquare adorns it, the front being a caſtle in which the governor holds his court, and preſides over a garriſon of 3000 ſoldiers. Moſt of the buildings are of chalk or brick, except the cathedral, a magnificent ſtructure, compoſed chiefly of ſtone. Lon. 58. 16. W. Lat. 34°. 34′. 38″. S

BUEN RETIRO, a royal ſeat of Spain, on the E. ſide of Madrid, where the king reſides in ſummer.

BUEREN, a town of Holland, on the S. of the Rhine, which was the general rendezvous of the Britiſh troops in Dec. 1794 and Jan. 1795. It is ſituated N. E. from Leerdam. Lon. 5. 25. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

BUERLEY, 2 villages in Yorkſhire: 1. N. W. of Halifax: and, 2. near Patley Bridge.

BUERTON, in Cheſhire, E. of Cumbermere.

BUET, a mountain of France, in the department of Mont Blanc, 10,106 feet high.

BUFALMACO, Bonamico, an Italian painter; the firſt who put labels to the mouths of his figures, with ſentences; ſince followed by many bad maſters, but moſt frequently and ſucceſsfully in caricatura engravings. Others ſay he only gave riſe to this whimſical method of making figures *ſpeak*, by jocularly adviſing a brother painter, called *Bruno*, to do ſo: which Bruno taking in earneſt actually put in execution.

BUFETAGE, or BUFETAGIUM, } a duty paid to the lord for the drinking, or rather ſelling of wine in taverns.

(1.) * BUFF. *n. ſ.* [from *buffalo*.] 1. A ſort of leather prepared from the ſkin of the buffalo; uſed for waiſt belts, pouches, and military accoutrements.—

A ropy chain of rheums, a viſage rough,
Deform'd, unfeatur'd, and a ſkin of *buff*. *Dryd.*

2. The ſkins of elks and oxen dreſſed in oil, and prepared after the ſame manner as that of the buffalo. 3. A military coat made of thick leather, ſo that a blow cannot eaſily pierce it.—

A fiend, a fairy, pitileſs and rough;
A wolf, nay worſe, a fellow all in *buff*. *Shakeſ.*

(2.) BUFF, in commerce, is dreſſed with oil, after the manner of ſhammy. This makes a very conſiderable article in the French, Engliſh, and Dutch commerce at Conſtantinople, Smyrna, and all along the coaſt of Africa. The ſkins of elks, oxen, and the like animals, when prepared after the ſame manner, are likewiſe called *buffs*. In France, there are ſeveral manufactories for dreſſing theſe ſorts of hides, particularly at Corbeil, near Paris; at Niort, Lyons, Rome, Etanepus, and Cone.

(3.) BUFF, in anatomy, ſignifies that fizy, viſcid, tough maſs, which forms on the upper ſurface of the blood; and which phyſicians call the *coagulable lymph*. See BLOOD, § 3, 4.

* *To* BUFF. *v. a.* [*buffe*, Fr.] To ſtrike: it is a word not in uſe.—

There was a ſhock,
To have *buff'd* out the blood
From ought but a block. *Ben Jonſon.*

(1.) * BUFFALO. *n. ſ.* [Ital.] A kind of wild ox.—

Become the unworthy browſe
Of *buffaloes*, ſalt goats, and hungry cows. *Dryd.*

(2.) BUFFALO. See BOS, N. IV. § v. i. vi. viii. 3.

(1.) * BUFFET. *n. ſ.* [*buffeto*, Ital.] A blow with the fiſt; a box on the ear.—O, I could divide myſelf, and go to *buffets*, for moving ſuch a diſh of ſkimmed milk with ſo honourable an action. *Shakeſpeare.*—

A man that fortune's *buffets* and rewards
Haſt ta'en with equal thanks. *Shakeſ.*

Go, baffl'd coward, leſt I run upon thee;
And with one *buffet* lay thy ſtructure low. *Milt.*

Round his hollow temples, and his ears,
His buckler beats; the ſun of Neptune ſtunn'd.
With theſe repeated *buffets*, quits the ground.
Dryden.

(2.) * BUFFET. *n. ſ.* [*buffette*, Fr.] A kind of cupboard; or ſet of ſhelves, where plate is ſet out to ſhew, in a room of entertainment.—

The rich *buffet* well-colour'd ſerpents grace,
And gaping Tritons ſpew to waſh your face.
Pope.

(3.) BUFFET was anciently a little apartment, ſeparated from the reſt of the room by ſlender wooden columns, for the diſpoſing of china, glaſs-ware, &c. It now properly implies a large table in a dining-room, called alſo a SIDE-BOARD, for the plate, glaſſes, bottles, baſons, &c. to be placed on, as well for the ſervice of the table as for magnificence. In houſes of citizens of diſtinction in France, the buffet is a detached room, decorated with pictures relative to the ſubject, with fountains, ciſterns, and vaſes. It is commonly faced with marble or bronze.

(1.) * *To* BUFFET. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſtrike with the hand; to box; to beat.—Why, woman, your huſband is in his old lunes again; he ſo *buffets* himſelf on the forehead, crying, Peer out, peer out! that any madneſs I ever yet beheld, ſeemed but tameneſs. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Our ears are cudgell'd; not a word of his
But *buffets* better than a fiſt of France. *Shakeſ.*

The torrent roar'd, and we did *buffet* it
With luſty ſinews; throwing it aſide. *Shakeſ.*

Inſtantly I plung'd into the ſea,
And *buffeting* the billows to her reſcue,
Redeem'd her life with half the loſs of mine.
Otway.

(2.) * *To* BUFFET. *v. n.* To play a boxing-match.—If I might *buffet* for my love, I could lay on like a butcher. *Shakeſpear's Henry* V.

* BUFFETER. *n. ſ.* [from *buffet*.] A boxer; one that buffets.

BUFFIER, Claude, a French writer, who was born in 1661, became a Jeſuit in 1679, and died at Paris in 1737. He wrote many works, which ſhow deep penetration and accurate judgment. The principal is, *Un Cours des Sciences*, &c. "A Courſe of Sciences, upon principles new and ſimple, in order to form the language, the underſtanding, and the heart, 1732," in folio. This collection includes an excellent "French grammar upon a new plan; a philoſophic and practical treatiſe upon eloquence; an art of poetry," which, however, is not reckoned the beſt part of this miſcellany;

lany; "elements of metaphyſics; an examination into vulgar prejudices; a treatiſe of civil ſociety; and an expoſition of the proofs of religion:" all full of juſt reflections. His ſtyle is rather eaſy than accurate, notwithſtanding the precepts in his *Grammar*, which is really philoſophic.

* BUFFLE. *n. ſ.* [*beuffle*, Fr.] The ſame with *buffalo*; a wild ox.

* *To* BUFFLE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To puzzle; to be at a loſs.—This was the utter ruin of that poor, angry, *buffling*, well-meaning mortal, Piſtorides, who lies equally under the contempt of both parties. *Swift.*

* BUFFLEHEADED. *adj.* [from *buffle* and *head*.] A man with a large head, like a buffalo; dull; ſtupid; fooliſh.

BUFFO. See BUFFOON, § 2.

BUFFON, Count de. See CLERC. N. 1.

(1.) * BUFFOON. *n. ſ.* [*buffon*, French.] 1. A man whoſe profeſſion is to make ſport, by low jeſts and antick poſtures; a jackpudding.—No prince would think himſelf greatly honoured, to have his proclamation canvaſſed on a publick ſtage, and become the ſport of *buffoons*. *Watts.* 2. A man that practiſes indecent raillery.—It is the nature of drolls and *buffoons*, to be inſolent to thoſe that will bear it, and ſlaviſh to others. *L'Eſtrange.*—

The bold *buffoon*, whene'er they tread the green,
Their motion mimicks, but with jeſt obſcene.
Garth.

(2.) BUFFOON is derived by Menage, after Salmaſius, from BUFFO; a name given to thoſe who appeared on the Roman theatre with their cheeks blown up; that, receiving blows thereon, they might make the greater noiſe, and ſet the people a laughing. Rhodiginus and others, make the origin of buffoonery more venerable; deriving it from a feaſt inſtituted in Attica by K. Erictheus, called BUPHONIA. Buffoons are alſo denominated *ſcurræ*, *gelaſiani*, *mimilogi*, *miniſtelli*, *goliardi*, *joculatores*, &c. Their chief ſcenes were at the tables of great men. Gallienus never ſat down to meat without a ſecond table of buffoons by him; Tillemont alſo renders *pantomimes* by buffoons; in which ſenſe he obſerves, the ſhows of the buffoons were taken away by Domitian, reſtored by Nerva, and finally aboliſhed by Trajan.

* BUFFOONERY. *n. ſ.* [from *buffoon*.] 1. The practice or art of a buffoon.—Courage, in an ill-bred man, has the air, and eſcapes not the opinion of brutality; learning becomes pedantry, and wit *buffoonery*. *Locke.* 2. Low jeſts; ridiculous pranks; ſcurrile mirth. *Dryden* places the accent, improperly, on the firſt ſyllable.—Where publick miniſters encourage *buffoonery*, it is no wonder if buffoons ſet up for publick miniſters. *L'Eſtrange.*—

And whilſt it laſts, let *buffoonery* ſucceed,
To make us laugh; for never was more need.
Dryden.

BUFFY, *adj.* reſembling buff; tough.

BUFO, in zoology, the trivial name of a ſpecies of rana, commonly called in Engliſh, the *toad*. See RANA, N. 1. Toads have been long remarked by phyſiologiſts, as poſſeſſed of a capability of living without air or aliment. Of this the moſt aſtoniſhing inſtances are given by different authors. In the volume for 1719, of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, is the following paſſage: "In the foot of an elm, of the bigneſs of a pretty corpulent man, 3 or 4 feet above the root, and exactly in the centre, has been found a live toad, middle-ſized, but lean, and filling up the whole vacant ſpace: no ſooner was a paſſage opened, by ſplitting the wood, than it ſcuttled away very haſtily: a more firm and ſound elm never grew; ſo that the toad cannot be ſuppoſed to have got into it. The egg whence it was formed, muſt, by ſome very ſingular accident, have been lodged in the tree at its firſt growth. There the creature had lived without air, feeding on the ſubſtance of the tree, and growing only as the tree grew. This is atteſted by M. Hubert, profeſſor of philoſophy at Caen. The Vol. for 1731, has a ſimilar anecdote, expreſſed in theſe words: "In 1719 we gave an account of a fact, which, though improbable, was well atteſted;—that a toad had been found living and growing in the ſtem of a middling elm, without any way for the creature to come out, or to have got in. M. Seigne of Nantz ſays before the academy a fact juſt of the very ſame nature, except that, inſtead of an elm it was an oak, and larger than the elm, which ſtill heightens the wonder. He judges by the time requiſite for the growth of the oak, that the toad muſt have ſubſiſted in it without air, or any adventitious aliment, during 80 or 100 years. M. Seigne ſeems to have known nothing of the fact in 1719." Ambroſe Paré, chief ſurgeon to Henry III. K. of France, a ſenſible writer, relates the following fact, of which he was an eye-witneſs.—"Being, (ſays he,) at my ſeat, near the village Meudon, and over-looking a quarry-man, whom I had ſet to break ſome very large and hard ſtones; in the middle of one we found a huge toad, full of life, and without any viſible aperture, by which it could get there. I began to wonder how it received birth, had grown and lived; but the labourer told me, it was not the firſt time he had met with a toad and the like creatures, with a huge blocks of ſtone, and no viſible opening or fiſſure." Obſervations of living toads, found in very hard and entire ſtones, occur in ſeveral authors, particularly Baptiſt Fulgoſa, Doge of Genoa; the famous phyſicians, Agricola and Heſtius, and Lord Verulam. Others give very ſpecious accounts of ſnakes, frogs, crabs, and lobſters, being found alive, incloſed within blocks of marble, rocks, and large ſtones. An inſtance ſimilar to theſe, of the truth of which we have no reaſon to doubt, was obſerved in this country in 1773; when a large toad was found in the middle of a piece of coal, having not the leaſt viſible crack or fiſſure.

BUFONIA, TOAD GRASS: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the diandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 22d order, Caryophylleæ. The calyx is quinquedentate; there is no corolla; the berry is monoſpermous. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

BUFONIA TENUIFOLIA, a native of Britain.

BUFONITA, in natural hiſtory, the toad-ſtone. This has been received not only among the lift of native ſtones by the generality of authors, but even

even has held a place among the gems, and is ſtill worn in rings by ſome people; though undoubtedly it is an extraneous foſſil. It was anciently believed that it was found in the head of an old toad; and that this animal voided it at the mouth, on being put on a red cloth. The general colour of the bufonitæ is a deep duſky brown; but it varies greatly in this reſpect in ſeveral ſpecimens, ſome of which are quite black, others of an extremely pale ſimple brown, a cheſnut colour, liver colour, black grey, or whitiſh. The bufonitæ are uſually found immerſed in beds of ſtone, and there is now no doubt, that they have originally been the petrified teeth of the lupus piſcis, or wolf-fiſh, part of the jaw of the fiſh being ſometimes found with the teeth petrified in it. The bufonites are ſaid to be cordial and aſtringent: many other fanciful virtues are aſcribed to them, which the preſent practice has rejected.

(1.) * BUG. *n. ſ.* A ſtinking inſect bred in old houſehold ſtuff. In the following paſſage, wings are erroneouſly aſcribed to it.—

Yet let me flap this *bug* with gilded wings,
This painted child of dirt, which ſtinks and ſtings. *Pope.*

(2.) * BUG. BUGBEAR. *n. ſ.* [It is derived by ſome from *big*, by others from *pug*; *bug*, in Welch, has the ſame meaning.] A frightful object; a walking ſpectre, imagined to be ſeen; generally now uſed for a falſe terrour to frighten babes.—

Each trembling leaf and whiſtling wind they hear,
As ghaſtly *bugs* their hair on end does rear,
Yet both do ſtrive their fearfulneſs to feign.
Fairy Queen.

Sir, ſpare your threats;
The *bug* which you would fright me with, I ſeek. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Haſt not ſlept to-night? would he not, naughty man, let it ſleep? a *bugbear* take him. *Shakeſ.*

—We have a horrour for uncouth monſters; but, upon experience, all theſe *bugs* grow familiar and eaſy to us. *L'Eſtrange.*—Such *bugbear* thoughts, once got into the tender minds of children, ſink deep, ſo as not eaſily, if ever, to be got out again. *Locke.*—

To the world, no *bugbear* is ſo great,
As want of figure, and a ſmall eſtate. *Pope.*

(3.) BUG, or BUGG, in zoology. See CIMEX.

(4.) BUGS, METHOD OF EFFECTUALLY DESTROYING. Take of the higheſt rectified ſpirit of wine, (viz. lamp-ſpirits) that will burn all away dry, and leave not the leaſt moiſture behind it, half a pint; new diſtilled oil, or ſpirit, of turpentine, half a pint; mix them together; and put into it, in ſmall bits, half an ounce of camphire, which will diſſolve in a few minutes; ſhake them well together; and with a piece of ſponge, or a bruſh dipt in ſome of it, wet very well the bed furniture of wherein theſe vermin harbour and breed, and it will infallible deſtroy both them and their nits, although they ſwarm ever ſo much. But then the bed and furniture muſt be well and thoroughly wet with it (the duſt upon them being firſt bruſhed and ſhook off,) by which means it will neither ſoil, ſtain, nor in the leaſt hurt, the fineſt ſilk or damaſk bed. The quantity ordered of this mixture, (that coſts but about a ſhilling) will rid any one bed whatever, of buggs. If any buggs ſhould happen to appear after once uſing it, it will only be for want of well wetting the lacing, &c. of the bed, or the folding of the linens or curtains near the rings, or the joints or holes in and about the bed or head board, wherein the buggs and nits neſtle and breed; and then their being wetted all again with more of the ſame mixture, which dries in as faſt as it is uſed, pouring ſome of it into the joints and holes where the bruſh or ſponge cannot reach, will never fail to deſtroy them all completely. Some beds that have much wood-work can hardly be thoroughly cleared without being firſt taken down; but others that can be drawn out, or got behind, may. The ſmell this mixture occaſions will be gone in 2 or 3 days. It is very wholeſome, and to many people agreeable. The mixture muſt always be ſhaken well when uſed, which muſt be in the day time, not by candle light, leaſt the inflammability of the mixture ſhould catch the flame. Early in ſpring, even in February, the larva of theſe creatures begin to burſt from the eggs; and it is at this ſeaſon that attention is chiefly requiſite. The bed ought to be ſtripped of all its furniture; which ſhould be waſhed, and even boiled, if linen; if woollen, it ſhould be hot-preſſed. The bed-ſtead ſhould be taken to pieces, duſted, and waſhed with ſpirit of wine in the joints; for in thoſe parts the females lay their eggs. This done, the joints, crevices, cavities, &c. ſhould be well filled with the beſt ſoft ſoap mixed with verdigris, and Scots ſnuff. On this ſubſtance the larva, if any eſcape the cleanſing, or any, which is common in old houſes, creep into the bed ſtead, will feed at firſt, and of courſe be deſtroyed: this laſt will effect the purpoſe in houſes where theſe vermin are not ſo numerous, by repeating the operation every three months. Profeſſor Kalm mentions, that, from repeated trials, he has been convinced that ſulphur, if it be properly employed, entirely deſtroys buggs and their eggs in beds or walls, tho' they were ten times more numerous than the ants on an ant-hill. His tranſlator, Dr Forſter, adds, that a ſtill more effectual remedy is, to waſh all the infected furniture with a ſolution of arſenic. See CIMICIFUGA.

BUGA MARBLE, in natural hiſtory, a name given by the Spaniards to a ſpecies of black marble, called by our artificers the Namur marble, and known among the ancient Romans by the name of *marmor Luculleum*. It is common in many parts of Europe, and is uſed by the Spaniards in medicine as well as in building; the powder of it being ſaid to be an excellent ſtyptic, applied to freſh wounds.

BUGARES. See BUGGERS, § 1.

BUGBANE, in botany. See MENYANTHES.

BUGBARROW, a village in Dorſetſhire.

* BUGBEAR. See BUG, § 2.

BUGBROOK, a town 2 m. W. of Northampton.

BUGDEN, N. of Bodington, Huntingdonſh.

BUGEE, in zoology, a ſpecies of Indian monkey, very rare even in the Indies. It is about the ſize and colour of a beaver, but its tail and claws are wholly of the monkey kind.

BUGELAH. See BUGLA, No. 2.

BUGELUGEY, in zoology, a large ſpecies of lizard, called by Cluſius, and ſome others, *Lacertus Indicus*. It grows to 4 feet long, and 9 inches round; the tail is very long, and ends in an extremely ſlender point.

BUGEY, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the E. by Savoy, on the W. by Breſſe, on the S. by Dauphiny, and on the N. by Gex and Franche Compte. It was about 40 miles long and 25 broad. It has many hills and rivers, which abound with trouts, and all ſorts of game. Belley was the capital. It is now comprehended chiefly in the departments of Ain and Cher.

BUGG. See BUG, § 1, 3, 4.

BUGGASINES, buckrams made of callico.

(1.) BUGGERS, BULGARII, anciently ſignified a kind of heretics, otherwiſe called *Paterini*, *Cathari*, &c. The word is formed of the French *Bougres*, and that from *Bougria* or *Bulgaria*, the country where they chiefly appeared. Among other errors, they held, that men ought to believe no ſcripture but the New Teſtament; that baptiſm was not neceſſary to infants; that huſbands who converſed with their wives could not be ſaved; and that an oath was abſolutely unlawful. They were ſtrenuouſly refuted by Fr. Robert, a Dominican, ſurnamed the *Bugger*, as having formerly made profeſſion of this hereſy. They are mentioned by Matthew Paris, in the reign of Henry III. under the name of BUGARES.

(2.) BUGGERS, or BUGGERERS, came afterwards to be uſed for Sodomites, it being one of the imputations laid, right or wrong, on the Bulgarian heretics, that they taught, or at leaſt practiſed, this abominable crime. The denomination was alſo applied to uſurers; uſury being a vice to which the ſame heretics are ſaid to have been much addicted.

BUGGERY, or SODONY, is defined by Sir Edward Coke to be a carnal copulation againſt nature, either by a confuſion of ſpecies, that is to ſay, either a man or woman with a brute beaſt; or ſexes, as a man with a man, or a man unnaturally with a woman. It is ſaid, this ſin againſt God and nature was firſt brought into England by the Lombards. As to its puniſhment, the voice of nature and of reaſon, and the expreſs law of God, (Levit. xx. 13, 14.) determines it to be capital. Of this we have a ſignal inſtance, long before the Jewiſh diſpenſation, by the deſtruction of 4 cities by lightening; ſo that this is an univerſal, not merely a provincial precept. Our ancient law, in ſome meaſure, imitated this puniſhment, by commanding ſuch miſcreants to be burnt to death; though Fleta ſays, they ſhould be buried alive; either of which puniſhments was indifferently uſed for this crime among the ancient Goths. But now the general puniſhment of all felonies is the ſame, viz. hanging; and this offence, being in the times of popery only ſubject to eccleſiaſtical cenſures, was made felony without benefit of clergy, by ſtat. 25 Hen. VIII. c. 6. revived and confirmed by 5 Eliz. c. 17. And the law is, that, if both parties are arrived at the years of diſcretion, *agentes et conſentientes pari pœna plectantur*, "both are liable to the ſame puniſhment."

* BUGGINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *buggy*.] The ſtate of being infected with bugs.

* BUGGY. *adj.* [from *bug*.] Abounding with bugs.

BUGGYS, *n. ſ. obſ.* Bugbears. *Chaucer.*

(1.) BUGIA, a province of Algiers, formerly a kingdom of Africa. It is almoſt ſurrounded with mountains; and is divided into 3 parts, Benibar, Auraz, and Labez. Theſe mountains are peopled with the moſt ancient Arabs, Moors, and Saracens. The province is very fertile in corn.

(2.) BUGIA, by the Africans called BUGEIAH, a maritime town of Africa, in the kingdom of Algiers, and once the capital of the province, No. It is ſuppoſed to be the SALDÆ of Strabo, built by the Romans. It has a handſome port formed by a narrow neck of land, running into the ſea, a great part of whoſe promontory was formerly faced with a wall of hewn ſtone; where was likewiſe an aqueduct, which ſupplied the port with water, diſcharging it into a capacious baſon; all which now lie in ruins. The city itſelf is built on the ruins of a large one, at the foot of a high mountain that looks towards the N. E.; a great part of whoſe walls run up quite to the top it; where there is alſo a caſtle that commands the whole town, beſides two others at the bottom, built for a ſecurity to the port. The inhabitants drive a conſiderable trade in ploughſhares, mattocks, and other iron tools, which they manufacture from the neighbouring mines. The town is watered by a large river, ſuppoſed to be the NASAVA of Ptolemy. The place is populous, and has a conſiderable market for iron work, oil, and wax, which is carried on with great tranquillity; but is no ſooner over than the whole place is in an uproar, ſo that the day ſeldom concludes without ſome flagrant inſtance of barbarity. Lon. 4. 5. E. Lat. 35. 36. N.

BUGIE, a town of Egypt, ſituated on the W. ſhore of the Red Sea, almoſt oppoſite to Zidda, the port town of Mecca, and about 110 miles W. of it. Lon. 36. 6. E. Lat. 22. 15. N.

BUGLANA. See BAGLANA.

(1.) * BUGLE. *n. ſ.* A ſhining bead of black glaſs.—

Bugle bracelets, necklace amber,
Perfum'd for a lady's chamber. *Shakeſpeare.*

'Tis not your inky brows, your black ſilk hair,
Your *bugle* eyeballs, nor your cheek of cream,
That can entame my ſpirits to your worſhip.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) * BUGLE. *n. ſ.* A ſort of wild ox. *Phillips's World of Words.*

(3.) * BUGLE. *n. ſ.* [from *bugula*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(4.) BUGLE, in botany. See AJUGA.

(5.) * BUGLE. } *n. ſ.* [from *bugen*, Sax. to
* BUGLEHORN. } bend, *Skinner*; from *bucula*, Lat. a heifer, *Junius*; from *bugle*, the boneſs, *Lye*.] A hunting horn.—

Then took that ſquare an horny *bugle* ſmall,
Which hung adown his ſide in twiſted gold,
And taſſels gay. *Fairy Queen.*

—I will have a recheate winded in my forehead, or hang my *bugle* in an inviſible baldrick. *Shakeſ.*

He gave his *bugle* horn a blaſt,
That thro' the woodland echo'd far and wide.
Tickell.

(1.) * BU

(1.) * BUGLOSS. *n. f.* [from *bugloſſum*, Lat.] The herb ox tongue.

(2.) BUGLOSS, in botany. See ANCHUSA.

(3.) BUGLOSS, SMALL WILD. See ASPERUGO.

(4.) BUGLOSS VIPER'S. See ECHIUM.

BUGLOSSUS, in ichthyology, a name uſed by many authors for the ſoal fiſh.

BUGSIL, in Suffolk, W. of Rotherbridge.

BUGTHORP, 5 m. N. of Pocklington, Yorkſh.

BUHL, a ſmall fortreſs of Suabia, on the lines of Stollhoffen, 17 miles N. E. of Straſburg. Lon. 9. 24. E. Lat. 48. 50. N.

(1.) * *To* BUILD. *v. a.* preter. I *built*, I have *uilt*. [*bilden*, Dutch.] 1. To raiſe from the ground; to make a fabrick, or an edifice.—Thou ſhalt not *build* an houſe unto my name. *Chron.*—

When uſurers tell their gold in the field,
And whores and bawds do churches *build*.
Shakeſpeare.

To raiſe in any laboured form.—When the headdreſs was *built* up in a couple of cones and ſpires, which ſtood ſo exceſſively high on the ſide of the head, that a woman, who was but a pigmy without her head-dreſs, appeared like a Coloſſus upon putting it on. *Spectator.* 3. To raiſe any thing on a ſupport or foundation.—

Love *built* on beauty, ſoon as beauty, dies;
Chooſe this face, chang'd by no deformities.
Donne.

—I would endeavour to deſtroy thoſe curious, but groundleſs ſtructures, that men have *built* up of opinions alone. *Boyle.*

(2.) * *To* BUILD. *v. n.* 1. To play the architect.

To *build*, to plant, whatever you intend,
To rear the column, or the arch to bend. *Pope.*

2. To depend on; to reſt on.—By a man's authority, we here underſtand the force which his word hath for the aſſurance of another's mind, that *buildeth* upon it. *Hooker.*—Some *build* rather upon the abuſing of others, and putting tricks upon them, than upon ſoundneſs of their own proceedings. *Bacon.*—Even thoſe who had not *built* of your favours, yet *built* ſo much on the fame of your beneficence, that they bemoaned the loſs of their expectations. *Dryden.*—This is certainly a much ſurer way, than to *build* on the interpretations of an author, who does not conſider how the ancients uſed to think. *Addiſon.*

* BUILDER. *n. ſ.* [from *build.*] He that builds; an architect.—

But fore-accounting oft makes *builders* miſs;
They found, they felt, they had no leaſe of bliſs.
Sidney.

—When they, which had ſeen the beauty of the firſt temple built by Solomon, beheld how far it excelled the ſecond, which had not *builders* of like abilities, the tears of their grieved eyes the prophets endeavoured, with comforts, to wipe away. *Hooker.*—

Mark'd out for ſuch an uſe, as if 'twere meant
T' invite the *builder*, and his choice prevent.
Denham.

Her wings with lengthen'd honour let her ſpread,
And, by her greatneſs, ſhew her *builder's* fame.
Prior.

(1.) * BUILDING. *n. ſ.* [from *build.*] A fabric; an edifice.—

Thy ſumptuous *buildings*, and thy wife's attire,
Have coſt a maſs of publick treaſury. *Shakeſp.*

View not this ſpire by meaſure given
To *buildings* rais'd by common hands:
That fabrick riſes high as heav'n,
Whoſe baſis on devotion ſtands. *Prior.*

—Among the great variety of ancient coins which I ſaw at Rome, I could not but take particular notice of ſuch as relate to any of the *buildings* or ſtatues that are ſtill extant. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BUILDING is alſo uſed for the art of conſtructing and raiſing an edifice. See ARCHITECTURE. The modern buildings are much more commodious, as well as beautiful, than thoſe of former times. Of old they uſed to dwell in houſes, moſt of them with a blind ſtair-caſe, low ceilings, and dark windows; the rooms built at random, without any thing of contrivance, and often with ſteps from one to another; ſo that one would think the people of former ages were afraid of light and freſh air: whereas the genius of our times is altogether for light ſtair-caſes, fine ſaſh-windows, and lofty ceilings. And in point of compactneſs and uniformity, a houſe after the new way will afford, on the ſame quantity of ground, almoſt double the conveniences which could be had from an old one.

(3.) BUILDING, LAWS RESPECTING. By Act 11. Geo. I. and 4 Geo. III. for the regulation of building within the weekly bills of mortality, and in other places therein ſpecified, party walls are required to be erected of brick or ſtone, which ſhall be two bricks and a half thick in the cellar, two bricks thick upwards to the garret floor, &c. and other limitations are enacted reſpecting the diſpoſition of the timbers, &c. And every building is to be ſurveyed; and the perſon who offends againſt the ſtatute in any of the particulars recited, is liable to a forfeit of 250l. to be levied by warrant of juſtices of the peace. The other principal ſtatutes relating to building are 19 Car. II. c. 3. 22 Car. II. c. 11. 5. Eliz. c. 4. 35 Eliz. c. 6. 6 Ann. c. 31. 7 Ann. c. 17. 33 Geo. II. c. 30. and 6 Geo. III. c. 37.

(4.) BUILDING OF SHIPS. See SHIP-BUILDING.

(1.) * BUILT. *n. ſ.* [from *build.*] 1. The form; the ſtructure.—

As is the *built*, ſo different is the fight;
Their mountain ſhot is on our ſails deſign'd;
Deep in their hulls our deadly bullets light,
And through the yeilding planks a paſſage find.
Dryden.

2. Species of building.—There is hardly any country, which has ſo little ſhipping as Ireland; the reaſon muſt be, the ſcarcity of timber proper for this *built*. *Temple.*

(2.) BUILT, in ſea language, is an epithet applied to ſhips, denoting their peculiar form and ſtructure, and diſtinguiſhing ſome from others of a different claſs or nation. Thus we uſe *frigate-built*, *galley-built*, *Engliſh-built*, *French-built*, &c.

BUILTH. See BEALT.

(1.) BUIS, a ci-devant territory of France, in Dauphiny. It is mountainous but pretty fertile.

(2.) BUIS, a town of France, in the department of Drome, and ci-devant territory of Buis, N. 1.

BUITTLE, a pariſh of Scotland, on the coaſt of Galloway, bordering upon the Solway Frith,

about 8 miles long and 3 broad. The ſoil is dry, kindly, and fertile; and the climate warm and healthy. The ſurface is hilly, but the hills bear the marks of having been formerly plowed to the top; which is ſaid to have happened in the reign of king Robert Bruce, when Scotland was under the papal curſe, his holineſs having forgot to curſe the hills. Oats and barley, turnips and potatoes, are the chief crops, of which a part is exported. Agriculture is much improved within theſe 24 years, and land is of courſe worth above 12 times its former value. The population, in 1793, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Maxwell in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 855, and had decreaſed 44 ſince 1755. The number of ſheep was 752; of horſes 195, and black cattle 2299. The wood is eſtimated at L.10,000. Salmon, cod, flounders, and other fiſh are caught in the Frith. The coaſt abounds with ſhell fiſh, and with thoſe curious ſemi-animals, the ANIMAL FLOWERS, (See that article, § 5.) Birds not common in Scotland have lately frequented the pariſh; particularly the croſsbill, the bull-finch and Bohemian chatterer; and quails are now numerous in it. Within theſe 30 years the ſea has been retreating from this coaſt; ſo much, that many acres, then only barren ſand, are now good paſture land.

BUKARI, a ſmall well-built town of Hungarian Dalmatia, ſituated on the gulf of Bikeriza. Lon. 14. 59. E. Lat. 45. 29. N.

BUKARIZA, GULF OF, lies on the coaſt of Bukari.

(1.) BUKHARIA, a general name for all that vaſt tract of land lying between Karazm and the *great Kobi*, or ſandy deſart bordering on China. It derives its name of *Buckharia* from the Mogul word *Bukhar*, which ſignifies a learned man; it being formerly the cuſtom for thoſe who wanted inſtruction in the languages and ſciences to go into Bukharia. Hence this name appears to have been given to it by the Mogul, who, under Jenghiz Khan, conquered the country. It is nearly the ſame with that called by the Arabs *Mawaralnahr*, which is little elſe than a tranſlation of the word *Tranſoxana*, the name formerly given to thoſe provinces. This region is divided into Great and Little Bukharia. Jenghiz Khan, who conquered both the Bukharias from the Arabs, left the empire of them to his ſon Jakatay Khan. He died A. D. 1242, and left the government of Great Bukharia to his ſon, Kara Kulaku, and of Little Bukharia to another, called Amul Khoja Khan. A long ſucceſſion of khans is enumerated in each of theſe families, but their hiſtory contains no intereſting particulars. They are long ago extinct, and the Kalmuck Tartars are maſters of the country.

(2.) BUKHARIA, GREAT, which is ſuppoſed to comprehend the SOGDIANA and BACTRIANA of the ancient Greeks and Romans with their dependencies, is ſituated between 34° and 46° Lat. N. and between 76° and 92° Lon. E. It is bounded on the N. by the river *Sir*, which ſeparates it from the dominions of the *Eluths* or Kalmucs; the kingdom of *Kaſhgar* in Little Bukharia, on the eaſt; by the dominions of the great Mogul and Perſia on the S.; and by the country of Karazm on the W.: being about [illegible] miles long from W. to E., and 730 broad from S. to N. It is exceedingly rich and fertile; the mountains abound with the richeſt mines; the valleys are of an aſtoniſhing fertility in all ſorts of fruit and pulſe; the fields are covered with graſs the height of a man; the rivers abound with excellent fiſh; and wood, which is ſcarce over all Grand Tartary, is here in great plenty. But all theſe benefits are of little uſe to the Tartar inhabitants, who are naturally ſo lazy, that they would rather rob and kill their neighbours than improve the benefits ſo liberally offered them. This country is divided into three large provinces, *viz.* Bukharia proper, Samarcand, and Balk; each of which generally has its proper khan.

(3.) BUKHARIA, LITTLE, is ſo called, not becauſe it is leſs in dimenſions than the other, for in reality it is larger; but becauſe it is inferior to it as to the number and beauty of its cities; goodneſs of the ſoil, &c. It is ſurrounded by deſarts: it has on the W. Great Bukharia; on the N. the country of the Kalmucs; on the E. that of the Moguls ſubject to China; on the S. Thibet, and the N. W. corner of China. It is ſituated between 93° and 118° Lon. E. and 35° 30′ and 45° of Lat. N. being in length from E. to W. about 850 miles, and in breadth from N. to S. 580: but if its dimenſions be taken according to its ſemicircular courſe from the ſouth to the north-eaſt, its length will be 1200 miles. It is ſufficiently populous and fertile; but the great elevation of its land, joined to the height of the mountains which bound it in ſeveral parts, particularly towards the S. renders it much colder than from its ſituation might be expected. It is very rich in mines of gold and ſilver; but the inhabitants reap little benefit by them, becauſe neither the Eluths nor Kalmucs, who are maſters of the country, nor the Bukharians care to work in them. Nevertheleſs, they gather abundance of gold from the beds of the torrents formed by the melting of the ſnow in the ſpring; and from hence comes all that gold duſt which the Bukhars carry into India, China, and Siberia. Much muſk is likewiſe found in this country; as well as diamonds and all ſorts of precious ſtones; but the inhabitants have not the art of cutting or poliſhing them.

(4.) BUKHARIA PROPER is the moſt weſtern province of Great Bukharia; having on the W. Karazm, on the N. a deſert called by the Arabs *Gaznah*, on the E. Samarcand, and on the S. the river Amu. It is about 390 miles long, and 190 broad. The towns are Bokhara, Zam, Wardanſ, Karakul, Siunjbala, Karſhi, Zarjui, Nerſem, Karmina, &c.

(1.) BUKHARS, the inhabitants both of Great and Little Bukharia. They are in general ſwarthy and black haired; although ſome of them are very fair, handſome, and well made. They do not want politeneſs, and are addicted to commerce; which they carry on with China, the Indies, Perſia, and Ruſſia: but they are ready to over-reach thoſe who deal with them. The habits of the men differ very little from thoſe of the Tartars. Their girdles are like thoſe of the Poles. The garments of the women differ in nothing from thoſe of the men, and are commonly quilted with cotton. They wear bobs in their ears of

inches long; part and twiſt their hair in treſſes, which they lengthen with black ribbands embroidered with gold or ſilver, and with great taſſels of ſilk and ſilver, which hang down to their heels; three other tufts of a ſmaller ſize cover their breaſts. Both ſexes carry about them prayers written by their prieſts, which they keep in a ſmall leathern purſe by way of relics. The girls, and ſome of the women, tinge their nails red with the juice of an herb called by them *kena*: they dry and pulverize it; then mixing it with powdered alum, expoſe it in the air for 24 hours before they uſe it, and the colour laſts a long time. Both ſexes wear cloſe breeches, and boots of Ruſſia leather, very light, and without heels, or leather ſoles; putting on galloches, or high-headed ſlippers, like the Turks, when they go abroad. They wear alſo the ſame ſort of bonnets and covering for the head; only the women ſet off theirs with turkets, ſmall pieces of money, and Chineſe pearls. Wives are diſtinguiſhed from maids by a long piece of linen worn under their bonnets; which folding round the neck, they tie in a knot behind, ſo that one end of it hangs down to the waiſt.

(2.) BUKHARS, HOUSES, CUSTOMS, &c. OF THE. The houſes of the Bukhars are of ſtone, and pretty good; but their moveables conſiſt moſtly of ſome China trunks plated with iron. Upon theſe, in the day time, they ſpread the quilts they have made uſe of at night, and cover them with a cotton carpet of various colours. They have likewiſe a curtain ſprigged with flowers and various figures; alſo a ſort of bedſtead half a yard high, and four yards long, which is hidden in the day time with a carpet. They are very neat about their victuals; which are dreſſed in the maſter's chamber by his ſlaves, whom the Bukhars either take or buy from the Ruſſians, Kalmucs, or other neighbours. For this purpoſe there are in the chamber, according to the largeneſs of the family, ſeveral iron pots, ſet in a kind of range near a chimney. Some have little ovens, made, like the reſt of the walls, with a ſtiff clay or bricks. Their utenſils conſiſt of ſome plates and porringers made of Cagua wood or of China, and ſome copper veſſels. A piece of coloured calico ſerves them inſtead of a table cloth and napkins. They uſe neither chairs nor tables, knives nor forks; but ſit croſs-legged on the ground; and the meat being ſerved up, they pull it to pieces with their fingers. Their ſpoons reſemble our wooden ladles. Their uſual food is minced meats, of which they make pies of the form of a half moon: theſe ſerve for proviſions when the Bukhars go long journeys, eſpecially in winter. They carry them in a bag, having firſt expoſed them to the froſt; and when boiled in water, they make very good broth. Tea is their common drink, of which they have a black ſort prepared with milk, ſalt, and butter; eating bread with it, when they have any.

(3.) BUKHARS, MARRIAGE CEREMONIES OF THE. The Bukhars buy their wives, paying for them more or leſs according to their handſomeneſs. The perſons to be married muſt not ſee or ſpeak to each other from the time of their contract to the day of marriage. This is celebrated with 3 days feaſting, as they do great annual feſtivals. The evening before the wedding, a company of young girls meet at the bride's houſe, and divert themſelves till midnight, playing, dancing, and ſinging. Next morning the gueſts aſſemble, and help her to prepare for the ceremony. Then, notice being given to the bridegroom, he arrives ſoon after, accompanied by 10 or 12 of his relations and friends. Theſe are followed by ſome playing on flutes, and by an *Abm*, (a kind of prieſt,) who ſings, while he beats two little timbrels. The bridegroom then makes a horſe-race; which being ended, he diſtributes the prizes, 6, 8, or 12, in number, according to his ability. They conſiſt of damaſks, ſables, fox ſkins, calico, or the like. The parties do not ſee each other while the marriage ceremony is performing, but anſwer at a diſtance to the queſtions aſked by the prieſt. As ſoon as it is over, the bridegroom returns home with his company; and after dinner carries them to the bride's houſe, and obtains leave to ſpeak to her. This done, he goes back, and returns again in the evening, when he finds her in bed; and in preſence of all the women, lays himſelf down by her in his clothes, but only for a moment. The ſame farce is acted for 3 days ſucceſſively; but the third night he paſſes with her entirely, and the next day carries her home.

(4.) BUKHARS, RELIGIOUS OPINIONS OF THE. Although the prevailing religion throughout all Little Bukharia is the Mahometan, yet all others enjoy a perfect toleration. The Bukhars ſay, that God firſt communicated the koran to mankind by Moſes and the prophets; and afterwards Mahomet explained, and drew a moral from it, which they are obliged to receive and practiſe. They hold Chriſt to be a prophet, but have no notion of his ſufferings. Yet they believe in the reſurrection, but cannot be perſuaded that any mortal ſhall be eternally damned: on the contrary, they believe, that as the dæmons led men into ſin, ſo the puniſhment will fall on them. They believe moreover, that at the laſt day every thing but God will be annihilated; and, conſequently, that all creatures, the devils, angels, and Chriſt himſelf, will die. Likewiſe, that after the reſurrection, all men, excepting a few of the elect, will be purified or chaſtiſed by fire, every one according to his ſins, which will be weighed in the balance. They ſay there will be 8 different paradiſes for the good; and 7 hells, where ſinners are to be purified by fire: that thoſe who will ſuffer moſt, are liars, cheats, and others of that kind: that the elect who do not feel the fire will be choſen from the good; *viz.* one out of 100 men, and one out of 1000 women; which little troop will be carried into one of the paradiſes, where they ſhall enjoy all manner of felicity, till it ſhall pleaſe God to create a new world. It is a ſin, according to them, to ſay, that God is in heaven. God, ſay they, is every where; and therefore it derogates from his omnipreſence to ſay that he is confined to any particular place. They keep an annual faſt of 30 days, from the middle of July to the middle of Auguſt, during which time they taſte nothing all day: but eat twice in the night, at ſun-ſet and midnight; nor do they drink any thing but tea, all ſtrong liquors being forbidden. Whoever tranſgreſſes theſe ordinances is obliged to emancipate his moſt valuable ſlave, or to give an entertainment

ment to 60 people: he is likewiſe to receive 85 ſtrokes on the back with a leathern ſtrap called *dura*. The common people, however, do not obſerve this fact exactly, and workmen are allowed to eat in the day-time. The Bukhars ſay prayers 5 times a-day; before morning, towards noon, afternoon, at ſun-ſet, and in the third hour of the night.

(1.) BUL, in the ancient Hebrew chronology, the 8th month of the eccleſiaſtical, and 2d of the civil year; ſince called MARSHEVAN. It anſwers to our October, and has 29 days.

(2.) BUL, in ichthyology, the flounder.

BULAC, a town of Egypt, ſituated on the E. ſhore of the Nile, about 2 miles W. of Grand Cairo, of which it is the port town, and contains about 4000 families. It is a place of great trade, as all the veſſels going up and down the Nile make ſome ſtay in it. It is alſo at this place that they cut the banks of the river every year, to fill their canals, and overflow and fertilize the neighbouring grounds. Lon. 31. 22. E. Lat. 30. 2. N.

BULÆUS, Cæſar. See BOULAY, N° 2.

BULAFO, a muſical inſtrument, conſiſting of ſeveral pipes of wood tied together with thongs of leather, ſo as to form a ſmall interſtice between each pipe. It is uſed by the negroes of Guinea.

(1.) BULAM, a fertile iſland of Africa at the mouth of the river Gambia, where an attempt has been made to coloniſe the free negroes. See § 2.

(2.) BULAM ASSOCIATION, a philanthropic ſociety in England, inſtituted "with the humane deſign of eſtabliſhing a friendly intercourſe with the natives of Africa, and a trade unpolluted with ſlavery and blood. The undertaking is now poſtponed on account of the war." *Walker's Gaz.*

BULAPATHUM, in botany, the dock. See RUMEX.

BULARCHUS, a Greek painter, who firſt introduced (among the Greeks at leaſt) different colours in the ſame picture. He flouriſhed about A. A. C. 740.

BULATWÆLA, in botany, a name by which ſome authors have called the BETEL.

(1.)* BULB. *n. ſ.* [from *bulbus*, Lat.] A round body, or root.—Take up your early autumnal tulips, and *bulbs*, if you will remove them. *Evelyn's Kalendar.*—If we conſider the *bulb*, or ball of the eye, the exteriour membrane, or coat thereof, is made thick, tough, or ſtrong, that it is a very hard matter to make a rupture in it. *Ray.*

(2.) BULB, in the anatomy of plants. See BOTANY, *Index*. A bulb is defined by Linnæus to be a ſpecies of hybernaculum, produced upon the deſcending caudex or root; conſiſting of ſtipulæ, petioli, the rudiments of the former leaves, and ſcales or bark. To elucidate this definition, it is proper to remark, that every bud contains, in embryo, a plant, in every reſpect ſimilar to the parent plant upon which it is ſeated. Plants therefore are perpetuated in the buds, as well as in the ſeeds; and the ſpecies may be renewed with equal efficacy in either way. The tender rudiments of the future vegetable of which the bud is compoſed, are incloſed, and during winter defended from cold and external injuries, by a hard rind which generally conſiſts of a number of ſcales placed over each other [illegible] faſtened together by means of a tenaceous, reſinous, and frequently odoriferous, ſubſtance. Thus defended the buds remain upon different parts of the mother plant till ſpring; and are, therefore, with propriety, denominated by Linnæus, the *hybernaculum* or winter quarters of the future vegetable. Buds are ſituated either upon the ſtem and branches, or upon the roots: the former are ſtyled *gemmæ*, or buds properly ſo called; but as they ſubſiſt ſeveral years by their roots, may be furniſhed with the other ſpecies of *hybernaculum* called *bulbs*. Trees which are perennial, with a woody and durable trunk, have generally proper buds, but no bulbs. In bulbous plants, as the tulip, onion, or lily, what we generally call the *root*, is in fact a bulb which incloſes and ſecures the embryo or future ſhoot. At the lower part of this bulb may be obſerved a fleſhy knob, whence proceed a number of fibres. This knob, with the fibres attached to and hanging from it, is, properly ſpeaking, the true root; the upper part being only the cradle or nurſery of the future ſtem, which after the bulb has repaired a certain number of times it periſhes; but not till it has produced at its ſides a number of ſmaller bulbs or ſuckers for perpetuating the ſpecies. One part of Linnæus's definition ſtill remains obſcure. The bulb, ſays he, is compoſed of the remains or rudiments of the former leaves of the plant; *e rudimento foliorum præteritorum*. It is eaſy to comprehend that buds contain the rudiments of the future leaves; but how can bulbs be ſaid to contain the rudiments of leaves that, to all appearance, are already periſhed? To explain this, let it be obſerved, that, in the opinion of very eminent botaniſts, the roots of a very great number of perennial herbs, is annually renewed or repaired out of the trunk or ſtalk itſelf; in which ſenſe only, roots are properly ſaid to deſcend. In the perennials alluded to, the baſis of the ſtalk continually, and by inſenſible degrees, deſcends below the ſurface of the earth, and is thus changed into a true root; which root, by the continuance of the ſaid motion of the ſtalk, alſo deſcends; and thus, according to the durableneſs of its ſubſtance, becomes a longer or ſhorter root; the elder or lower part rotting off in proportion as the upper is generated out of the ſtalk. Thus, in brownwort, the baſis of the ſtalk, ſinking down by degrees till it is hid under the ground, becomes the upper part of the root; and continuing ſtill to ſink, the next year becomes the lower part, and the following year rots away. This is exactly what obtains in bulbous roots, as well as in the far greater number of other herbaceous perennials; as arum, valerian, tanſy, ſamphire, primroſe, wood-ſorrel, iris, and others. The immediate viſible cauſe of this deſcent is the ſtring-roots which this kind of trunks frequently put forth; which deſcending themſelves directly into the ground, ſerve like ſo many ropes for pulling the trunk after them. Hence the tuberous roots of iris are ſometimes obſerved to reaſcend a little upon the rotting or fading away of the ſtring-roots which hang at them. In bulbous roots, where the ſtalk and former leaves of the plant are ſunk below, and formed into what is called the *bud*, or wintering of the future vegetable, the radicles, or ſmall fibres that hang from the bulb, are to be conſidered

conſidered as the root; that is, the part which furniſhes nouriſhment to the plant: the ſeveral rinds and ſhells, whereof chiefly the bulb conſiſts, ſucceſſively periſh, and ſhrink up into ſo many dry ſkins; betwixt which, and in their centre, are formed other leaves and ſhells, and thus the bulb is perpetuated. What has been ſaid of the deſcent of roots by the ſinking of the ſtalk, is further confirmed by the appearance of certain roots; as of valerian, plantago major, and devils-bit, in which the lower part appears bitten or chopped off. In theſe the lower part rotting off as the upper deſcends, the living remainder becomes ſtumped, or ſeems bitten. All bulbous roots, ſays Dr Grew in his anatomy of plants, may be conſidered as hermaphrodite roots, or root and trunk both together: for the radicles only are abſolute roots; the bulb actually containing thoſe parts which ſpringing up make the body or leaves of the plant; ſo that it may be regarded as a large bud under ground. Bulbous roots are ſaid to be ſolid, when compoſed of one uniform lump of matter: tunicated, when formed of multitudes of coats ſurrounding one another; ſquamoſe, when compoſed of, or covered with, leſſer flakes; duplicate, when there are only two to each plant; and aggregate, when there is ſuch a congeries of ſuch roots to each plant.

* BULBACEOUS. *adj.* [*bulbaceus*, Lat.] The ſame with *bulbous*. *Diſt.*

BULBINE, a ſynonime of the ANTHERICUM.

BULBOCASTANUM. See BUNIUM.

BULBOCODIUM, MOUNTAIN-SAFFRON: A genus of the monogynia order, in the hexandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 9th order, Spathaceæ. The corolla is funnel-ſhaped, and hexapetalous, with the heels narrow, ſupporting the ſtamina. There are two ſpecies:

1. BULBOCODIUM ALPINUM grows naturally on the Alps, and alſo on Snowdon in Wales. It has a ſmall bulbous root, which ſends forth a few long narrow leaves ſomewhat like thoſe of ſaffron, but narrower. In the middle of theſe the flower comes out, which ſtands on the top of the footſtalk, growing erect, and is ſhaped like thoſe of the crocus, but ſmaller; the footſtalk riſes about 3 inches high, and has 4 or 5 ſhort narrow leaves placed alternately upon it below the flower. It flowers in March, and the ſeeds are ripe in May.

2. BULBOCODIUM VERNUM is a native of Spain, and has a bulbous root ſhaped like thoſe of the ſnow-drop, which ſends out 3 or 4 ſpear-ſhaped concave leaves, between which comes out the flower, ſtanding on a very ſhort footſtalk. The flowers appear about the ſame time with the laſt; at firſt they are of a pale colour, but afterwards change to a whitiſh purple. Both pieces may be propagated by off-ſets at the decay of the flower and leaf every 2d or 3d year; alſo, by ſowing the ſeed in pots in autumn, ſheltering them in a frame from froſt; and the plants will appear in the ſpring, which, at the decay of the leaves, may be taken up for planting in the borders in October, where they will flower the year following.

BULBONACK, a name uſed by ſeveral botaniſts for the LUNARIA, or honeſty.

BULBOSE. See BULB, and next article.

* BULBOUS. *adj.* [from *bulb*.] Containing bulbs; conſiſting of bulbs; being round or roundiſh knobs.—There are of roots, *bulbous* roots, fibrous roots, and hirſute roots. And I take it, in the *bulbous*, the ſap haſteneth moſt to the air and ſun. *Bacon.*—Set up your traps for vermin, eſpecially amongſt your *bulbous* roots. *Evelyn's Kalend.*—Their leaves, after they are ſwelled out, like a *bulbous* root, to make the bottle, bend inward, or come again cloſe to the ſtalk. *Ray on the Creation.*

BULBUS VEPICTORIUS, in the materia medica, the name uſed for the root of the MUSCARI.

BULBY, a town near Stainfleet, Lincolnſhire.

BULCARD, an Engliſh name for the GALCETTA, or *alauda non criſtata*, of Rondeletius; a ſmall ſea fiſh caught among the rocks on the Corniſh and other ſhores.

BULEP, in botany, a name for the willow.

BULEPHORUS, an officer in the court of the eaſtern emperors, called alſo *ſummæ rei rationalis*.

BULEUTÆ, in Grecian antiquity, were magiſtrates anſwering to the decuriones among the Romans. See DECURIO.

BULEY-CASTLE, a town in Weſtmoreland.

BULEY-GRANGE, a village 3 miles N. E. of Stockton, Durham.

BULFINCH, in ornithology. See LOXIA.

BULFORD, a town 3 miles N. of Ambreſbury, Wilts.

BULGA, in old records, a budget; a mail.

BULGAR, a mountain of Natolia, on the coaſt of Caramania.

(1.) BULGARIA, a ſmall province of Turkey in Europe, bounded on the N. by Walachia, on and the E. by the Black Sea, on the S. by Romania Macedonia, and on the W. by Servia. It is very narrow, but 325 miles long on the ſide of the Danube, from Servia till it falls into the Black ſea. It is divided into 4 ſangiacates; Byden, Sardice, Nicopolis, and Siliſtria. The chief towns are of the ſame names, except that of Sardice, which is now called SOPHIA.

(2.) BULGARIA, HISTORY OF. The Bulgarians anciently inhabited the plains of Sarmatia that extended along the banks of the Volga. Thence they migrated, about the middle of the 7th century, in queſt of new ſettlements. A large body of them paſſed the Danube, and took poſſeſſion of the country adjacent to the weſtern coaſt of the Euxine ſea. Several attempts were made by the Romans to diſpoſſeſs and extirpate them: But they defended themſelves with equal reſolution and ſucceſs. Conſtantine III. being defeated and intimidated, concluded an ignominous peace with them, A. D. 678, and purchaſed their friendſhip by the payment of an annual tribute. Juſtinian II. refuſed to comply with theſe diſhonourable terms, and invaded their territories, A. D. 687; but he was defeated, and conſtrained to renew the treaty. War was carried on, almoſt without interruption, between them and the eaſtern emperors, for ſeveral centuries. After a long and doubtful ſtruggle, the Romans prevailed; and the emperor Baſil III. reduced Bulgaria to the form of a province, A. D. 1019. From this time the Bulgarians remained in ſubjection, and were governed by Roman dukes, until the reign of Iſaac Angelus, when they revolted A. D. 1186.

Some

Some time after, Stephen IV. king of Hungary, having defeated the Bulgarians, obliged them to acknowledge him as their ſovereign. His ſucceſſors were ſtyled kings of Hungary and Bulgaria; and this title was tranſmitted, with the kingdom of Hungary, to the houſe of Auſtria. By the aid of the eaſtern emperors they threw off the Hungarian yoke; and, in return, they aſſiſted their ally in an attempt to recover Adrianople, A. D. 1369. Provoked by this combination, Amurath invaded their country; and Bajazet, his ſucceſſor, completed the conqueſt of it, A. D. 1396. Bulgaria ſtill remains a province of the Ottoman empire. The inhabitants are Chriſtians, but ſo extremely ignorant, that they ſeem to know nothing of Chriſtianity, but baptiſm and faſting.

BULGARIAN LANGUAGE, the ſame with the SCLAVONIC, or *Lingua Henetа*.

BULGARIANS, the people of BULGARIA. See § 2.

* *To* BULGE. *v. n.* [It was originally written *bilge; bilge* was the lower part of the ſhip, where it ſwelled out; from *bilig*, Sax. a bladder.] 1. To take in water; to founder.—

Thrice round the ſhip was toſt,
Then *bulg'd* at once, and in the deep was loſt.
Dryden.

2. To jut out.—The ſide, or part of the ſide of a wall, or any timber that *bulges* from its bottom or foundation, is ſaid to batter, or hang over the foundation. *Moxon's Mechanical Exerciſes.*

BULGOLDA LAPIS, the name of the ſtone taken out of the head of an animal in America, called by the natives *bulgoldaf*. It is ſaid to poſſeſs the virtue of the bezoar, as a cordial and reſiſter of poiſons.

BULHAM, a town in the Iſle of Wight.

(1.) * BULIMY. *n. ſ.* [βουλιμια, from βους, an ox, and λιμος, hunger.] An enormous appetite, attended with fainting, and coldneſs of the extremities. *Dict.*

(2.) BULIMY is alſo called *fames canina*, canine appetite. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

BULITHOS, or BULITHUS, } a ſtone found in the gall-bladder, kidneys, or urinary bladder, of an ox. See BOS, N. IV. § xi. 1.

(1.) * BULK. *n. ſ.* [*bulcke*, Dutch, the breaſt, or largeſt part of a man.] 1. Magnitude; of material ſubſtance; maſs.—Againſt theſe forces there were prepared near one hundred ſhips; not ſo great of *bulk* indeed, but of a more nimble motion, and more ſerviceable. *Bacon's war with Spain.*—The Spaniards and Portugueſe have ſhips of great *bulk*, but fitter for the merchant than the man of war; for burden than for battle. *Raleigh.*—Though an animal arrives at its full growth, at a certain age, perhaps it never comes to its full *bulk* till the laſt period of life. *Arbuthnot.* 2. Size; quantity.—Things, or objects, cannot enter into the mind, as they ſubſiſt in themſelves, and by their own natural *bulk*, paſs into the apprehenſion; but they are taken in by their ideas. *South.* 3. The groſs; the majority; the main maſs.—Thoſe very points, in which theſe wiſe men diſagreed from the *bulk* of the people, are points in which they agreed with the received doctrines of our nature. *Addiſon's Freeholder.*—Change in property, through the *bulk* of a nation, makes ſlow marches, and its due power always attends it. *Swift.*—The *bulk* of the debt was leſſened gradually. *Swift.* 4. Main ſtrength.—

He rais'd a ſigh ſo piteous and profound,
That it did ſeem to ſhatter all his *bulk*,
And end his being.

5. The main part of a ſhip's cargo; as, to break *bulk*, is to open the cargo.

(2.) * BULK. *n. ſ.* [from *Hielcke*, Dan. a heap.] A part of a building jutting out.—

Here ſtand behind this *bulk*. Straight will he come:
Wear thy good rapier bare, and put it home.

—The keeper coming up, found Jack with his throat in him; he took down the body, and cut it from the *bulk*, and brought out the rope to the company. *Arbuthnot's Hiſtory of J. Bull.*

(3.) BULK OF A SHIP, the whole content of the hold for the ſtowage of goods.

(1.) * BULKHEAD. *n. ſ.* A partition that croſs a ſhip, with boards, whereby one part is divided from another. *Harris.*

(2.) BULK-HEAD AFORE, the partition between the fore-caſtle and the gratings in the head.

* BULKINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bulky*.] Greatneſs of ſtature, or ſize.—Wheat, or any other grain, will not ſerve inſtead of money, becauſe of its unwieldineſs, and change of its quantity. *Locke.*

BULKINGTON, two villages; 1. in Warwickſ. 4 m. from Coventry: 2. in Wilts. near Pottern.

BULKLEY, N. W. of Cholmondley, Cheſh.

BULKWORTHY, W. of Torrington, Devon.

* BULKY. *adj.* [from *bulk*.] Of great ſtature.—

Lateus, the *bulkieſt* of the double race,
Whom the ſpoil'd arms of ſlain Halefus grac'd.
Dryden.

Huge Telephus, a formidable page,
Cries vengeance; and Oreſtes' *bulky* rage,
Unſatisfy'd with margins cloſely writ,
Foams o'er the covers. *Dryden.*

—The manner of ſea engagements, which was to bore and ſink the enemy's ſhips with the extra, gave *bulky* and high ſhips a great advantage. *Arbuthnot.*

(I.) BULL, Frederick, Eſq; a public ſpirited and diſintereſted patriot, was one of the aldermen of London, and one of the repreſentatives for the city, in 3 ſucceſſive parliaments. He firſt evinced his zeal for the rights of Britons, by the public and active part he took in favour of Mr Wilkes, whoſe cauſe he ſupported, as conſidering it the common cauſe of every Briton, and whom he at the ſame time perſonally aſſiſted, at the expence of many thouſand pounds out of his own private pocket. Nor did he deſiſt from annually making his motion in the Houſe of Commons for the erazement of the minute of Mr Wilkes's expulſion, till he at laſt accompliſhed that object in 1782. In 1774 Mr Bull ſerved the office of ſheriff along with Mr Wilkes, and in 1773 he was elected lord mayor. Upon his firſt election, as member for the city, he ſet an example, which, it is to be wiſhed, were followed by all who are elected to ſuch important offices; by aſſuring his conſtituents, that "he never would aſk or accept of any place, penſion,

title, emolument or gratuity of any kind whatever, from any miniſtry under government, neither for himſelf nor any friend: That the welfare and happineſs of his country ſhould be the only object of his attention, and the inſtructions of his conſtituents the ſole rule of his political conduct." Conſiſtently with theſe profeſſions, (from which he never deviated in the ſmalleſt degree,) he rejected the honour of knighthood, which was offered him in 1782, when he went up, along with ſome other members of the court of aldermen, to preſent the addreſs to the king on his change of miniſtry,—although the new miniſtry were all men of his own political ſentiments, with whom he had uniformly voted in all public matters; particularly reſpecting the rights of the Americans to tax themſelves, the injuſtice of the American war, &c. He was one of the firſt promoters, if not the founder of the Humane Society, and was many years preſident of it. In private life, he was equally reſpectable. The moſt active induſtry and the moſt unbounded liberality, virtues too frequently diſjoined, were in him united. In a word, for ſtrict integrity, for a warm and feeling heart, and for a zealous attachment to the eſſentials of the Britiſh conſtitution, Mr Bull left few equals, none ſuperior, when he died in London, 8 Jan. 1784, aged 79.

(II.) BULL, George, biſhop of St David's was born at Wells, in 1634; and educated at Exeter college, Oxford. His firſt benefice was that of St George's, near Briſtol; whence he roſe ſucceſſively to be rector of Suddington in Glouceſterſhire, prebendary of Glocester, archdeacon of Landaff, and, in 1705, biſhop of St David's. In the time of Cromwell, he adhered ſteadily, to the church of England; and in the reign of James II. preached very ſtrenuouſly againſt the errors of popery. He wrote, 1. A defence of the Nicene faith. 2. Apoſtolical harmony. 3. Primitive apoſtolical tradition; and other works. He died in 1709.

(III.) BULL, John, a celebrated muſician and compoſer, was born in Somerſetſhire about A. D. 1563, and was of the Somerſet family. He was educated under Blitheman. In 1586, he was admitted at Oxford, bachelor of muſic, having practiſed in that faculty 14 years; and in 1592, was created doctor in the univerſity of Cambridge. In 1591, he was appointed organiſt of the queen's chapel. Dr Bull was the firſt Greſham profeſſor of muſic, and was recommended to that ſtation by Q. Elizabeth. But however ſkilful he was in his profeſſion, he was not able to read his lectures in public; and therefore, by a ſpecial proviſion, made A. D. 1597, his lectures were permitted to be in Engliſh. In 1601, he went abroad for the recovery of his health, and travelled incognito into France and Germany; and Wood relates the following anecdote of him while abroad. "Dr Bull hearing of a famous muſician belonging to a cathedral in St Omer's he applied, as a novice, to him, to learn ſomething of his faculty, and to ſee and admire his works. This muſician, after ſome diſcourſe had paſſed between them, conducted Bull to a veſtry or muſic-ſchool joining to the cathedral, and ſhowed him a ſong of 40 parts; and then made a vaunting challenge to any perſon in the world to add one part more to them, ſuppoſing it to be ſo complete and full, that it was impoſſible for any mortal man to correct or add to it. Bull thereupon, deſiring the uſe of pen, ink, and ruled paper, prayed the muſician to lock him up in the ſaid ſchool for 2 or 3 hours; which being done, not without great diſdain by the muſician, Bull, in that time or leſs, added 40 more parts to the ſaid leſſon or ſong. The muſician thereupon being called in, he viewed it, tried it, and retried it; at length he burſt out into an ecſtaſy, and ſwore a great oath, that he who added theſe 40 parts muſt be either the devil or Dr Bull. Whereupon Bull made himſelf known. Afterwards, continuing in thoſe parts for a time, he became ſo much admired, that he was courted to accept of any place of preferment ſuitable to his profeſſion, either within the dominions of the emperor, the king of France, or Spain; but Q. Elizabeth, hearing of theſe tranſactions commanded him home." Dr Ward, in his lives of the Greſham profeſſors, relates, that upon the death of Elizabeth he became chief organiſt to king James, and entertained him and prince Henry with his performance on the organ. He alſo relates, that, in 1613, Bull quitted England and went to reſide in the Netherlands, where he was admitted into the ſervice of the archduke. Wood ſays, that Dr Bull died at Hamburgh: others ſay at Lubeck. The only works of Bull in print are leſſons in the "Parthenia, or the maiden-head of the firſt muſic that ever was printed for the virginals." An anthem of his, is to be found in Bernard's collection of church-muſic. Dr Ward has given a long liſt of compoſitions of Dr Bull in M. S. in the collection of the late Dr Pepuſch, by which it appears that he was equally excellent in vocal and inſtrumental harmony. He was poſſeſſed of a power of execution on the harpſichord far beyond what is generally conceived of the maſters of that time. His leſſons, in the eſtimation of Dr Pepuſch, were ſuperior not only for harmony and contrivance, but for air and modulation, to thoſe of Couperin, Scarlatti, and other modern compoſers for the harpſichord.

(IV.) * BULL. *n. ſ.* [*bulle*, Dutch.] 1. The male of black cattle; the male to a cow.—A gentlewoman, Sir, and a kinſwoman of my maſter's.—Even ſuch kin as the pariſh heifers are to the town *bull*. *Shakeſpeare.*—*Bulls* are more criſp upon the forehead than cows. *Bacon.*—

Beſt age to go to *bull*, or calve, we hold,
Begins at four, and ends at ten years old. *May.*

2. In the ſcriptural ſenſe, an enemy powerful, fierce, and violent.—Many *bulls* have compaſſed me: ſtrong *bulls* of Baſhan have beſet me round. *Pſalms.* 3. One of the twelve ſigns of the zodiack.—

At laſt from Aries rolls the bounteous ſun,
And the bright *Bull* receives him. *Thomſon.*

4. A letter publiſhed by the pope.—A *bull* is letters called apoſtolick by the canoniſts, ſtrengthened with a leaden ſeal, and containing in them the decrees and commandments of the pope or biſhop of Rome. *Ayliffe.*—There was another ſort of ornament wore by the young nobility, called *bulla*, round, or of the figure of a heart, hung about their necks like diamond croſſes. Thoſe *bullæ* came afterwards to be hung to the diplomas of

the emperors and popes, from whence they had the name of *bulls*. *Arbuthnot*.—It was not till after a freſh *bull* of Leo's had declared how inflexible the court of Rome was in the point of abuſes. *Atterbury*. 5. A blunder; a contradiction.—I confeſs it is what the Engliſh call a *bull*, in the expreſſion, though the ſenſe be manifeſt enough. *Pope's Letters*.

(V.) BULL, in aſtronomy. See ASTRONOMY, § 548.

(VI.) * BULL, in compoſition, generally notes the large ſize of any thing, as, *bull-head*, *bulruſh*, *bull trout*; and is therefore only an augmentative ſyllable, without much reference to its original ſignification.

(VII. 1.) BULL, in zoology. See § IV. *def.* 1. and BOS, N. IV. § i—xi.

2. BULL AND BOAR. By the cuſtom of ſome places, the parſon is obliged to keep a bull and a boar for the uſe of his pariſhioners, in conſideration of his having tithes of calves and pigs, &c.

3. BULLS, WILD. See BOS, N. IV. § i, v, vi, vii, 2. ix. xi, 4, 5. The wild bulls, now ſo numerous on the continent of America, are ſaid to have ſprung from one bull and ſeven cows, which were carried thither by ſome of the firſt diſcoverers.

4. BULLS, WILD, HUNTING OF. See BOS, N. IV. § i, vi. BUCCANIERS, § 3. and HUNTING.

(VIII.) BULL, ſignifying a letter, (§ IV. *Def.* 4.) is applied to the letters of princes as well as of the popes. The Bull, however, properly ſpeaking, ſignifies the ſeal, appended to the letter, and which has been made of gold, ſilver, and lead, as well as of wax. Thus,

1. BULL, GOLDEN, an edict, or imperial conſtitution, made by the emperor Charles IV. reputed to be the magna charta, or the fundamental law of the German empire. It is called *golden* becauſe it has a golden ſeal, tied with yellow and red cords of ſilk: upon one ſide is the emperor repreſented ſitting on his throne, and on the other the capitol of Rome. It is alſo called CAROLINE, from Charles IV. Till the publication of the golden bull, the form and ceremony of the election of an emperor were dubious and undetermined, and the number of electors not fixed. This ſolemn edict regulated the functions, rights, privileges, and pre-eminences, of the electors. The original, which is in Latin, on vellum, is preſerved at Frankfort: This ordonnance, containing 30 articles, was approved of by all the princes of the empire, and remains ſtill in force.

2. BULLS, LEADEN, were ſent by the emperors of Conſtantinople to deſpots, patriarchs, and princes; and were alſo uſed by the gran dees of the Imperial court, as well as by the kings of France, Sicily, &c. and by biſhops, patriarchs, and popes. It is to be obſerved, that the leaden bulls of theſe laſt had, on one ſide, the name of the pope or biſhop inſcribed. Polydore Virgil makes pope Stephen III. the firſt who uſed leaden bulls, about 772. But others find inſtances of them as early as Silveſter, Leo. I. and Gregory the Great. The latter popes, beſides their own names, ſtrike the figures of St Peter and St Paul on their bulls; a practice firſt introduced by pope Paſchal II. But why, in theſe bulls, the figure of St Paul is on the right, and that of St Peter on the left ſide, is a queſtion which has occaſioned many conjectures. Perhaps the engraver of the not adverted, that by placing St Peter ſide in the ſeal, he would be thrown left in the impreſſion.

3. BULLS OF THE POPE are diſpatches of his holineſs, from the Roman and ſealed with lead, being written on p by which they are partly diſtinguiſhed See BRIEF, § 5. The pope's bull is a kind lical reſcript, or edict; and is chiefly ters of juſtice or grace. If the form tention of the bull, the lead is hung by cord; if the latter, by a ſilken thread. is impreſſed on one ſide with the heads and St Paul, and on the other with the the pope and the year of his pontificate bull is written in an old, round, Gothic is divided into 5 parts, the narrative of the conception, the clauſe, the date, and lutation, in which the pope ſtyles himſ *ſervorum*, i. e. the ſervant of ſervants. T ſtruments, beſides the lead hanging to the a croſs, with ſome text of ſcripture, or motto, about it. Bulls are granted for the cration of biſhops, the promotion to be and the celebration of jubilees, &c. *Bull Domini*, is a particular bull read every year day of the Lord's ſupper, or Maunday Th in the pope's preſence, containing excommu tions and anathemas againſt heretics, and diſturb or oppoſe the juriſdiction of the After the reading of the bull, the pope down a burning torch, to denote the thun this anathema.

4. BULLS, SILVER, were not in ſo fre uſe, though inſtances of them might be pro

5. BULLS, WAXEN, are ſaid to have be brought into England by the Normans. were in frequent uſe among the Greek emp who thus ſealed letters to their wives, mo and ſons. Of theſe there were two ſorts, vi and green.

(1.) BULLA, in antiquity, a kind of orn much in uſe among the ancient Romans. Whittaker is of opinion, that the Bullæ were ginally formed of leather among all ranks of ple; and it is certain that they continued the laſt among the commonality. He alſo gines, that at firſt the bulla was intended amulet, rather than an ornament; as a pro which, he tells us, that the bullæ were frequ impreſſed with the figure of the ſexual parts. univerſally aſſerted by the critics, that the b were made hollow for the reception of an amu but this, Mr Whittaker contradicts, from th gure of a golden one lately found at Manche which had no aperture whereby an amulet have been introduced. Pliny refers the or of the bulla to the elder Tarquin, who gav with the prætexta to his ſon, becauſe, at the of 14, he had, with his own hand, killed an e my; and in imitation of him it was afterw aſſumed by other patricians. Others affirm, t the bulla was given by that king to the ſons o the patricians who had born civil offices. Laſ others allege, that Romulus firſt introduced t the bulla, and gave it to Tullus Hoſtilius,

...ild born of the rape of the Sabines. As to ...rm of the bullæ, Mr Whittaker informs us, ...rere originally made in the ſhape of hearts, ...h they did not always retain that form. As ...ealth of the ſtate and the riches of indivi... increaſed, the young patrician diſtinguiſhed ...f by a bulla of gold, while the plebeians ...he amulets of their anceſtors. The figure ...e heart then became ſo generally round, ...even have the impreſſion of an heart upon ... that there are not many of the original ... to be found in the cabinets of the curious. ...orm is naturally varied from a complete ... to that of a ſegment; and this was the ſhape ...abovementioned bulla found at Mancheſter. ...the youths arrived at 15 years of age, they ...p their bullæ about the necks of their gods ... The bullæ were alſo not only hung about ...cks of young men, but even of horſes. They ...likewiſe ſometimes hung upon ſtatues; ...ee the plurale *ſtatuæ bullatæ*. Bulla was alſo ...nomination given to divers other metalline ...ats made after the ſame form; and in this *bullæ* ſeems to include all gold and ſilver or... of a roundiſh form, whether worn on ...abits of men, the trappings of horſes, or the ... Such were thoſe decorations uſed by the ...ts on their doors and belts. The bullæ of ... were a kind of large headed nails faſtened ... doors of the rich, and kept bright with ...care. The doors of temples were ſometimes ...ed with golden bullæ. Mr Bandelot takes ...llæ worn by ſoldiers on their belts to be ...ing more than mere ornaments. They ... to have been conſidered as preſervations ... gers and diſeaſes, and even means of ac... glory, and other advantages. The like ...ſtitution may be extended to the bull ona doors, ...y were probably placed there as a ſecurity to ...ſtom being broken or violated.

... BULLA denoted alſo a table hung up in the ... courts, to diſtinguiſh which days were faſti, ... nefaſti; anſwering in ſome meaſure to ...ſt calendar.

... BULLA, or DIPPER, in zoology, a genus ... belonging to the order of vermes teſtaceæ. It is ...ſmall of the ſnail kind: the ſhell conſiſts of ... ſingle, convoluted, and without any prickles; ... aperture is narrowiſh, oblong, longitudinal, ...entire at the baſe; the colomella is ſmooth ...oblique. There are 23 ſpecies; 4 of which ... in the Britiſh ſeas; the reſt are chiefly na... of the Aſiatic and Atlantic oceans.

(1.) * BULLACE. *n. ſ.* A wild ſour plum.—In ...tober and the beginning of November, come ...rices, medlars, *bullaces*; roſes cut or removed, ...come late; holyoaks and ſuch like. *Bacon.*

(2.) BULLACE TREE, in botany. See CHRYSO...TILUM and PRUNUS.

BULLARII, in the court of Rome, the makers ...drawers of BULLS or conſtitutions.

BULLARY, *bullarium*, a collection of papal ... A general *bullary* of all the papal conſtitu... ions, from Gregory VII. to Sixtus V. was compiled ...y order of pope Sixtus V. in 1586; ſince which ...as been publiſhed a great *bullary*, by Laert. Che... ubin, containing the bulls of all the popes from ...eo in 440, to Paul V. in 1559; ſince continued by Ang. Cherubin to 1644, and by Ang. a Lan... tuſca and Jo. Paulus to 1676; and laſtly, by an anonymous editor to the time of Benedict XIII. under the title of *Bullarium magnum Romanum*. We have the ſame digeſted in a new method by Bouchardus; a commentary on it begun by Vinc. Petra, and a ſummary of it by Novarius.

BULLATED, *adj. obſ.* Bubbling; boiling.

* BULL-BAITING. *n. ſ.* [from *bull* and *bait*.] The ſport of beating bulls with dogs.—What am I the wiſer for knowing that Trajan was in the 5th year of his tribuneſhip, when he entertained the people with a horſe-race or *bull-baiting*? *Addiſ.*

* BULL-BEE. See BULL-FLY.

* BULL-BEEF. *n. ſ.* [from *bull* and *beef*.] Coarſe beef; the fleſh of bulls.—They want their porridge and their fat *bull-beeves*. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BULL-BEGGAR. *n. ſ.* [This word probably came from the inſolence of thoſe who begged, or raiſed money by the pope's bull.] Something terrible; ſomething to frighten children with.—Theſe Fulminations from the Vatican were turned into ridicule; and, as they were called *bull-beggars*, they were uſed as words of ſcorn and contempt. *Ayliffe.*

* BULL-CALF. *n. ſ.* [from *bull* and *calf*.] A he-calf; uſed for a ſtupid fellow: a term of reproach.—And Falſtaff, you carried your guts away as nimbly, and roared for mercy, and ſtill ran and roared, as ever I heard a *bull calf*. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BULL-DOG. *n. ſ.* [from *bull* and *dog*.] A dog of a particular form, remarkable for his courage. He is uſed in baiting the bull; and this ſpecies is ſo peculiar to Britain, that they are ſaid to degenerate when they are carried to other countries.—All the harmleſs part of him is that of a *bull-dog*; they are tame no longer than they are not offended. *Addiſon.*

BULLEN, Anne. See BOLEYN.

BULLENGER, in old ſtatutes, a boat or a ſmall ſhip.

(1.) BULLERS BUCHAN, a village of Buchan on the coaſt of Aberdeenſhire, in the pariſh of Cruden, between Buchan-Neſs and Peterhead, chiefly inhabited by fiſhermen.

(2.) BULLERS BUCHAN, THE POT OF, or the BOILERS OF BUCHAN, a large oval cavity in the rocks 150 feet deep, round which there is a foot-path. Boats ſail into it from the ſea, under a natural arch, reſembling a large Gothic window. Near this, there is a vaſt inſulated rock, divided by a narrow and very deep chaſm from the land. About the middle of this rock, many feet above the level of the water, there is a large triangular aperture, through which the waves, when agitated, ruſh with tremendous noiſe.

* BULLET. *n. ſ.* [*boulet*, French.] A round ball of metal, uſually ſhot out of guns.—

As when the deviliſh iron engine wrought
In deepeſt hell, and fram'd by furies ſkill,
With windy nitre and quick ſulphur fraught,
And rammed with *bullet* round, ordain'd to kill.
Spenſer.

—Giaffer, their leader, deſperately fighting amongſt the foremoſt of the janizaries, was at once ſhot with two *bullets*, and ſlain. *Knolles.*—

And as they built, ſo different is the fight;
Their mounting ſhot is on our tails deſign'd:

Deep in their hulls our deadly *bullets* light,
And through the yielding planks a paſſage find.
Dryden.

BULLET-BORE is a ſteel ſhank, having a globe at one end, wherewith to bore the inſide of a bullet-mould clean, of the ſize intended.

BULLET IRON, a denomination given by ſome to Spaniſh or Swediſh bars of iron.

BULLET-MOULDS, iron moulds for caſting bullets. They conſiſt of two concave hemiſpheres, with a hand e whereby to hold them; and between them is a hole, called *the gate*, to pour in the melted metal. The chaps or hemiſpheres of bullet-moulds are firſt punched, being blood-red hot, with a round ended punch, of the ſhape and nearly of the ſize of the intended bullets. To cleanſe the inſides, a BULLET-BORE is uſed.

BULL-EYED, *adj.* having large eyes. *Aſh.*

BULLEYN, William, a learned phyſician and botaniſt, born in the iſle of Ely, in the former part of the reign of Henry VIII. and educated at Cambridge. Botany being his favourite ſtudy, he travelled through various parts of England, Scotland, and Germany, chiefly with an intention to improve his knowledge in that ſcience. In the reign of Edward VI. or Q. Mary, Mr Bulleyn appears, from his remarks on the natural productions of that country, to have reſided at Norwich, or near it, and to have ſpent ſome time at Bloxhall in Suffolk; but he afterwards removed into the north, and ſettled at Durham, where he practiſed phyſic with reputation. His great patron at this time was Sir Thomas Hilton, knight baron of Hilton, who was governor of Tinmouth caſtle in the reign of Philip and Mary. In 1560, he came to London, and, ſoon after his arrival, was accuſed by William Hilton of Bidick, of having murdered his brother Sir Thomas, our author's friend and patron. He was arraigned before the duke of Norfolk, and honourably acquitted. This Hilton afterwards hired ſome villains to aſſaſſinate the doctor; but this attempt proving ineffectual, he had him arreſted on an action for debt, and he remained for a long time in priſon. During this confinement, Dr Bulleyn compoſed ſeveral of thoſe works which raiſed his reputation as a medical writer. He died in January 1576, and was buried in St Giles's Cripplegate, in the ſame grave with his brother the dit e, who died 13 years before, and in which John Fox the martyrologiſt was interred 11 years after. Dr Bulleyn appears from his writings to have been well acquainted with the works of the ancient Greek, Roman, and Arabian phyſicians. He was a man of genius and fertile imagination, and his works are by no means barren of entertainment, though his practice is obſolete. He wrote 1. The government of health, 1559, 8vo. 2. A regimen againſt the pleuriſy, 8vo. London, 1562. 3. Bulleyn's bulwark of defence againſt all ſickneſs, ſoreſnes and wounds that COOC daily aſſault mankinde, London, 1562, folio. 4. A dialogue both pleaſant and pietifull, wherein is a goodlie regimen againſt the fever peſtilence, with a conſolation and comfort againſt death. Lond. 1564-9. 8vo.

BULL-FEAST. See BULL-FIGHTING, § 2.

BULL-FIGHT. *n. ſ.* See next article.

(1.) BULL-FIGHTING, a ſport or exerciſe much in vogue among the Spaniards and Portugueſe, conſiſting in a kind of combat of a cavalier or torreadore againſt a wild bull, either on foot or on horſeback, by riding at him with a lance. The Spaniards have bull-fights, i. e. feaſts attended with ſhows, in honour of St John, the Virgin Mary, &c. This ſport the Spaniards received from the Moors, among whom it was celebrated with great eclat. Some think that the Moors might have received the cuſtom from the Romans, and they from the Greeks. Dr Plot is of opinion, that the Ταυροκαθαψιων πομπη among the Theſſalians, who firſt inſtituted this game, and of whom Julius Cæſar learned and brought it to Rome, were the origin both of the Spaniſh and Portugueſe bull-fighting, and of the Engliſh bull-running. This practice was prohibited by Pope Pius V. under pain of excommunication incurred *ipſo facto*. But ſucceeding popes have granted ſeveral mitigations in behalf of the torreadores.

(2.) BULL-FIGHTING, ROMAN. The following account of a bull-feaſt, in the Coliſeum at Rome, in 1332, extracted from Muratori by Mr Gibbon, may give ſome idea of the pomp, the ceremonies, and the danger which attended theſe exhibitions. "A general proclamation as far as Rimini and Ravenna invited the nobles to exerciſe their ſkill and courage in this perilous adventure. The Roman ladies were marſhalled in 3 ſquadrons, and ſeated in 3 balconies, which on this day, (the 3d Sept.) were lined with ſcarlet cloth. The fair Jacova di Rovere led the matrons from beyond the Tiber, a pure and native race, who ſtill repreſent the features and character of antiquity. The remainder of the city was divided between the Colonna and Urſini families: the two factions were proud of the number and beauty of their female bands: the charms of Savella Urſini are mentioned with praiſe; and the Colonna regretted the abſence of the youngeſt of their houſe, who had ſprained her ancle in the garden of Nero's tower. The lots of the champions were drawn by a reſpectable citizen; and they deſcended into the *arena*, or pit, to encounter the wild bulls, on foot as it ſhould ſeem, with a ſingle ſpear. Amidſt the crowd, our annaliſt has ſelected the names, colours, and devices of twenty of the moſt conſpicuous knights. Several of the names are the moſt illuſtrious of Rome and the eccleſiaſtical ſtate; Malateſta, Polenta, della Valle, Cafarello, Savelli, Cappoccio, Conti, Annibaldi, Altieri, Corſi. The colours were adapted to their taſte and ſituation; and the devices, expreſſive of hope or deſpair, breathed the ſpirit of gallantry and arms. "I am alone, like the youngeſt of the Horatii," the confidence of an intrepid ſtranger; "I live diſconſolate," a weeping widower: "I burn under the aſhes," a diſcreet lover: "I adore Lavinia or Lucretia," the ambiguous declaration of a modern paſſion: "My faith is as pure," the motto of a white livery: "Who is ſtronger than myſelf?" of a lion's hide. "If I am drowned in blood, what a pleaſant death!" the wiſh of ferocious courage. The pride or prudence of the Urſini reſtrained them from the field, which was occupied by 3 of their hereditary rivals, whoſe inſcriptions denoted the lofty greatneſs of the Colonna name: "Though

Lord,

ıd, I am ſtrong :" "Strong as I am great :" If I fall (addreſſing himſelf to the ſpectators) you ll with me :"—intimating (ſays the writer), that hile the other families were the ſubjects of the atican, they alone were the ſupporters of the apitol. The combats of the amphitheatre were ery dangerous and bloody. Every champion ſucceſſively encountered a wild bull; and the victory ay be aſcribed to the quadrupeds, ſince no more an 11 were left on the field, with the loſs of 9 ounded and 18 killed on the ſide of their adverries. Some of the nobleſt families might mourn; ut the pomp of the funerals, in the churches of t John Lateran and St Maria Maggiore, afforded ſecond holiday to the people." It was not in uch conflicts that the blood of the Romans ſhould ave been ſhed; yet in blaming their raſhneſs, we re compelled to applaud their gallantry; and the olunteers, who diſplay their magnificence and iſk their lives under the balconies of the fair, exite a more generous ſympathy than the thouſands f captives and malefactors who were reluctantly ragged to the ſcene of ſlaughter."

(g) BULL-FIGHTING, SPANISH. A ſtriking ſhe of barbarity in the Spaniſh manners is the xceſſive attachment of that nation to bull fights, ſpectacle which ſhocks the delicacy of every ther people in Europe. Many Spaniards conder this practice as the ſure means of preſerving hat energy by which they are characteriſed, and f habituating them to violent emotions, which re terrible only to timid minds. But it ſeems ifficult to comprehend what relation there is beween bravery, and a ſpectacle where the aſſiſtnts *now* run no danger; where the actors prove, y the few accidents which befal them, that theirs as nothing in it very intereſting; and where the nhappy victims meet only with certain death, as he reward of their vigour and courage. The ull-fights are very expenſive; but they bring reat gain to the undertakers. The worſt places oſt 2 or 4 rials, according as they are in the ſun r in the ſhade. The price of the higheſt is a ollar. When the price of the horſes and bulls, nd the wages of the TORREADORES, have been aid out of this money, the reſt is generally ppropriated to pious foundations: at Madrid it orms one of the principal funds of the hoſpital. t is only during ſummer that theſe combats are xhibited, becauſe the ſeaſon then permits the pectators to ſit in the open air, and becauſe the ulls are then moſt vigorous. Thoſe which are f the beſt breed are condemned to this kind of ſarifice; and conniſſeurs are ſo well acquainted with heir diſtinguiſhing marks, that as ſoon as a bull appears upon the arena, they can mention the place where he was reared. This arena is a kind of circus ſurrounded by about a dozen of ſeats, riſing one above another; the higheſt of which only is covered. The boxes occupy the lower part of the edifice. In cities which have no place particularly ſet apart for theſe combats, the principal ſquare is converted into a theatre. The balconies of the houſes are widened, ſo as to project over the ſtreets which end there. The ſpectacle commences by a kind of proceſſion around the ſquare, in which appear, on horſeback and on foot, the combatants who are to attack the fierce animal; after which two alguazils, dreſſed in perukes and black robes, advance with great gravity on horſeback; who aſk from the preſident of the entertainment an order for it to commence. A ſignal is immediately given; and the animal, which was before ſhut up in a kind of hovel with a door opening into the ſquare, ſoon makes his appearance. The alguazils haſten to retire, and their fright is a prelude to the cruel pleaſure which the ſpectators are about to enjoy. The bull is received with loud ſhouts, and almoſt ſtunned by the noiſy expreſſions of their joy. He has to contend firſt againſt the picadores, combatants on horſeback, who, dreſſed according to the ancient Spaniſh manner, and as it were fixed to their ſaddles, wait for him, each being armed with a long lance. This exerciſe, which requires ſtrength, courage, and dexterity, is not conſidered as diſgraceful. Formerly the greateſt lords did not diſdain to practiſe it; even at preſent ſome of the hidalgos ſolicit the honour of fighting the bull on horſeback. The picadores open the ſcene. It often happens that the bull, without being provoked, darts upon them, and every body entertains a favourable opinion of his courage. If, notwithſtanding the ſharp pointed weapon which defends his attack, he returns immediately to the charge, their ſhouts are redoubled, as their joy is converted into enthuſiaſm; but if the bull, ſtruck with terror, appears pacific, and avoids his perſecutors, by walking round the ſquare in a timid manner, he is hooted at and hiſſed by the whole ſpectators, and all thoſe near whom he paſſes load him with blows and reproaches. If nothing can awaken his courage, he is judged unworthy of being tormented by *men*; the cry of *perros*, *perros*, brings forth new enemies againſt him, and large dogs are let looſe upon him, which ſeize him by the neck and ears in a furious manner. The animal then finds the uſe of thoſe weapons with which nature has furniſhed him; he toſſes the dogs into the air, who fall down ſtunned, and ſometimes mangled; they often recover, renew the combat, and generally finiſh by overcoming their adverſary, who thus periſhes ignobly. If, on the other hand, he preſents himſelf with a good grace, he runs a longer and nobler, but much more painful career. The firſt act of the tragedy belongs to the combatants on horſeback; this is the moſt bloody of all the ſcenes, and the moſt diſguſting. The irritated animal braves the pointed ſteel which makes deep wounds in his neck, attacks with fury the innocent horſe who carries his enemy, rips up his ſides and overturns him together with his rider. The latter, then diſmounted and diſarmed, would be expoſed to imminent danger, did not combatants on foot, called CHULOS, come to divert the bull's attention, and to provoke him, by ſhaking before him different pieces of cloth of various colours. It is, however, at their own riſk that they thus ſave the diſmounted horſeman; for the bull ſometimes purſues them, and they have then need for all their agility. They often eſcape from him by letting fall the piece of ſtuff which was their only arms, and againſt which the deceived animal expends all his fury. Sometimes the combatant has no other reſource but to throw himſelf ſpeedily over a barrier, ſix feet high, which incloſes the

interior

interior part of the arena. In ſome places this barrier is double, and the intermediate ſpace forms a kind of circular gallery, behind which the purſued torreadore is in ſafety. But when the barrier is ſingle, the bull attempts to jump over it, and often ſucceeds. The neareſt of the ſpectators are then in the greateſt conſternation; their haſte to get out of the way, and to crowd to the upper benches, becomes often more fatal to them than even the fury of the bull, who, ſtumbling at every ſtep, thinks rather of his own ſafety than of revenge, and beſides ſoon falls under the blows which are given him from all quarters. Except in ſuch caſes, which are very rare, he immediately returns. His adverſary recovered has had time to get up; he immediately remounts his horſe, provided he is not killed or rendered unfit for ſervice, and the attack commences; but he is often obliged to change his horſe ſeveral times. Expreſſions cannot then be found to celebrate theſe acts of proweſs, which for ſeveral days become the favourite topic of converſation. The horſes, very affecting models of patience, courage, and docility, may be ſeen trading under their feet their own bloody entrails, which drop from their ſides half torn open, and yet obeying, for ſome time after, the hand which conducts them to new tortures. Spectators of delicacy are then filled with diſguſt, which converts their pleaſure into pain. A new act is however preparing, which reconciles them to the entertainment. As ſoon as the bull has been ſufficiently tormented by the combatants on horſeback, they retire and leave him to be irritated by thoſe on foot. The latter, who are called *banderilleros*, go before the animal; and the moment he darts upon them they plunge into his neck, two by two, a kind of darts called *banderillas*, the points of which are hooked, and which are ornamented with ſmall ſtreamers made of coloured paper. The fury of the bull is now redoubled; he roars and toſſes his head, while his vain efforts ſerve only to increaſe the pain of his wounds. This laſt ſcene calls forth all the agility of his adverſaries. The ſpectators at firſt tremble for them when they behold them braving ſo near the horns of this formidable animal; but their hands well exerciſed, aim their blows ſo ſkilfully, and they avoid the danger ſo nimbly, that after having ſeen them a few times, one neither pities nor admires them, and their addreſs and dexterity ſeem only to be a ſmall epiſode of the tragedy. When the vigour of the bull appears to be almoſt exhauſted; when his blood, iſſuing from 20 wounds, ſtreams along his neck and ſides; and when the people, tired of one object, demand another victim; the preſident of the entertainment gives the ſignal of death, which is announced by the ſound of trumpets. The matador then advances, and all the reſt quit the arena; with one hand he holds a long dagger, and with the other a kind of flag, which he waves backwards and forwards before his adverſary. They both ſtop and gaze at one another; and while the agility of the matador deceives the impetuoſity of the bull, the pleaſure of the ſpectators, which was for ſome time ſuſpended, is again awakened into life.—Sometimes [illegible]ns motionleſs, throws up the earth [illegible] appears as if meditating revenge. The bull in this condition, and the matador who calculates his motions and divines his projects, form a group which an able pencil might not diſdain to delineate. The matador at length gives the mortal blow; and if the animal immediately falls, a thouſand voices proclaim with loud ſhouts the triumph of the conqueror; but if the blow is not deciſive, if the bull ſurvives and ſeeks ſtill to brave the fatal ſteel, murmurs ſucceed to applauſe, and the matador, whoſe glory was about to be raiſed to the ſkies, is conſidered only as an unſkilful butcher. He endeavours to be ſoon revenged, and to diſarm his judges of their ſeverity. His zeal ſometimes degenerates into blind fury, and his partizans tremble for the conſequences of his imprudence. He at length directs his blow better. The animal ſtaggers and falls, while his conqueror is intoxicated with the applauſes of the people. Three mules, ornamented with bells and ſtreamers, come to terminate the tragedy. A rope is tied around the bull's horns, which have betrayed his valour, and the brave animal is dragged ignominiouſly from the arena which he has honoured, and leaves only the traces of his blood and the remembrance of his exploits, which are ſoon effaced on the appearance of his ſucceſſor. On each of the days ſet apart for theſe entertainments, ſix are thus ſacrificed in the morning, and 12 in the afternoon, at leaſt in Madrid. The laſt are given excluſively to the matador, who, without the aſſiſtance of the picadores, exerts his ingenuity to vary the pleaſure of the ſpectators. Sometimes he cauſes them to be combated by ſome intrepid ſtranger, who attacks them mounted on the back of another bull, and ſometimes he matches them with a bear: this laſt method is generally deſtined for the pleaſure of the populace. The points of the bull's horns are concealed by ſomething wrapped round them, which breaks their force. The animal, which in this ſtate is called EMBOLADO, has power neither to pierce nor to tear his antagoniſt. The amateurs then deſcend in great numbers to torment him, each after his own manner, and often expiate this cruel pleaſure by violent contuſions; but the bull always falls at length under the ſtroke of the matador. The few ſpectators who are not infected by the general madneſs for this ſport, regret that thoſe wretched animals do not, at leaſt, purchaſe their lives at the expence of ſo many torments and ſo many efforts of courage; they would willingly aſſiſt them to eſcape from their perſecutors. In the minds of ſuch ſpectators diſguſt ſucceeds compaſſion, and ſtately ſucceeds diſguſt. Such a ſeries of uniform ſcenes makes that intereſt become languid, which this ſpectacle, on its commencement, ſeemed to promiſe. The Spaniſh government are ſenſible of the moral and political inconveniences ariſing from this ſpecies of barbarity. They have long ſince perceived, that among a people whom they wiſh to encourage to labour, it is the cauſe of much diſorder and diſſipation: and that it hurts agriculture, by deſtroying a great number of robuſt animals, which might be uſefully employed: but they are obliged to manage with caution a taſte which it might be dangerous to attempt to abolish precipitately. They are, however, far from encouraging

ing it. The court itſelf formerly reckoned bull fights among the number of its feſtivals, which were given at certain periods. The *Plaza-Mayor* was the theatre of them, and the king and the royal family honoured them with their preſence. The guards preſided there in good order. His halberdiers formed the interior circle of the ſcene: and their long weapons, held out in a defenſive poſture, were the only barrier which they oppoſed againſt the dangerous caprices of the bull. Thoſe entertainments, which, by way of excellence, were called *Fieſtas Reales*, are become very rare. Charles III. who endeavoured to poliſh the nation, and to direct their attention to uſeful objects, was very deſirous of deſtroying a taſte in which he ſaw nothing but inconveniences; but he was too wiſe to employ violent means for that purpoſe. He, however, confined the number of bull-fights to thoſe, the profits of which were appoſed to the ſupport of ſome charitable inſtitution, with an intention of ſubſtituting for theſe other funds afterwards. Bull-fights, by theſe means being rendered leſs frequent, will, perhaps, gradually loſe their attractions, until more favourable circumſtances permit the entire abolition of them. Nay, if we can credit news-paper report, they were actually aboliſhed in the year 1796.

* BULL-FINCH. *n. ſ.* [*rubicilla.*] A ſmall bird, that has neither ſong nor whiſtle of its own, yet is very apt to learn, if taught by the mouth. *Philips's World of Words.*—

The blackbird whiſtles from the thorny brake,
The mellow *bull-finch* anſwers from the groves.
Thomſon.

* BULL-FLY. BULL-BEE. *n. ſ.* An inſect.
Philips's World of Words.

BULL-FROG, in zoology. See RANA, N° 3.

(1.) * BULL-HEAD. *n. ſ.* [from *bull* and *head.*] 1. A ſtupid fellow; a blockhead. 2. The name of a fiſh.—The miller's thumb, or *bull-head*, is a fiſh of no pleaſing ſhape; it has a head big and fat, much greater than ſuitable to its body; a mouth very wide, and uſually gaping; he is without teeth, but his lips are very rough, much like a file; he hath two fins near to his gills, which are roundiſh or creſted; two fins under his belly, and on the back, one below the vent, and the fin of his tail is round. Nature hath painted the body of this fiſh with whitiſh, blackiſh, browniſh ſpots. They are uſually full of ſpawn all the ſummer, which ſwells their vents in the form of a dug. The *bull-head* begins to ſpawn in April; in winter we know no more what becomes of them than of bats or ſwallows. *Walton.* 3. A little black water vermin. *Philip's World of Words.*

(2.) BULL-HEAD, in ichthyology. See COTTUS.

BULLIALDUS, Iſmael, an eminent aſtronomer, born at Laon, in the iſle of France, in 1605. He travelled in his youth for improvement; and afterwards publiſhed ſeveral works, among which are, 1. *De natura lucis.* 2. *Philolaus.* 3. *Aſtronomia philolaica, opus novum, in quo motus planetarum per novam et veram hypotheſin demonſtrantur.* 4. *Aſtronomiæ philolaicæ fundamenta clarius explicata et aſſerta, adverſus Sethi Wardi impugnationem.* He alſo wrote a piece or two upon Geometry and Arithmetic. In 1661, he paid Hevelius a viſit at Dantzic, for the ſake of ſeeing his optical and aſtronomical apparatus. Afterwards he became a preſbyter at Paris, and died there in 1694.

BULLIMENTA is uſed by ſome chemiſts for the waſhings and ſcourings of gold and ſilver veſſels, in proper liquors, to render them brighter.

BULLIMONG, or BULLIMONY, } a mixture of ſeveral ſorts of grain, as oats, peaſe, and vetches, called alſo *maſlin*, or *mong-corn.*

BULLINGBROKE. See BOLINGBROKE, N° 2.

BULLINGBROOK, a village in Lincolnſhire, 4 miles S. E. of Horncaſtle.

BULLINGER, Henry, born at Bremgarten, in Switzerland, in 1504, was an eminent Zuinglian miniſter, a great ſupporter of the reformation, and employed in many eccleſiaſtical negociations. He compoſed many books, one againſt Luther in particular. He died in 1575.

BULLINGHAM, LOWER, BULLINGHAM, UPPER, } 2 Engliſh villages S. E. of Hereford.

BULLINGS, 6 miles E. of Lincoln.

BULLINGTON, 3 villages; 1. in Berkſhire, between Wallingford and Oxford: 2. in Herefordſhire, 2 miles W. of Kinnerſley: and, 3. in Lincolnſhire, 2 miles W. of Wragby.

(1.) * BULLION. *n. ſ.* [*billon*, Fr.] Gold or ſilver in the lump, unwrought, uncoined.—The balance of trade muſt of neceſſity be returned in coin or *bullion. Bacon.*—

A ſecond multitude,
With wond'rous art, found out the maſſy ore,
Severing each kind, and ſcumm'd the *bullion* droſs. *Milton.*

—*Bullion* is ſilver whoſe workmanſhip has no value. And thus foreign coin hath no value here for its ſtamp, and our coin is *bullion* in foreign dominions. *Locke.*—In every veſſel there is ſtowage for immenſe treaſures, when the cargo is pure *bullion. Addiſon.*

(2.) BULLION is ſo called, either when ſmelted from the native ore, and not perfectly refined, but melted down in bars or ingots, or in any unwrought body, of any degree of fineneſs. Goldſmiths apply the term to old gold and ſilver in general. Theſe metals, when pure, are ſo ſoft and flexible, that they cannot well be brought into any faſhion for uſe, without being firſt reduced and hardened with an alloy of ſome other baſer metal. To prevent thoſe abuſes which ſome might commit, by ſuch alloys, the legiſlators of civilized countries have ordained, that there ſhall be no more than a certain proportion of a baſer metal to a particular quantity of pure gold or ſilver, in order to make them of the fineneſs of what is called the ſtandard gold or ſilver of ſuch a country. According to the laws of England, all ſorts of wrought plate in general ought to be made to the legal ſtandard; and the price of our ſtandard gold and ſilver is the common rule whereby to ſet a value on their bullion, whether it be in ingots, bars, duſt, or foreign ſpecie. Hence the value of bullion, cannot be exactly known, without being firſt eſſayed, that the exact quantity of pure metal therein contained may be determined, and conſequently whether it be above or below the ſtandard. Silver and gold, whether coined or uncoined, (though uſed for a common meaſure of other things,) are no leſs a commodity than wine, tobacco,

tobacco, or cloth; and may, in many cases, be exported as much to the national advantage as any other commodity.

(1.) * BULLITION. *n. ſ.* [from *bullio*, Lat.] The act or ſtate of boiling.—There is to be obſerved in theſe diſſolutions, which will not eaſily incorporate, what the effects are, as the *bullition*, the precipitation to the bottom, the ejaculation towards the top, the ſuſpenſion in the midſt, and the like. *Bacon.*

(2.) BULLITION is alſo uſed for the effect ariſing upon the mixture of different liquors, which often is a quantity of bubbles, or froth.

(1.) * BULLOCK. *n. ſ.* [from *bull.*] A young bull.—Why, that's ſpoken like an honeſt drover: ſo they ſell *bullocks*. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Some drive the herds; here the fierce *bullock* ſcorns
Th' appointed way, and runs with threat'ning horns. *Cowley.*

—Until the tranſportation of cattle into England was prohibited, the quickeſt trade of ready money here was driven by the ſale of young *bullocks*. *Temple.*

(2.) BULLOCK. See BOS, N° IV. § xi. 1. CALF, and OX.

(3.) BULLOCK, in geography, a town of Ireland, 6 miles from Dublin.

BULLOCK'S EYE, in architecture, a ſmall circular ſky-light.

BULLOGNE. See BOLOGNE.

BULL-RUNNING, denotes a feudal cuſtom obtaining in the honour of Tutbury in Staffordſhire; where, anciently, on the day of the aſſumption of our Lady, a bull is turned looſe by the lord to the minſtrels; who, if they can catch him before he paſſes the river Dove, are to have him for their own, or, in lieu thereof, to receive each 40 pence; in conſideration of which cuſtom they pay 20 pence yearly to the ſaid lord.

(1.) BULL'S EYE, in aſtronomy. See ALDEBARAN.

(2.) BULL'S EYE, in meteorology, a little dark cloud, reddiſh in the middle, chiefly appearing about the Cape of Good Hope; thus denominated by the Portugueſe, who, on the appearance of it, inſtantly take down their ſails, knowing that a terrible ſtorm of thunder, lightning, and a whirlwind, is at hand.

(3.) BULL'S EYE, in ſea language, a ſmall pulley in the form of a ring, having a rope ſpliced round the outer edge of it, and a large hole in the midle for another rope to ſlide in. It is more commonly uſed by Dutch than by Engliſh ſeamen.

* BULL-TROUT. *n. ſ.* A large kind of trout.—There is, in Northumberland, a trout called a *bull-trout*, of a much greater length and bigneſs than any in theſe ſouthern parts. *Walton.*

(1.) * BULL-WEED. *n. ſ.* The ſame with *knapweed.*

(2.) BULL-WEED, in botany. See CENTAUREA.

BULL-WELL, a village, 7 miles from Nottingham.

(1.) * BULL-WORT, or BISHOP'S-WEED. *n. ſ.* [*ammi*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) BULL-WORT. See AMMI.

(1.) * BULLY. *n. ſ.* [*Skinner* derives this word from *burly*, which is very probably right: or from *bull*, a *bull-eyed*; which are leſs probable. May it not come from *bull*, the pope's letter, implying the inſolence of thoſe who came inveſted with authority from the papal court?] A noiſy, bluſtering, quarrelling fellow: it is generally taken for a man that has only the appearance of courage.—Mr Holt of the garter!—What ſays my *bully* rook? Speak ſcholarly and wiſely. *Shakeſpeare.*—All on a ſudden the doors flew open, and in comes a crew of roaring *bullies*, with their wenches, and dogs, and their bottles. *L'Eſtrange.*—

'Tis ſo ridic'lous, but ſo true withal,
A *bully* cannot ſleep without a brawl. *Dryden.*
—A ſcolding hero is, at the worſt, a more tolerable character than a *bully* in petticoats. *Addiſon.*
—The little man is a *bully* in his nature, but, when he grows cholerick, I confine him till his wrath is over. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BULLY, in geography, a village in Glouceſterſhire, 2 miles W. of the iſle of Alderney.

(1.) * *To* BULLY *v. a.* [from the noun.] To overbear with noiſe or menaces.—

Prentices, pariſh clerks, and hectors meet,
He that is drunk, or *bully'd*, pays the treat. *King.*

(2.) * *To* BULLY. *v. n.* To be noiſy and quarrelſome.

BULMARSH-COURT, a village in Berkſhire, near Sunning.

BULMARSH-HEATH, near Reading, Berkſhire.

BULMER, two villages, viz. 1. in Eſſex, near Sudbury in Suffolk: 2. in Yorkſhire, 5 miles S. W. of Malton.

BULNESS. See BOULNESS.

BULPHAM, a town N. W. of Horndon, Eſſex.

(1.) * BULRUSH. *n. ſ.* [from *bull* and *rush*.] A largeruſh, ſuch as grows in rivers, without knots; though *Dryden* has given it the epithet *knotty*, confounding it, probably, with the reed.—

To make fine cages for the nightingale,
And baſkets of *bulruſhes*, was my wont. *Spenſer.*
—All my praiſes are but as a *bulruſh* caſt upon a ſtream; they are born by the ſtrength of the current. *Dryden.*—

The edges were with bending oſiers crown'd;
The *knotty bulruſh* next in order ſtood,
And all within of reeds and trembling wood. *Dryden.*

(2.) BULRUSH BRIDGE. See BRIDGES, § I. 14.

BULSTRODE, a village near Gerard's Cross, in Buckinghamſhire.

(1.) BULTEL, a bag wherein meal is dreſſed.

(2.) BULTEL, or BULTER, the bran or refuſe of meal after dreſſing.

BULTELLUM, } in writers of the middle age,
BULTELLUS, } a ſearce, or BOULTER.

(1.) BULTER. See BULTEL, N° 2.

(2.) BULTERS, in fiſhing, ſtrong lines, 300 feet long, with 60 hooks, 8 feet aſunder, uſed on the coaſt of Cornwall in the fiſhery of congers. They are baited with pilchards or mackarel, and ſunk by a ſtone faſtened to them. Sometimes ſuch a number of theſe are tied together as to reach a mile.

BULTER-CLOTH, a linen or hair cloth for ſifting or ſearcing of meal or flour.

BULT-POINT, a village in Devonſhire, near Salcomb.

(1.) * BULWARK. *n. ſ.* [*bolwercke*, Dutch: probably only from its ſtrength and largeneſs]

1. What

1. What is now called a baſtion.—

But him the ſquire made quickly to retreat,
Encountering fierce with ſingle ſword in hand,
And 'twixt him and his lord did like a *bulwark* ſtand. *Spenſer.*

They oft repair
Their earthen *bulwarks* 'gainſt the ocean flood. *Fairfax.*

We have *bulwarks* round us;
Within our walls are troops enur'd to toil. *Addiſon.*

2. A fortification.—Taking away needleſs *bulwarks*; divers were demoliſhed upon the ſea coaſts. *Hayward.*—Our naval ſtrength is a *bulwark* to the nation. *Addiſon.* 3. A ſecurity; a ſcreen; a ſhelter.—Some making the wars their *bulwark*, that have before gored the gentle boſom of peace with pillage and robbery. *Shakeſp.*

(2.) BULWARK, in the ancient fortification. See RAMPART.

* *To* BULWARK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fortify; to ſtrengthen with bulwarks.—

And yet no *bulwark'd* town, or diſtant coaſt;
Preſerves the beauteous youth from being ſeen. *Addiſon.*

BULWICK, a village in Northamptonſhire, 5 miles N. W. of Oundle.

* BUM. *n. ſ.* [*bomme*, Dutch.] The buttocks; the part on which we ſit.—

The wiſeſt aunt telling the ſaddeſt tale,
Sometime for threefoot ſtool miſtaketh me,
Then ſlip I from her *bum*, down topples ſhe. *Shakeſpeare.*

This ſaid, he gently rais'd the knight,
And ſet him on his *bum* upright. *Hudibras.*

From duſty ſhops neglected authors come,
Martyrs of pies, and relicks of the *bum*. *Dryd.*

The learned Sydenham does not doubt,
But profound thought will bring the gout;
And that with *bum* on couch we lie,
Becauſe our reaſon's ſoar'd too high. *W——n.*

BUMALDA, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants. Of this genus we have found no particular deſcription.

* BUMBAILIFF. *n. ſ.* [This is a corruption of *bound* bailiff, pronounced by gradual corruption, *boun*, *bun*, *bum* bailiff.] A bailiff of the meaneſt kind; one that is employed in arreſts.—Go, Sir Andrew, ſcout me for him at the corner of the orchard, like a *bumbailiff*. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BUMBARD. *n. ſ.* [wrong written for BOMBARD; which ſee.] A great gun; a black jack; a leathern pitcher.—

Yond ſame black cloud, yond huge one looks
Like a foul *bumbard*, that would ſhed his liquour. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BUMBAST. *n. ſ.* [falſely written for *bombaſt*; *bombaſt* and *bombaſine* being mentioned, with great probability, by *Junius*, as coming from *boom*, a tree, and *ſein*, ſilk; the ſilk or cotton of a tree. Mr *Stevens*, with much more probability, deduces them all from *bombycinus*.] 1. A cloth made by ſewing one ſtuff upon another; patchwork.—The uſual *bumbaſt* of black bits ſewed into ermine, our Engliſh women are made to think very fine. *Grew.* 2. Linen ſtuffed with cotton; ſtuffing; wadding.—

We have received your letters full of love,
And, in our maiden council, rated them
As courtſhip, pleaſant jeſt, and courteſy,
As *bumbaſt*, and as lining to the time. *Shakeſp.*

BUM-BOAT, in ſea language, a ſmall boat uſed to ſell vegetables, &c. to ſhips lying at a diſtance from the ſhore.

BUMBUNNY, in botany, a name given by the people of Guinea to a plant common in that place, which ſerves them as an emetic; they boil a few of the leaves in water, and drink this liquor, which works very eaſily. *Phil. Tranſ.* N° 232.

BUMBURY, a town in Cheſhire, E. of Beeſton Caſtle.

BUMEY, a provincial governor in the kingdom of Barſalli. See BARSALLI.

BUMFORD, a village in the Peak of Derby.

BUMICILLI, a ſect of Mahometans in Egypt and Barbary, who pretend to fight with devils, and commonly appear in a fright and covered with wounds and bruiſes. About the full moon they counterfeit a combat in the preſence of all the people, which laſts for 2 or 3 hours, and is performed with aſſagaias, or javelins, till they fall down quite ſpent; in a little time, however, they recover their ſpirits, get up, and walk away.

BUMKIN, or BOOMKIN, in ſea language, is a ſhort boom or bar of timber, projecting from each bow of a ſhip, to extend the lower edge of the fore-ſail to windward. It is ſecured by a ſtrong rope, which confines it to the ſhip's bow.

* BUMP. *n. ſ.* [perhaps from *bum*, as being prominent.] A ſwelling; a protuberance.—It had upon its brow a *bump* as big as a young cockrel's ſtone; a perilous knock, and it cried bitterly. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Not though his teeth are beaten out, his eyes
Hang by a ſtring, in *bumps* his forehead riſe. *Dryden.*

* *To* BUMP. *v. a.* [from *bombus*, Lat.] To make a loud noiſe, or bomb. [See BOMB.] It is applied, I think, only to the bittern.—

Then to the water's brink ſhe laid her head;
And as the bittour *bumps* within a reed,
To thee alone, O lake, ſhe ſaid—— *Dryden.*

* BUMPER. *n. ſ.* [from *bump*.] A cup filled till the liquour ſwells over the brims.—

Places his delight
All day in playing *bumpers*, and at night
Reels to the bawds. *Dryden's Juvenal.*

* BUMPKIN. *n. ſ.* [This word is of uncertain etymology; *Henſhaw* derives it from *pumkin*, a kind of worthleſs gourd, or melon. This ſeems harſh; yet we uſe the word *cabbage-head* in the ſame ſenſe. *Bump* is uſed amongſt us for a knob, or lump; may not *bumpkin* be much the ſame with *clodpate*, *loggerhead*, *block*, and *blockhead*.] An awkward heavy ruſtick; a country lout.—The poor *bumpkin*, that had never heard of ſuch delights before, bleſſed herſelf at the change of her condition. *L'Eſtrange.*—

A heavy *Bumpkin*, taught with daily care,
Can never dance three ſteps with a becoming air. *Dryden.*

In his white cloak the magiſtrate appears,
The country *bumpkin* the ſame liv'ry wears. *Dryden.*

—It was a favour to admit them to breeding;

they might be ignorant *bumpkins* and clowns, if they pleaſed. *Locke.*

* BUMPKINLY. *adj.* [from *bumpkin.*] Having the appearance of a clown; clowniſh.—He is a ſimple, blundering, and yet conceited fellow, who, aiming at deſcription, and the ruſtick wonderful, gives an air of *bumpkinly* romance to all he tells. *Clariſſa.*

BUMSTEAD-HELION, a village in Eſſex, near Haveril.

(1.) BUN, the dry ſtalk of hemp, ſtripped of its rind.

(2.) BUN, in paſtry, a cake baked with currants, raiſins, &c.

BUNAW, a village in Argyllſhire, in the pariſh of Muckairn, where the Lorn Furnace Company have their manufactory.

BUNBROOK, a river in Derbyſhire.

* BUNCH. *n. ſ.* [*buncker*, Daniſh, the crags of the mountains.] 1. A hard lump; a knob.—They will carry their treaſures upon the *bunches* of camels, to a people that ſhall not profit them. *Iſa.* xxx. 6.—He felt the ground, which he had wont to find even and ſoft, to be grown hard with little round balls or *bunches*, like hard boiled eggs. *Boyle.* 2. A cluſter; many of the ſame kind growing together.—

Vines, with cluſt'ring *bunches* growing. *Shak.*

—Titain ſaid, that he knew no better rule for the diſtribution of the lights and ſhadows, than his obſervation drawn from a *bunch* of grapes. *Dryd.*—

For thee, large *bunches* load the bending vine,
And the laſt bleſſings of the year are thine. *Dryd.*

3. A number of things tied together.—

And on his arms a *bunch* of keys he bore.
Fairy Queen.

—All? I know not what you call all; but if I fought not with fifty of them, I am a *bunch* of raddiſh. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Ancient Janus, with his double face,
And *bunch* of keys, the porter of the place. *Dryd.*

—The mother's *bunch* of keys, or any thing they cannot hurt themſelves with, ſerves to divert the little children. *Locke.* 4. Any thing bound into a knot: as, a *bunch* of ribbon; a tuft.—

Upon the top of all his lofty creſt,
A *bunch* of hairs diſcover'd diverſly,
With ſprinkled pearl and gold full richly dreſt.
Spenſer.

* *To* BUNCH. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To ſwell out in a bunch; to grow out in protuberances.—It has the reſemblance of a champignon before it is opened, *bunching* out into a large round knob at one end. *Woodward.*

* BUNCHBACKED. *adj.* [from *bunch* and *back.*] Having bunches on the back; crookbacked.—

The day ſhall come, that thou ſhalt wiſh for me,
To help thee curſe this pois'nous *bunchback'd* toad. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BUNCHINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bunchy.*] The quality of being bunchy, or growing in bunches.

* BUNCHY. *adj.* [from *bunch.*] Growing in bunches; having tufts.—He is more eſpecially diſtinguiſhed from other birds, by his *bunchy* tail, and the ſhortneſs of his legs. *Grew.*

BUNCLOADY, a town in Wexford, Ireland.

BUNCOMB, a county of the United States, in North Carolina, ſituated in Morgan diſtrict. It is the largeſt and moſt weſterly county in that ſtate; and is bounded on the E. by thoſe of Rutherford and Burke; on the S. by South Carolina, and on the N. and W. by the new State of Tenaſſee. This county having been formed from thoſe of Burke and Rutherford, ſince the general Cenſus was taken, its preſent population is not known. It is hilly, the Blue Mountains paſſing through it to S. Carolina. Its principal rivers are the Catabaw, Pacolet, and Broad River.

BUNCRANA, a town in Donegall, Ireland.

BUNDELA, or BUNDELCUND, a territory of Indoſtan Proper, S. W. of the river Jumna, and ſeparated from it, by a narrow tract of low country. It is a mountainous diſtrict of more than 100 miles ſquare, and contains the celebrated diamonds of Purna. It was formerly ſubject to the Raja Hindooput, but is now divided among his ſons and grandſons. It is inhabited by a tribe of Raipoots, and ſurrounded by Oude, Benares and the Mahrattas. Chatterpour is the capital.

(1.) * BUNDLE. *n. ſ.* [*biindle*, Sax. from *biind.*] 1. A number of things bound together.—As to the *bundles* of petitions in parliament, they were, for the moſt part, petitions of private perſons. *Hale.*—

Try, lads, can you this *bundle* break;—
Then bids the youngeſt of the ſix
Take up a well-bound heap of ſticks. *Swift.*

2. A roll; any thing rolled up.—She carried a great *bundle* of Flanders lace under her arm; but finding herſelf overloaden, ſhe dropped the good man, and brought away the *bundle*. *Spectator.*

(2.) BUNDLE, in commerce. Of baſte-ropes, harneſs-plates, and glovers knives, ten make a bundle; of Hamburg yarn, 20 ſkeans; of baſket rods, 3 feet the band.

* *To* BUNDLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To tie in a bundle; to tie together: with *up.*—We ought to put things together, as well as we can, *determinæ cauſa*; but, after all, ſeveral things will not be *bundled up* together, under our terms and ways of ſpeaking. *Locke.*—

See how the double nation lies,
Like a rich coat with ſkirts of frize;
As if a man, in making poſies,
Should *bundle* thiſtles *up* with roſes. *Swift.*

BUNDLEY, a village in Devonſhire, 4 miles E. of Hatherly.

BUNEL, Peter, a native of Toulouſe, was one of the moſt elegant Latin writers in the 16th century, but was ſtill more conſpicuous for the regularity of his manners. He did not ſeek for riches; but, contented with the bare neceſſaries of life, applied himſelf wholly to the improvement of his mind. He died at Turin in 1547, aged 47; and has left behind him ſome Latin epiſtles, which are written with the utmoſt purity. The magiſtrates of Toulouſe have a buſt of him in marble, placed in their town-houſe. The moſt correct edition of his Letters is that of Henry Stephens 1581.

* BUNG. *n. ſ.* [*bing*, Welch.] A ſtopple for a barrel.—After three nights are expired, the next morning pull out the *bung* ſtick, or plug. *Mortim.*

* *To* BUNG. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſtop; to cloſe up.

BUNGAY,

BUNGAY, a market town of Suffolk, ſituated on the river Wavenny, about 32 miles N. E. of Bury. In 1689 it was almoſt deſtroyed by fire. It has a conſiderable trade, and the women are much employed in knitting ſtockings. It is 36 m. N. by E. of Ipſwich, and 107 N. E. of London. Lon. 1. 30. E. Lat. 52. 35. N.

* BUNGHOLE. *n. ſ.* [from *bung* and *hole*.] The hole at which the barrel is filled, and which is afterwards ſtopped up.—Why may not imagination trace the nobleſt duſt of Alexander, till he find it ſtopping a *bunghole*? *Shakeſpeare.*

* BUNGLE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A botch; an awkwardneſs; an inaccuracy; a clumſy performance.—Errours and *bungles* are committed, when the matter is in-apt or contumacious. *Ray on the Creation.*

(1.) * *To* BUNGLE. *v. a.* To botch; to manage clumſily; to conduct awkwardly: with *up*.—

Other devils, that ſuggeſt by treaſons,
Do botch and *bungle up* damnation,
With patches, colours, and with forms being fetcht
From gliſt'ring ſemblances of piety. *Shakeſp.*

They make lame miſchief, though they mean it well:
Their int'reſt is not finely drawn, and hid,
But ſeems are coarſely *bungled up* and ſeen. *Dryd.*

(2.) * *To* BUNGLE. *v. n.* [See BUNGLER.] To perform clumſily.—

When men want light,
They make but *bungling* work. *Dryden.*

—Letters to me are not ſeldom opened, and then ſealed in a *bungling* manner before they come to my hands. *Swift.*

* BUNGLER. *n. ſ.* [*bungler*, Welch; *q. bén y glér*, i.e. the laſt orloweſt of the profeſſion. *Davies.*] A bad workman; a clumſy performer; a man without ſkill.—Painters, at the firſt, were ſuch *bunglers*, and ſo rude, that, when they drew a cow or a hog, they were fain to write over the head what it was; otherwiſe the beholder knew not what to make of it. *Peacham on Drawing.*—

Hard features every *bungler* can command;
To draw true beauty ſhews a maſter's hand.
Dryden.

A *bungler* thus, who ſcarce the nail can hit,
With driving wrong will make the pannel ſplit.
Swift.

* BUNGLINGLY. *adv.* [from *bungling*.] Clumſily; awkwardly.—To denominate them monſters, they muſt have had ſome ſyſtem of parts, compounded of ſolids and fluids, that executed, though but *bunglingly*, their peculiar functions. *Bently.*

BUNGO. See BONGO, N° 2.

BUNHILL, a village in Worceſterſhire.

BUNIAS, in botany, a genus of the order Siliquoſa, belonging to the tetradynamia claſs of plants; and ranking under the 39th natural order, *Siliquoſæ*. The ſiliqua is deciduous, four-ſided, muricated, or ſhagreened with unequal pointed angles. There are 8 ſpecies; all annual plants, but none of them poſſeſſed of any remarkable property.

BUNIVA, a mountain of Greece, between Theſſaly and Achaia.

BUNIUM, PIG-NUT, or EARTH-NUT, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, *Umbellátæ*. The corolla is uniform, the umbel thick, and the fruit ovate. There is but one known ſpecies, viz.

BUNIUM BULBOCASTANUM, with a globular root. It grows naturally in moiſt paſtures in many parts of Britain, and has a tuberous ſolid root, which lies dead on the ground. The leaves are finely cut, and lie near the ground. The ſtalk riſes a foot and a half high; is round, channelled, and ſolid; the lower part being naked; but above, where it branches out, there is one leaf placed below every branch. The flowers are white, and ſhaped like thoſe of other umbelliferous plants; the ſeeds are ſmall, oblong and when ripe are channelled. The roots of this ſort are frequently dug up, and by ſome people eaten raw. They have much reſemblance in taſte to a cheſnut, whence the ſpecific name.

BUNK, or } a word frequently occurring in
BUNKEN, } the writings of the Arabian phyſicians. We do not at this time certainly know what it was; but it was evidently an aromatic root uſed in cardiac, ſtomachic, and carminative compoſition. See LEUCACANTHA.

BUNKER'S HILL, a high ground in the State of Maſſachuſetts, which over-looks the whole city of Boſton; rendered memorable by the redoubt erected upon it by the Americans, and conſequent action fought, in the beginning of the American war. See AMERICA, § 14.

BUNKON. See ACANTHE, No. 2. and AMGAILAM.

* BUNN. *n. ſ.* [*bunelo*, Span.] A kind of ſweet bread.—

Thy ſongs are ſweeter to mine ear,
Than to the thirſty cattle rivers clear;
Or winter porridge to the lab'ring youth,
Or *bunns* and ſugar to the damſel's tooth.
Gay's Paſtorals.

BUNNIDANE, a town of Ireland, in Sligo.

BUNSINGLASS, a village in Mayo county.

(1.) * BUNT. *n. ſ.* [corrupted, as *Skinner* thinks, from *bent*.] A ſwelling part; an increaſing cavity.—The wear is a frith, reaching ſlopewiſe through the ooze, from the land to low water mark, and having in it a *bunt* or cod, with an eye-hook, where the fiſh entering, upon the coming back with the ebb, are ſtopped from iſſuing out again, forſaken by the water, and left dry on the ooze. *Carew.*

(2.) BUNT LINES, are ſmall lines made faſt to the bottom of the ſails, in the middle part of the bolt rope, to a cringle, and are ſo reeved through a ſmall block, ſeized to the yard. Their uſe is to trice up the bunt of the ſail for the better furling it up.

(3.) BUNT OF A SAIL, the middle part of it, formed deſignedly into a bag or cavity, that the ſail may gather more wind. It is uſed moſtly in top-ſails, becauſe courſers are generally cut ſquare, or with but ſmall allowance for bunt or compaſs. The bunt holds much to leeward wind; that is, it hangs much to leeward.

* *To* BUNT. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To ſwell out, as the ſail *bunts* out.

* BUNTER. *n. ſ.* A cant word for a woman who picks up rags about the ſtreet; and uſed by way of contempt, for any low vulgar woman.

BUNTINE, a thin woollen ſtuff, of which the colours and ſignals of a ſhip are uſually made.

(1.) * BUNTING. *n. ſ.* [*emberiza alba.*] The name of a bird.—I took this lark for a *bunting*. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) BUNTING, in ornithology. See EMBERIZA.

(3.) * BUNTING. *n. ſ.* The ſtuff of which a ſhips colours are made.

BUNTINGFORD, a town of Hertfordſhire, ſeated on the river Rib, on the road to Cambridge. It has a market on Monday, and two fairs on June 29, and Nov. 30th. Lon. 0. 6. W. Lat. 51. 55. N.

BUNTINGSDALE, a village in Shropſhire, near Drayton.

BUNTZEL, a town of Silefia, in the duchy of Jauer. The greateſt part of the houſes are built with ſtone, and there were formerly rich mines in the neighbourhood. It is in the road to Leipſic; and its chief trade is earthen ware. Lon. 15. 50. E. Lat. 51. 12. N.

BUNTZLAU. See BOLESLAF.

BUNTZLAW, a town of Bohemia, on the Elbe.

BUNWELL, a village in Norfolk, 4 m. from Wymundham.

BUNYAN, John, author of the Pilgrim's Progreſs, was born at Elſtow, near Bedford, in 1628. He was the ſon of a tinker; and, in the early part of his life, was a ſoldier in the parliament army, and a great reprobate; but being at length deeply ſtruck with a ſenſe of his guilt, he laid aſide his profligate courſes, became remarkable for his ſobriety, and applied himſelf to obtain ſome degree of learning. About 1655, he was admitted a member of a Baptiſt congregation at Bedford, and was ſoon after choſen their preacher: but, in 1660, being taken up, and tried for preſuming to preach, he was cruelly ſentenced to perpetual baniſhment; and in the mean time committed to jail, where neceſſity obliged him to learn to make long-tagged thread-laces for his ſupport: to add to his diſtreſs, he had a wife and ſeveral children, among whom was a daughter who was blind. In this unjuſt and cruel confinement, he was detained 12½ years, and during that time wrote many of his tracts; but he was at length diſcharged, by the humane interpoſition of Dr Barlow. When king James's declaration for liberty of conſcience was publiſhed, he was choſen paſtor of a congregation at Bedford. He at length died of the fever at London, on the 31ſt of Aug. 1688, aged 60. He wrote an allegory, called *The Holy War*, and ſeveral other religious pieces. His *Pilgrim's Progreſs* (which may be juſtly ſtiled an *original work*,) has been tranſlated into moſt European languages; and his works have been collected together, and printed in two volumes folio.

BUONACCORDO, a ſmall ſtringed muſical inſtrument, reſembling a ſpinnet, uſed by children to learn to play on, becauſe of the ſhortneſs of their fingers.

BUONOCARSI. See PIERINO DEL VAGA.

(I.) * BUOY. *n. ſ.* [*boie*, or *boye*, Fr. *boya*, Span.] A piece of cork or wood floating on the water, tied to a weight at the bottom.—

The fiſhermen that walk upon the beach,
Appear like mice; and yond tall anchoring bark
Diminiſh'd to her cock; her cock a *buoy*,
Too ſmall for ſight. *Shakeſp. King Lear.*

Like *buoys*, that never ſink into the flood,
On learning's ſurface we but lie and nod.
Pope's Dunciad.

(II.) BUOY, in ſea affairs, a ſort of cloſe cask, or block of wood, faſtened by a rope to the anchor, to determine the place where the anchor is ſituated, that the ſhip may not come too near it, to entangle her cable about the ſtock or the flukes of it. Buoys are of various kinds; as,

1. BUOYS, CABLE, are common casks employed to buoy up the cables in different places from rocky ground. In the harbour of Alexandria in Egypt, every ſhip is moored with at leaſt three cables, and has three or four of theſe buoys on each cable for this purpoſe.

2. BUOYS, CAN, or CONE BUOYS, theſe are in the form of a cone; and of this conſtruction are all the buoys which are floated over dangerous banks and ſhallows, as a warning to paſſing ſhips, that they may avoid them. They are extremely large, that they may be ſeen at a diſtance; and are faſtened by long chains to the anchors which are ſunk for that purpoſe at ſuch places. See Plate XLIV. fig. 5.

3. BUOYS, NUN, are ſhaped like the middle fruſtrum of two cones, abutting upon one common baſe, being croſs, which are large in the middle, and tapering nearly to a point at each end. Plate XLIV. fig. 6.

4. BUOYS, WOODEN, are ſolid pieces of timber, ſometimes in the ſhape of a cylinder, and ſometimes in that of a nun-buoy; they are furniſhed with one or two holes, in which to fix a ſhort piece of rope, whoſe two ends being ſpliced together, make a ſort of circle or ring called the ſtrop.

(III.) BUOY OF THE NORE, is a buoy placed at the mouth of the river Thames, to direct mariners how to avoid a dangerous ſand.

(1.) * *To* BUOY. *v. a.* [from the noun. The *u* is mute, in both.] To keep afloat; to bear up.—All art is uſed to ſink epiſcopacy, and launch preſbytery into England; which was lately *buoyed* up in Scotland, by the like artifice of a covenant. *K. Cha.*—The water which riſes out of the abyſs for the ſupply of ſprings and rivers, would not have ſtopped at the ſurface of the earth, but marched directly up into the atmoſphere, wherever there was heat enough in the air to continue its aſcent, and *buoy* it up. *Woodward's Natural Hiſtory.*

(2.) * *To* BUOY. *v. n.* To float; to riſe by ſpecifick lightneſs.—Riſing merit will *buoy* up at laſt. *Pope's Eſſay on Crit.*

* BUOYANCY. *n. ſ.* [from *buoyant*.] The quality of floating.—All the winged tribes owe their flight and *buoyancy* to it. *Derham's Phyſico-Theology.*

* BUOYANT. *adj.* [from *buoy*.] Floating; light; that which will not ſink. *Dryden* uſes the word, perhaps improperly, for ſomething that has denſity enough to hinder a floating body from ſinking.—I ſwam with the tide, and the water under me was *buoyant*. *Dryden.*—

His once ſo vivid nerves,
So full of *buoyant* ſpirit, now no more
Inſpire the courſe. *Thomſon's Autumn.*

BUOY-ROPE, the rope, which faſtens the buoy to the anchor: it ſhould be little more than equal in length to the depth of the water where the anchor

chor lies, as it is intended to float near, or immediately above, the bed of it, that the pilot may at all times know the ſituation thereof. See Plate XLVI. fig. 10. where *b* repreſents the anchor, *c* the buoy-rope, and *d* the buoy floating on the ſurface of the water. The buoy-rope is often extremely uſeful otherwiſe, in drawing up the anchor when the cable is broke. It ſhould always, therefore, be of ſufficient ſtrength for this purpoſe, or elſe the anchor may be loſt through negligence.

BUOY, SLINGS OF THE, the ropes which are faſtened about it, and by which it is hung: they are curiouſly ſpliced around it, ſomething reſembling the braces of a drum.

BUOY, TO STREAM THE, is to let it fall from the ſhip's ſide into the water; which is always done before they let go the anchor, that it may not be retarded by the buoy-rope as it ſinks to the bottom.

BUPALUS, a celebrated ſculptor, and native of the iſland of Chios, was the ſon, grandſon, and great-grandſon of ſculptors. He had a brother, named *Athenis*, of the ſame profeſſion. They flouriſhed about the 60th Olympiad: and were cotemporary with Hipponax, a poet of an ugly and deſpicable figure. Our ſculptors diverted themſelves in repreſenting him under a ridiculous form. But Hipponax wrote ſo ſharp a ſatire againſt them, that they hanged themſelves. Pliny, however, does not allow this, but ſays, that, after Hipponax had taken his revenge, they made ſeveral fine ſtatues; particularly a Diana at Chios, which was placed very high, and appeared with a frowning countenance to thoſe that came in, and with a pleaſant one to thoſe that went out. There were ſeveral ſtatues at Rome made by them; and they worked only in the white marble of the iſle of Paros. Pauſanias mentions Bupalus as a good architect as well as ſculptor; but ſays nothing of Athenis.

BUPHAGA, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The beak is ſtraight and quadrangular; the mandibles are gibbous, entire, and the gibboſity is greater on the outſide. The feet are of the ambulatory kind. The body is greyiſh above, and of a dirty yellow below; the tail is ſhaped like a wedge. See Plate XLI. fig. 2. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

BUPHAGA AFRICANA, the *African Beef-Eater*, a native of Senegal. It frequently perches upon oxen, and picks out the worms from their backs.

BUPHONIA, [from βους ox, and φονη ſlaughter,] an antiquity, an Athenian feaſt, denominated from a bullock ſlain therein, with quaint formalities. For the origin of the buphonia, we are told it was forbidden by the laws of Attica to kill an ox: but it once happened, at the feaſt of the *dipolia*, that an ox eat the corn, others ſay the cakes, which had been dreſſed for the ſacrifice. Thaulon the prieſt, enraged at this, preſently killed him, and fled for it. On which the Athenians, fearing the reſentment of the gods, and feigning themſelves ignorant who had committed the fact, brought the bloody axe before the judges, where it was ſolemnly arraigned, tried, found guilty, and condemned! In memory of the event, this feaſt was inſtituted, in which it was ſtill cuſtomary for the prieſt to fly, and judgment to be given about the ſlaughter of the ox.

BUPHTHALMUM, OX-EYE: A genus of the polygamia ſuperflua order, belonging to the ſyngeneſia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, Compoſitæ. The receptacle is paleaceous: the pappus an indifferent rim; the ſeeds, eſpecially thoſe of the radius, emarginated on the ſides; the ſtigmata of the hermaphrodite florets undivided. There are ten ſpecies; all of which may be propagated by ſeeds; and thoſe which do not, by parting their roots, or cutting off their branches. Some of the ſpecies are tender, and require to be raiſed on a hot-bed. The following are the moſt remarkable.

1. BUPHTHALMUM ARBORESCENS, riſes with ſeveral woody ſtems to the height of 8 or 10 feet, garniſhed with leaves very unequal in ſize; ſome are narrow and long, others are broad and obtuſe; theſe are intermixed at the ſame joint, and often at the intermediate one; they are green, and placed oppoſite. The flowers are produced at the ends of the branches; they are of a pale yellow colour, and have ſcaly empalements.

2. BUPHTHALMUM HELIANTHOIDES, a native of North America. It has a perennial root, and an annual ſtalk, which riſes 6 or 8 feet high, garniſhed at each joint with two oblong heart-ſhaped leaves, which have three longitudinal veins, and the baſe on one ſide ſhorter than the other. The flowers come out at the extremities of the branches, and are of a bright yellow colour, reſembling a ſmall ſun flower.

BUPHTHALMUS, in botany, a name given by ſome of the ancients to the great houſe-leek, or SEDUM MAJUS, from the manner of its growing in cluſters reſembling the eyes of large animals.

BUPLEURUM, HARE'S EAR, or *Thorough-wax*; A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, Umbellatæ. The involucra of the partial umbels are large in proportion, and pentaphyllous; the petals involuted or rolled inwards; the fruit roundiſh, compreſſed, and ſtriated. The principal ſpecies is the

BUPLEURUM FRUTICOSUM, or ſhrubby Ethiopian hartwort. It riſes with a ſhrubby ſtem, dividing into numerous branches, forming a buſhy head 5 or 6 feet high, adorned with oblong, oval, entire leaves of a pale green colour, placed alternate, with yellow flowers in umbels at the ends of the branches, which appear in July and Auguſt, and are ſometimes ſucceeded by ripe ſeeds. It may be propagated by cuttings.

BUPRESTIS, in entomology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of coleoptera. The antennæ are ſetaceous, and as long as the thorax: The head is half drawn back within the thorax; to which may be added, that the antennæ are ſerrated: The mouth is armed with jaws, and furniſhed with palpi: The elytra are margined, and cover the abdomen; and the tarſi have 5 articulations: The feet are ſaltatorii. There are 27 ſpecies of this inſect, moſt of them natives of the Indies. The French have given the name of *Richard* to this genus, on account of the beauti-

ful

ful rich colours with which moſt of the inſects belonging to it are adorned. Inſects of this genus are not common in England. They are of the richeſt ſplendor; and ſome appear, when alive, to be adorned with the refulgent particles of emeralds, rubies, diamonds, and gold. Applied to the microſcope, the ſplendor is ſo great as to dazzle the eye. One of the moſt oblong ſpecies, is,

BUPRESTIS GUTTATA. The whole body is green and gold, with a bluiſh caſt underneath; but what diſtinguiſhes it, are 4 white depreſſed ſpots upon the elytra, two upon each. One of theſe dots is on the outward rim of the elytrum, about the middle of it, near the abdomen, and is the larger one. The other is on the inner edge, cloſe to the future, about $\frac{3}{4}$ of that future downwards, and exactly oppoſite its fellow on the other elytrum. This latter one is the ſmaller. The whole upper part of the inſect, viewed through a glaſs, appears finely dotted. This ſpecies has been found in timber-yards. See Plate XLII. fig. 9.

BUPTON, a town, 5 m. N. of Calne, Wilts.

BUQUOI, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais, and ci-devant province of Artois; 9 m. W. of Bapaume. Lon. 2. 40. E. Lat. 50. 12. N.

(1.) * BUR, BOUR, BOR, come from the Sax. *bur*, an inner-chamber, or place of ſhade and retirement. *Gibſon's Camden.*

(2.) * BUR. *n. ſ.* [*lappa; bourre*, Fr. is *down*; the *bur* being filled with a ſoft *tomentum*, or down.] A rough head of a plant, called a *burdock*, which ſticks to the hair or clothes.—

Nothing teems
But hateful docks, rough thiſtles, keckſies, *burs*,
Loſing both beauty and utility. *Shakeſ. Hen. V.*

Hang off, thou cat, thou *bur*; vile thing, let looſe;
Or I will ſhake thee from me like a ſerpent.
Shakeſpeare.

—Dependents and ſuitors are always the *burs*, and ſometimes the briers of favourites. *Wotton.*—

Whither betake her
From the chill dew, amongſt rude *burs* and thiſtles. *Milton.*

And where the vales with violets once were crown'd,
Now knotty *burs* and thorns diſgrace the ground.
Dryden.

—A fellow ſtuck like a *bur*, there was no ſhaking him off. *Arbuthnot's Hiſtory of John Bull.*

(3.) BUR, in chivalry, a broad ring of iron, behind the place made for the hand on the ſpears uſed formerly in tilting; which bur was brought to reſt when the tilter charged his ſpear.

BURACO DE VELTA, in ichthyology, a fiſh caught on the ſhore of Braſil; better known by its Braſilian name, GUAIBI-COARA.

BURAGRAG, a river of Barbary, in the kingdom of Fez, which riſes in the confines of Chaus; runs along the borders of Fez and Temeſna, and falls into the Atlantic at Sallee.

BURBACH, a town near Hinkley, Leiceſter.

BURBARUS, in ichthyology, a name given by Paul Jovius, and others to the carp. See CYPRINUS.

BURBUS, in commerce, a ſmall coin at Algiers, with the arms of the dey ſtruck on both ſides. It is worth half an aſper.

(1.) BURBECK, a river in Weſtmoreland, which runs into the Lune.

(2.) BURBECK, a village, near APPLEBY, N. 1.

BURBER, an Egyptian piece of copper money; thick and as broad as a ſixpence; 12 of them make a MEDINE.

BURBICH, a town W. of Great Bedwin, Wilts.

(1.) * BURBOT, *n. ſ.* A fiſh full of prickles. *Dict.*

(2.) BURBOT is the Engliſh name of the MUSTELA FUVIATILIS; a fiſh common in the Trent, and other rivers in England. It is alſo called the eel-pout, and is the GADUS LOTA of Linnæus.

BURBROOK, a village in Eſſex, between Aſhden and Steeple-Bumſted.

BURCA, among the Turks, the name of the rich covering of the door of the houſe at Mecca; it is 10 feet long, and 5 wide; and there are ſeveral figures and Arabic letters on it, very rich embroidered in gold, on a ground of red and green. It is carried about in their ſolemn proceſſions and is often ſtopt, that the people may touch it.

BURCESTER. See BICESTER.

BURCHALK, a village in Wiltſhire.

BURCHAM MAGNA, BURCHAM-NEWTON, BURCHAM-TOFTS; three large villages in Norfolk, 4 m. N. E. of Caſtle-Riſing.

BURCHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the Lower Bavaria, ſituated on the river Saltz. Lon. 13, 25. E. Lat. 48. 5. N.

BURCHILLS, a village in Staffordſhire, 1 mile N. W. of Walſal.

BURCHOPE, between Hereford and Leominſter.

(1.) BURCOMB, a town in Dorſetſhire.

(2.) BURCOMB LODGE, N. E. of Brutton.

(3.) BURCOMB, NORTH, (4.) BURCOMB, SOUTH, two villages, near Saliſbury, Wilts.

BURCOT, 4 villages: viz. 1. in Northamtonſh. near Towceſter: 2. in Oxfordſh. near Dorcheſter: 3. in Shropſh. N. W. of Great Wenlock: and, 4. in Somerſetſh. S. E. of Wrinton.

BURDA, in authors of the middle age, denotes a garment made of ruſhes.

BURDACK, an Egyptian veſſel, which ſheep uſually drink out of, at Cairo. They are made of a peculiar ſort of earth, which is ſuppoſed to cool the water, and are always ſet out to the north, to keep the cooler, and covered with a ſtrainer, to prevent any thing falling into the water; they are of ſo porous a ſtructure, that the water put into them will get through them in a few days.

BURDEGALA, or BURDIGALA, in ancient geography, a trading port town of Aquitania, ſituated on a lake of the ſea, formed by the mouth of the Garumna. It was a famous ſeat of the Muſes, (as appears by Auſonius's book, entitled *Profeſſores*,) and the birth place of Auſonius. It is now called BOURDEAUX.

* BURDELAIS. *n. ſ.* A ſort of grape.

(1.) * BURDEN. *n. ſ.* [*biirthen*, Sax. and therefore properly written *burthen*. It is ſuppoſed to come from *burdo*, Lat. a mule.] 1. A load; ſomething to be carried.—

Camels have their provender
Only for bearing *burdens*, and ſore blows
For ſinking under them. *Shakeſ. Coriolanus.*

—I

—It is of uſe in lading ſhips, and may help to ſhew what *burden* in the ſeveral kinds they will bear. *Bacon's Phyſ. Rem.* 2. Something grievous or wearifome.—

Couldſt thou ſupport
That *burden*, heavier than the earth to bear?
Milton's Paradiſe Loſt.

—None of the things that are to learn, ſhould ever be made a *burden* to them, or impoſed on them as a taſk. *Locke.*—

Deaf, giddy, helpleſs, left alone,
To all my friends a *burden* grown. *Swift.*

3. A birth: now obſolete.—

Thou hadſt a wife once, called Æmilia,
That bore thee at a *burden* two fair ſons. *Shakeſ.*

4. The verſe repeated in a ſong; the bob; the chorus.—

At ev'ry cloſe ſhe made, th' attending throng
Reply'd, and bore the *burden* of the ſong.
Dryden's Fables.

5. The quantity that a ſhip will carry; or the capacity of a ſhip: as, a ſhip of a hundred tons *burden*.

(1.) BURDEN alſo denotes a fixed quantity of certain commodities. A burden of gad-ſteel is two ſcore, or 120 pounds.

(3.) BURDEN, or BURDON, [*Bourdon*, Fr.] in muſic, the drone or baſs, and the pipe or ſtring which plays it: hence the *burden of a ſong*. (See § 1. *def.* 4.) A chord which is to be divided, to perform the intervals of muſic, when open and undivided, is alſo called the *burden*.

(4.) BURDEN OF A SHIP, (§ 1. *def.* 5.) is its contents, or the number of tons it will carry. It may be determined thus: Multiply the length of the keel, taken within board, by the breadth of the ſhip, within board, taken from the midſhip-beam, from plank to plank; and multiply the product by the depth of the hold, taken from the plank below the keelſon, to the under part of the upper deck plank; and divide the laſt product by 94: the quotient is the content of the tonnage required. See FREIGHT.

(5.) BURDEN, SHIPS OF, denote thoſe of a larger and heavier ſort, carrying 500 tons, or upwards.

(6.) BURDENS, THE BEARING OF, is recommended by Ringelberg as the beſt ſort of exerciſe; eſpecially to ſtrengthen men of ſtudy. For this end, he had a gown lined with plates of lead, which he could juſt lift with both his hands. This load he bore 6 or 7 days together, either increaſing or diminiſhing it as he found occaſion; by which means he could both write and exerciſe at the ſame time.

* *To* BURDEN. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To load; to incumber.—*Burden* not thyſelf above thy power. *Eccluſ.* xiii. 2.—I mean not that other men be eaſed, and you *burdened*. *Corinthians*, viii. 13.—

What meats and drinks they had ſuffic'd,
Not *burden'd* nature. *Milton.*

* BURDENER. *n. ſ.* [from *burden*.] A loader; an oppreſſour.

* BURDENOUS. *adj.* [from *burden*.] 1. Grievous; oppreſſive; wearifome.—Make no jeſt of that which hath ſo earneſtly pierced me through, or let that be light to thee, which to me is ſo *burdenous*. *Sidney.* 2. Uſeleſs; cumberſome.—

To what can I be uſeful, wherein ſerve,
But to ſit idle on the houſhold hearth,
A *burd'nous* drone; to viſitants a gaze.
Milton's Agoniſtes.

* BURDENSOME. *adj.* [from *burden*.] Grievous; troubleſome to be born.—

His leiſure told him, that his time was come,
And lack of load made his life *burdenſome*. *Milt.*

Could I but live till *burdenſome* they prove,
My life would be immortal as my love.
Dryden's Ind. Emp.

—Aſſiſtances always attending us, upon the eaſy condition of our prayers, and by which the moſt *burdenſome* duty will become light and eaſy. *Rogers.*

* BURDENSOMENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *burdenſome*.] Weight; heavineſs; uneaſineſs to be born.

BURDFORTH, a town, S. of Thriſk, Yorkſh.

BURDHAM, 4 m. from Chicheſter, Suſſex.

BURDIGALA. See BURDEGALA.

BURDINGBURY, N. of Itchington, Warwick.

(1.) BURDO, in phyſiology, a mongrel beaſt of burden, produced by a horſe and ſhe-aſs, by which it is diſtinguiſhed from the MULE, which is that produced of a male aſs by a mare.

(2.) BURDO, or BURDON, in writers of the middle age, denotes a pilgrim's long ſtaff, as doing the office on that occaſion of a MULE.

(1.) * BURDOCK. *n. ſ.* [*perſolata*.] A pear.

(2.) BURDOCK. See ARCTIUM and XANTHIUM.

(1, 2.) BURDON, 2 towns in Durham, N. of Seton.

(3.) BURDON, GREAT, } two villages between
(4.) BURDON, LITTLE, } Darlington and Stockton.

(5.) BURDON, OLD, near Lumley C. Durham.

(6.) BURDON. See BURDEN, § 3. and BURDO, § 2.

BURDONARII, an appellation given to pilgrims, who travelled out of devotion to the Holy Land.

BURDOP-CRAIG, a village in Northumberland, N. W. of Elleſdon.

BURDROP, two villages; 1. in Oxfordſh. 5 m. S. W. of Banbury: 2. in Wilts, near Swindon.

BURDSWOLD, in Cumberland, E. of Aſkerton Caſtle.

BURDSYARDS, a diſtrict in Banffſhire, on which there are very extenſive plantations of firs. The menſion houſe commands ſuch a fine view of Forres, Findholm, the Moray Firth, &c. that it is reckoned "one of the beſt ſituations, which any country can afford." *Stat. Acc. Vol.* XVII. *p.* 455.

BURDUNCULUS, in botany, a name given by ſome to the plant known amongſt botanical writers by the name of *buglaſſum echioides capitulis cardui benedicti*.

* BUREAU. *n. ſ.* [*bureau*, Fr.] A cheſt of drawers with a writing board. It is pronounced as if it were ſpelt *buro*.—

For not the deſk with ſilver nails,
Nor *bureau* of expence,
Nor ſtandiſh well japan'd, avails
To writing of good ſenſe. *Swift.*

BURELL, or } a town of Naples, in Abruzzo,
BURELLA, } near the river Sangro. Lon. 14. 48. E. Lat. 41. 58. N.

(1.) BUREN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and biſhopric of Paderborn; ſeated on the river Alme, 10 m. S. of Paderborn. Lon. 8. 53. E. Lat. 53. 16. N.

(2.)

(2.) BUREN, a town in Guelderland. Lon. 5. 22. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

BURESS, a town near Neyland, Suffolk.

BUREZLAND, a town of Tranſylvania.

BURFIELD, in Berkſ. S. W. of Reading.

(1.) BURFORD, a town of Oxfordſhire, ſeated on an aſcent on the river Windruſh, chiefly noted for making ſaddles. The Downs near it, noted for horſe races, are of great advantage to it. It is 23 m. W. N. W. of Banbury, and 71 W. of London. Lon. 1. 37. W. Lat. 51. 46. N.

(2, 3.) BURFORD, 2 villages; 1. in Shropſh. near Tenburg: and, 2. near Warwick.

(1.) BURG, a town of Lincolnſhire, ſeated in a marſh 12 m. S. E. of Boſton, and 127 N. of London. Lon. 0. 5. E. Lat. 53. 12. N.

(2.) BURG, a town of the Dutch Netherlands, in Zutphen, ſeated on the Old Iſſel, 18 m. E. of Nimeguen. Lon. 6. 12. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

(3.) BURG, BURGH, or DUN, in northern topography. See DUN.

(4.) BURG, a promontory, or head land, on the coaſt of Argyll-ſhire, ſeveral miles in circuit, and riſing to a conſiderable height in a conic form. There are many broken Baſaltic pillars in it.

(5.) * BURG. *n. ſ.* See BURROW.

(6.) BURG UPON SANDS, a town in Cumberland; by ſome ſuppoſed to be the ancient BRUNANBURGH.

(1.) * BURGAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *burg*, or *burrow*.] A tenure proper to cities and towns, whereby men of cities or burrows hold their lands or tenements of the king, or other lord, for a certain yearly rent. *Cowel.*—The groſs of the borough is ſurveyed together in the beginning of the county; and there are ſome other particular *burgages* thereof, mentioned under the titles of particular mens poſſeſſions. *Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

(2.) BURGAGE, OR TENURE IN BURGAGE, is only a kind of town ſoccage; as common SOCCAGE, by which other lands are holden, is uſually of a rural nature. A borough is diſtinguiſhed from other towns by the right of ſending members to parliament; and where the right of election is by burgage tenure, that alone is a proof of the antiquity of the borough. Tenure in burgage, therefore, or burgage tenure, is where houſes or lands which were formerly the ſcite of houſes in an ancient borough, are held of ſome lord in common ſoccage, by a certain eſtabliſhed rent. And they ſeem to have withſtood the ſhock of the Norman encroachments, principally on account of their inſignificancy, which made it not worth while to compel them to an alteration of tenure, as 100 of them put together would ſcarce have amounted to a knight's fee. Beſides, the owners of them, being chiefly artificers, and perſons engaged in trade, could not with any tolerable propriety be put on ſuch a military eſtabliſhment as the tenure in chivalry was. The free ſoccage, therefore, in which theſe tenements are held, ſeems to be plainly a remnant of Saxon liberty; which may alſo account for the great variety of cuſtoms affecting many of theſe tenements ſo held in ancient burgage; the principal and moſt remarkable of which is that called *Borough Engliſh*. See BOROUGH ENGLISH, § 1, 2.

* BURGAMOT. *n. ſ.* [*bergamotte*, Fr.] 1. A ſpecies of pear. 2. A kind of perfume.

* BURGANET. BURGONET. *n. ſ.* [from *burgino'e*, Fr.] A kind of helmet.—

Upon his head his gliſtering *burganet*,
The which was wrought by wonderous device,
And curiouſly engraven, he did fit.
Spenſer's Muiopotmos.

This day I'll wear aloft my *burgonet*,
Ev'n to affright thee with the view thereof.
Shakeſpeare.

—I was page to a footman, carrying after him his pike and *burganet*. *Hakewill on Providence.*

BURGAT, two villages; 1. in Hampſhire, near Fordingbridge: 2. in Suffolk, near Buddeſdale.

BURGAT-HAMERAM, in Wilts, near Dorſet.

BURGATE, S. of Godalmin, Surry.

BURGAU, in natural hiſtory, the name of a large ſpecies of ſea-ſnail, of the lunar or round-mouthed kind. It is very beautifully lined with a coat, of the nature of mother-of-pearl; and the artificers take this out, to uſe under the name of mother-of-pearl, though ſome call it after the name of the ſhell they take it from, *burgaudine*.

BURGAUDINE, the name given by the Italian artificers to what we call mother-of-pearl. In their works, they do not uſe the common mother ſhell for this, but the lining of the American burgau. Hence burgaudine and mother of-pearl are uſed ſynonimouſly for both.

(1.) BURGAW, a margraviate of Swabia.

(2.) BURGAW, a town in the margraviate, N. 1.

BURGDORF, a pretty large town of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern, ſeated on an eminence; about a piſtol ſhot from the river Emme; which, as it often changes its bed, frequently does much miſchief. It runs at the foot of a rock of a prodigious height, and there is a ſtone bridge over it. Near the town there is a ſulphurous ſpring which ſupplies their baths with water, reckoned good againſt palſies and diſeaſes of the nerves. Lon. 7. 35. E. Lat. 47. 6. N.

* BURGEOIS. *n. ſ.* [*bourgeois*, Fr.] 1. A citizen; a burgeſs.—It is a republick itſelf, under the protection of the 8 ancient cantons. There are in it 100 *burgeois*, and about 1000 ſouls. *Addiſon on Italy.* 2. A type of a particular ſort, probably called ſo from him who firſt uſed it; as,

Laugh where we muſt, be candid where we can,
But vindicate the ways of God to man. *Pope.*

BURGEON, [*bourgeon*, Fr. a bud,] in gardening, a knot or button put forth by the branch of a tree in ſpring; the ſame with EYE, BUD, or GERM.

(1.) * BURGESS. *n. ſ.* [*burgeois*, Fr.] 1. A citizen; a freeman of a city or corporate town. 2. A repreſentative of a town corporate.—The whole caſe was diſperſed by the knights of ſhires, and *burgeſſes* of towns, through all the veins of the land. *Wotton.*

(2.) BURGESS likewiſe ſignifies one who poſſeſſes a tenement in a borough. The word is alſo applied to the magiſtrates of ſome towns; as the bailiff and burgeſſes of Leominſter. Ancient the burgeſſes were held in great contempt; being ſo

puted ſervile, baſe, and unfit for war; ſo that the gentry were not allowed to intermarry in their families, or fight with them; but, in lieu thereof, were to appoint champions. A burgeſs's ſon was reputed of age, when he could diſtinctly count money, meaſure cloth, &c.

(3.) BURGESSES, in the 2d ſenſe above ſtated, (§ 1) are ſuppoſed to repreſent the mercantile part, or trading intereſt of the nation. They were formerly allowed, by a rate eſtabliſhed in the reign of Edward III. 2s. a-day as wages. It is to be regretted, that the members for boroughs bear above a quadruple proportion to thoſe for counties. The right of election of burgeſſes depends on ſeveral local charters and cuſtoms: though, by 2 Geo. II. c. 24. the right for the future ſhall be allowed according to the laſt determination of the houſe of commons concerning it: and by 3 Geo. II. c. 15. no freeman, except ſuch as claim by birth, ſervitude, or marriage, ſhall be intitled to vote, unleſs he hath been admitted to his freedom 12 months before. No perſon is eligible as a burgeſs, who hath not a clear eſtate of L. 300 a year.

BURG-GRAVE properly denotes the hereditary governor of a caſtle, or fortified town, chiefly in Germany. The word is compounded of *bourg*, *town*, and *graf*, or *grave*, *count*. The burg-graves were originally the ſame with what we otherwiſe call *caſtellans*, or *comites caſtellani*; but their dignity was conſiderably advanced under Rudolph of Hapſburgh; before his time they were ranked only as counts, and below the princes, but under him began to be eſteemed on a footing with princes. In ſome parts, the dignity is much degenerated, eſpecially in the palatinate. There were formerly, ſays Leti, 15 families who enjoyed the title of burg-graves, 13 of which are now extinct. But this is differently repreſented by others. In Bohemia the title of Burg-grave is given to the chief officer, or to him that commands in quality of viceroy. In Pruſſia, the burg-grave is one of the chief officers of the province. In Guelderland, the burg-grave of Nimeguen is preſident of the ſtates of the province.

(1.) * BURGH. *n. ſ.* [See BURROW.] A corporate town or borow.—Many towns in Cornwall, when they were firſt allowed to ſend burgeſſes to parliament, bore another proportion to London than now; for ſeveral of theſe *burghs* ſend two burgeſſes, whereas London itſelf ſends but four. *Graunt.*

(2.) BURGH, or BOROUGH. See BOROUGH.

(3.) BURGH, or DUN. See DUN.

(4.) BURGH, James, an ingenious moral and political writer, born at Maderty, in Perthſhire, in 1714. He ſtudied at St Andrews, with the intention of becoming a clergyman; but bad health obliged him to turn to the linen trade; which not proving ſucceſsful, he went to England and commenced corrector of the preſs, to an eminent printer, for whom he alſo made indexes. After this he removed to Great Marlow, as aſſiſtant at a ſchool; where he firſt commenced author, in 1746, by writing a pamphlet, entitled *Britain's Remembrancer*; which went through 5 large editions in two years; was reprinted in England, Ireland, and America; was aſcribed to ſeveral biſhops, and quoted by churchmen and diſſenters from the pulpit. In 1747, he opened an academy at Stoke-Newington, in Middleſex; and his ſcholars increaſing rapidly, he removed, in 1750, to a large houſe in Newington Green, where he taught for 19 years, with high reputation, and trained up many to knowledge and virtue. In 1751, he married Mrs Harding, a widow lady, who concurred with him in his laudable undertakings. After a very uſeful and laborious life, he retired from buſineſs, in 1771, and ſettled in Wington, with the view of finiſhing a work he had long collected materials for, entitled *Political Diſquiſitions* which came out in 1774 and 1775, in 3 vols, although he was then ſeverely afflicted with the ſtone; of which he died, 26 Aug. 1775, aged 62. His other works were, 1. Thoughts on Education, 1747: 2. An Hymn to the Creator; with an Idea of the Creator from his works, in proſe; 1750: 3. A Warning to Dram-Drinkers, 1751: 4. The Dignity of Human Nature, 1754. 4to, and 1767, 2 vols 8vo. 5. Youth's Friendly Monitor; 1756, 12mo. 6. Political Speculations, 1758: 7. The Rationale of Chriſtianity, 1760: 8. An Account of the Laws, Government, &c. of the Ceſſares, &c. a political romance, 8vo. 1760: 9. The Art of Speaking, 1762: (5th edit. in 1782:) 10. Crito, or Eſſays on Various Subjects;—with a humorous dedication, "*To the Rt. Rev. Father (of three years old)* His R. H. Frederick, biſhop of Oſnaburgh:" 11. Propoſals for an Aſſociation againſt Engroſſers, Foreſtallers, &c. 1776: 12. Crito, vol. 2. (replete with political ſatire,) with a long dedication, "To the good people of Britain of the 20th century." Beſides theſe, he publiſhed ſeveral periodical pieces in the Newſpapers: particularly, 1. *The Free Enquirer*; in the Gen. Even. Poſt, 1753-4: 2. *The Conſtitutionaliſt*, in 1770: intended to recommend Annual Parliaments, Adequate Repreſentation, and a Place-bill: and, 3. *The Coloniſt's Advocate*, in favour of the Americans; about 1771. Both theſe laſt were in a ſeries of letters in the Gazetteer.

(5.) BURGH, in geography, a town of Lincolnſhire, between Saltfleet and Wainfleet; 12 miles N. N. E. of Boſton; and 133 N. of London. It has a market on Thurſ. and fairs, May 12. Aug. 26. and Oct. 2.

(6.) BURGH, or BOROUGH, a town in Cambridgeſhire, 6 m. S. of Newmarket.

(7.) BURGH, or BURGH-HEAD, a peninſula with an old fort, on the coaſt of Morayſhire, in the pariſh of Duffus, of which (ſays Buchanan) the Danes "made an iſland, by cutting through a narrow neck of land," and ſtrongly fortified it in the reign of Malcolm II; who ceded this part of Moray to them, after being defeated by them, though he headed his army in perſon. "All our hiſtorians are miſtaken in placing this fort, (as Buchanan alſo does) at *Nairn*, where there never was any ſuch building. But in this pariſh the peninſula is ſituated; and upon it there are large remains of a regular fortification. The cut made to inſulate the promontory is yet viſible, but now dry and nearly filled up. The place ſtill retains its Daniſh name, being generally called BURGH, and ſometimes BURGH-HEAD." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* VIII. 395.

(8—14.) BURGH, the name of 7 ſmall towns or villages: viz. 1. in Derby, near Caſtleton, in the high peak: 2. in Dorſetſhire, 3 m. from Axminſter: 3. in Lancaſhire, S. of the Pele: 4. in Norfolkſhire, W. of Kirby: 5. in Shropſhire, 5 m. from Wem: 6. in Suffolk, near Clopton: and, 7. in Yorkſhire, near Perriby.

BURGHAM-CASTLE, in Weſtmoreland, 5 m. S. E. of Appleby.

BURGH-BOTE ſignifies contribution towards the building or repairing of caſtles, or walls, for the defence of a borough or city. By the law of king Athelſtan, the caſtles and walls of towns were to be repaired, and burgh-bote levied every year within a fortnight after rogation days. No perſon whatever was exempted; the king himſelf could not exempt a man from burgh-bote: yet, in after times, exemptions appear to have been frequently granted; inſomuch, that, according to Cowel, the word *burgh-bote* came to be chiefly uſed to denote not the ſervice but the liberty or exemption from it.

BURGH-BRECHE, a fine impoſed on the community of a town, or burgh, for the breach of peace among them.

BURGH-CASTLE, or BOROUGH-CASTLE, a fortreſs on the edge of the county of Suffolk, 3 m. W. of Yarmouth, where the rivers Yare and Waveny meet. It was formerly a delightful place; but now only the ruins of its walls remain, near which Roman coins are often dug up.

BURGH-CLERE, W. of King's Clere, Hampſh.

(1.) * BURGHER. *n. ſ.* [from *burgh*.] One who has a right to certain privileges in this or that place. *Locke.*—

It irks me, the poor dappled fools,
Being native *burghers* of this deſart city,
Should in their own confines, with forked heads,
Have their round haunches goar'd.
Shakeſp. As you like it.

—After the multitude of the common people was diſmiſſed, and the chief of the *burghers* ſent for, the imperious letter was read before the better ſort of citizens. *Knolles.*

(2.) BURGHER. See BURGESS, § 1, 2.

(3.) BURGHER SECEDERS, a numerous and reſpectable claſs of diſſenters from the church of Scotland, who were originally connected with the ASSOCIATE PRESBYTERY; but ſome difference of ſentiment ariſing about the lawfulneſs of taking the Burgeſs oath, a ſeparation enſued in 1739; in conſequence of which, thoſe who pled for the affirmative, obtained the appellation of BURGHER, and their opponents that of ANTIBURGHER SECEDERS. See SECEDERS.

BURGHER-MASTER. See BURGO-MASTER.

* BURGHERSHIP. *n. ſ.* [from *burgher*.] The privilege of a burgher.

BURGH-GRAVE. See BURG-GRAVE.

BURGH-HALL, a town N. of Maſham, Yorkſh.

(1.) BURGH-HEAD, a village of Scotland, on the coaſt of Moray-ſhire, containing 400 inhabitants, of whom two thirds are ſailors or fiſhers, and the reſt maſons and quarriers. The coaſt is naturally well adapted for a deep, capacious, and ſafe harbour; has a fine bottom; ſhelter from all winds; and water of any neceſſary depth. As there is no river near it, it would be free from thoſe bars and ſhallows, which are conſtantly forming at the mouths of rivers. As ſuch a harbour could be erected at a moderate expence, and as there is not one good or ſafe one along the whole S. coaſt of the Moray Frith, from Buchan-Neſs to Inverneſs, (an extent of 100 miles,) it is ſurpriſing that one has not long ere now been erected at this ſtation. *Stat. Acc.* VIII. 390, 391.

(2.) BURGH-HEAD, a promontory on the coaſt of Galloway, in the pariſh of Whithorn; where the rev. Dr Iſaac Davidſon obſerves, a light-houſe would be of great uſe. He alſo mentions a ſingular phænomenon, that takes place on this coaſt; viz. that "from Port Yarrock round Burgh-Head, the tide flows cloſe along the ſhore *three* hours, and ebbs *nine*." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* XVI. 262.

BURGH-HILL; 1. N. of Hereford: 2. in Yorkſhire, near Bainbridge.

BURGH-HOUSE, 2 miles S. E. of Epſom, Surry.

BURGH MAILS, were yearly payments to the crown of Scotland, introduced by Malcolm III. and reſembling the *fee-farm* rents of boroughs in England. See MAIL.

BURGH-MASTER, an officer in the tin mines, who directs and lays out the meers for the workmen, &c. otherwiſe denominated bailiff and BARMASTER.

BURGHMOTE, the court of a borough. By the laws of king Edgar, the burghmote was to be held thrice in the year: by thoſe of Henry I. as often as neceſſary.

BURGH ST MARGARET. } Two villages in Nor-
BURGH ST MARY. } folk, near Yarmouth.

BURGH UPON BAIN, a village in Lincolnſhire, E. of Market-Raiſin.

BURGH UPON SANDS. See BURG, N° 6.

BURGHWARE, in old ſtatutes, a burgeſs.

BURGIMOTUS. See BURGHMOTE

(1.) * BURGLAR, *n. ſ.* One guilty of the crime of houſe breaking.

(2.) BURGLAR. See BURGLARY, § 3.

BURGLARIOUS, *adj.* belonging to burglary.

(1.) * BURGLARY. *n. ſ.* [from *burg*, a houſe, and *larron*, a thief.] In the natural ſignification, is nothing but the robbing of a houſe; but as it is a term of art, our common lawyers reſtrain it to robbing a houſe by night, or breaking it with an intent to rob, or to do ſome other felony. The like offence committed by day, they call houſe-robbing, by a peculiar name. *Cowel.*—What! for you, father? *Burglary* is but a venial ſin among ſoldiers. *Dryden's Spaniſh Fryar.*

(2.) BURGLARY, or NOCTURNAL HOUSE-BREAKING, (*burgo latrocinium,*) which by the ancient Engliſh law was called *hamefucken*, a word alſo uſed in the law of Scotland, but in a ſenſe ſomewhat different, has always been looked upon as a very heinous offence: not only becauſe of the abundant terror it carries with it, but alſo as it is a forcible invaſion and diſturbance of the right of habitation, which every individual might acquire even in a ſtate of nature; an invaſion which, in ſuch a ſtate, would be ſure to be puniſhed with death, unleſs the aſſailant were ſtronger. But, in civil ſociety, the laws come in to the aſſiſtance of the weaker party: and, beſides that they leave him this natural right of killing the aggreſſor if he can, they alſo protect and aſſiſt

him in caſe the aſſailant is too powerful. And the law has ſo particular and tender a regard to the immunity of a man's houſe, that it ſtyles it his *caſtle*, and will never ſuffer it to be violated with impunity; agreeing herein with the ſentiments of ancient Rome. For this reaſon no outward doors can in general be broken open to execute any civil proceſs; though in criminal cauſes the public ſafety ſuperſedes the private. See ARREST, N° I. § 2. Hence alſo in part ariſes the animadverſion of the law upon eaves-droppers, nuſancers, and incendiaries: and to this principle it muſt be aſſigned, that a man may aſſemble people together lawfully, (at leaſt if they do not exceed 11,) without danger of raiſing a riot, rout, or unlawful aſſembly, in order to protect his houſe; which he is not permitted to do in any other caſe.

(3.) BURGLARY, DEFINITIONS AND DISTINCTIONS OF. Sir Edward Coke's definition of a BURGLAR, is, "he that by night breaketh and entereth into a manſion houſe, with intent to commit a felony." In this definition there are 4 things to be conſidered; the *time*, the *place*, the *manner*, and the *intent*. I. The TIME muſt be by night, and not by day; for in the day-time there is no burglary; *i. e.* if there be day-light or crepuſculum enough, begun or left, to diſcern a man's face withal. But this does not extend to moonlight; for then many midnight burglaries would go unpuniſhed: and beſides, the malignity of the offence does not conſiſt ſo much in its being done in the dark, as at the dead of night; when all the creation, except beaſts of prey, are at reſt; when ſleep has diſarmed the owner, and rendered his caſtle defenceleſs. II. As to the PLACE. It muſt be, according to Sir Edward Coke's definition, in a manſion-houſe: for no diſtant barn, warehouſe, or the like, are under the ſame privileges, nor looked upon as a man's caſtle of defence; nor is a breaking open of houſes wherein no man reſides, and which for the time being are not manſion houſes, attended with the ſame circumſtances of midnight terror. A houſe, however, wherein a man ſometimes reſides, and which the owner hath left only for a ſhort ſeaſon, *animo revertendi*, is the object of burglary, though no one be in it at the time of the fact committed. And if the barn, ſtable, or warehouſe, be parcel of the manſion-houſe, though not under the ſame roof or contiguous, a burglary may be committed therein; for the capital houſe protects and privileges all its branches and appurtenants, if within the curtilage or homeſtall. A chamber in a college, or an inn of a court, where each inhabitant hath a diſtinct property, is, to all other purpoſes as well as this, the manſion houſe of the owner. So alſo is a room or lodging in any private houſe, the manſion for the time being of the lodger; if the owner doth not himſelf dwell in the houſe, or if he and the lodger enter by different outward doors. But if the owner himſelf lies in the houſe, and hath but one outward door at which he and his lodgers enter, ſuch lodgers ſeem only to be inmates, and all their apartments to be parcel of the one dwelling-houſe of the owner. III. As to the MANNER of committing burglary: there muſt be both a breaking and an entry to complete it. But they need not be both done at once; for if a hole be broken [illegible], and the ſame breakers enter the next night through the ſame, they are burglars. There muſt be an actual breaking; as, at leaſt, by breaking or taking out the glaſs of, or otherwiſe opening, a window; picking a lock, or opening it with a key; nay, by lifting up the latch of a door, or unlooſing any other faſtening which the owner has provided. But if a perſon leaves his doors or windows open, it is his own folly and negligence; and if a man enters therein, it is no burglary; yet, if he afterwards unlocks an inner or chamber door, it is ſo. But to come down a chimney is held a burglarious entry: for that is as much cloſed as the nature of things will permit. So alſo, to knock at a door, and upon opening it, to ruſh in with a felonious intent; or under pretence of taking lodgings, to fall upon the landlord and rob him; or to procure a conſtable to gain admittance in order to ſearch for traitors, and then to bind the conſtable and rob the houſe; all theſe entries have been adjudged burglarious, though there was no actual breaking: for the law will not ſuffer itſelf to be triſled with by ſuch evaſions, eſpecially under the cloak of legal proceſs. As for the ENTRY, any the leaſt degree of it, with any part of the body, or with an inſtrument held in the hand, is ſufficient: as, to ſtep over the threſhold, to put a hand or hook in at a window to draw out goods, or a piſtol to demand one's money, are all of them burglarious entries. The entry may be before the breaking, as well as after; for by ſtatute 12 Anne c. 7. if a perſon enters into the dwelling houſe of another, without breaking in either by day or by night, with an intent to commit any felony, or, being in ſuch houſe, ſhall commit felony; and ſhall in the night break out of the ſame; this is declared to be burglary. IV. As to the INTENT; it is clear that ſuch breaking and entry muſt be with a felonious intent, otherwiſe it is only a treſpaſs. And it is the ſame, whether intention be actually carried into execution, or only demonſtrated by ſome attempt or overt act, of which the jury is to judge. Burglary is a felony at common law, but within the benefit of clergy. Burglary in any houſe belonging to the plate-glaſs company, with intent to ſteal the ſtock or utenſils, is by ſtatute 13 Geo. III. c. 38. declared to be ſingle felony, and puniſhed with tranſportation 7 years.

BURGLES, a town of Tranſylvania, ſubject to Auſtria; 30 miles N. of Clauſenburg. Lon. 22. 40. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

* BURGMASTER. See BURGOMASTER.

BURGMOTE. See BURGH MOTE.

(1.) * BURGOMASTER. *n. ſ.* [from *burg*, and *maſter*.] One employed in the government of a city.—They chuſe their councils and *burgomaſters* out of the burgeois, as in the other governments of Switzerland. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BURGOMASTER, BURGHERMASTER, *Bourgermeſter*, or *Burgmeſter*, is the chief magiſtrate of the great towns in Flanders, Holland, and Germany. The power and juriſdiction of the burgomaſter is not the ſame in all places, every town having its particular cuſtoms and regulations: at Amſterdam there are, (or at leaſt *were* before the revolution,) 4 choſen by the voices of all thoſe people in the ſenate who have either been burgo-

masters or echevins. They dispose of all under offices that fall in their time, keep the key of the bank, and enjoy a salary of only 500 guildres; all feasts, public entertainments, &c. being defrayed out of the common treasury. The word is formed from the two Flemish words, *borger*, *burgess*, or *citizen*; and *mester*, *master*. Some express it in Latin by *consul*, others by *senator*.—Mr Brenau observes, that *burgermaster* in Holland answers to what is called *alderman* and *sheriff* in England, *attorney* at Compeigne, *capitoul* at Thoulouse, *consul* at Languedoc, &c.

BURGONET. See BURGANET.

BURGOO, or BURGOUT, a sea-faring dish, made of groats boiled in water till they burst, and then mixed with butter. It is cheap, and reckoned strengthening. Burgoo, otherwise called *loblolly*, is held by Cockburn very proper to correct that thickness of humours and costiveness to which the other diet of sailors much disposes them. Yet it is the least liked of all their provisions, because of the scanty allowance of butter to it. The same author thinks it might be worth the consideration of those to whom the care of the seamen is committed, to contrive to render this food more agreeable.

BURGOS, a city of Spain, the capital of Old Castile, with an archbishop's see, erected in 1574. It is surrounded with mountains, which render the air very cold 9 months in the year, and the other 3 excessive hot. It is seated on the declivity of a hill, on the top of which there is a strong castle, and the lower part of the town is watered by the river Alançon. The principal avenue to the city is by a handsome bridge over this river, which leads to a beautiful gate, adorned with the statues of several kings of Spain. The town is large and populous; but the houses are ill built, and the streets are narrow and dirty, except some few, especially that which leads to the cathedral. There are several squares, adorned with fountains and statues. The great square in the middle of the city is surrounded with fine houses, with piazzas to each. The cathedral church is a masterpiece of Gothic architecture, and one of the finest in all Spain. The church of the Augustines is remarkable for its beautiful and rich chapel of the holy crucifix. There are several fine convents and numeries; one of which last contains 150 nuns, of noble extraction. They have likewise a royal hospital, very richly endowed; and at this place they speak the best Castilian, that is, the purest Spanish in the kingdom. It is 95 miles E. by S. of Leon, and 117 N. of Madrid. Lon. 3. 30. W. Lat. 42. 20. N.

BURGOW. See BURGAW.

BURGOYNE, John, lieut. general in the army, colonel of the 4th regiment of foot, a Privy counsellor, and M. P. for Preston, was author of a much celebrated comedy, entitled *The Heiress*. When only a subaltern, he married Lady Charlotte Stanley; which, (as most love marriages are, where money is not on both sides,) was highly resented by the late E. of Derby, her father, who vowed never to see them again. As time, how-ed the general's character, the earl nced, that his daughter had married ed gentleman, an excellent scholar and a benevolent man; and he accordingly gave her the same annuity as her sisters, viz. L. 300 per annum; and L. 25,000 at his death. In June 1774 the general conducted the Fete Champetre given by Lord Derby at the oaks. In 1775, he was ordered on a more important enterprise in America; the unfortunate issue of which is well known. See AMERICA, § 28. In 1776 his lady died. In 1778, he returned home, and in 1779, he resigned all his emoluments, amounting to L. 3,500 a year. He died at London, Aug. 4, 1792.

BURGUNDIANS. See BOURGUIGNONS.

BURGUNDIONES, a branch of the ancient VINDILI or Wandili. Cluverius places them about the Warta, a river of Poland: though the conjectures on the seat of these people are doubtful; and no wonder, because the Roman expeditions terminated at the Elbe. They afterwards moved to the Cisalpin, Germany, and at length to Celtic Gaul, and gave name to the ci-devant duchy of Burgundy.

BURGUNDY, a ci-devant province of France, which contained, besides the government of Burgundy, Bresse, Bugey, and the district of Gex. There are some noted mineral springs in it, with subterraneous lakes, and plenty of ochre. For ages it had dukes of its own, subordinate to the crown of France; but Louis XI. upon the failure of the heirs male, seized upon it and annexed it to his crown. The principal places are Dijon, Auxerre, Autun, and Bourbon-L'Ancy. It is now divided into 3 departments. See BOURGOGNE.

BURGUS, a village in Cornwall, near Padstow Haven.

BURGWARD, or BURGWARDIUM, } in writers of the middle age, the same with BULWARK. The word is also extended to the town, and even the country about such a fortress.

To BURGYN. *v. n. obs.* To bud. *Chaucer.*

* BURH, is a tower; and from that a defence or protection; so *Cuenburh* is a woman ready to assist; *Cuthburr*, eminent for assistance. *Gibson's Camden.*

BURHAM, 2 villages: 1. in Kent, near Aylesford: 2. in Lincolnshire, in Goswell parish.

BURHANPOUR, a flourishing city of Indostan, the capital of Candeish. It is pleasantly situated, 225 miles E. by N. of Surat. Lon. 76. 29. E. Lat. 21. 25. N.

(1.) * BURIAL. *n. s.* [from *To bury.*] 1. The act of burying; sepulture; interment.—

Nor would we deign him *burial* of his men.
Shakespeare.

See my wealthy Andrew dock'd in sand,
Vailing her high top lower than her ribs,
To kiss her *burial*. *Shakesp. Merch. of Venice.*

Your body I sought, and had I found,
Design'd for *burial* in your native ground.
Dryden's Æneid.

2. The act of placing any thing under earth or water.—We have great lakes, both salt and fresh; we use them for *burials* of some natural bodies: for we find a difference of things buried in earth, and things buried in water. *Bacon.* 3. The church service for funerals.—The office of the church is performed by the parish priest, at the time of interment, if not prohibited unto persons excommunicated, and laying violent hands on themselves,

elves, by a rubrick of the *burial* ſervice. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

(2.) BURIAL, ANCIENT CUSTOMS RESPECTING. The rites of burial are looked upon in all countries, and at all times, as a debt ſo ſacred, that ach as neglected to diſcharge it were thought accurſed: hence the Romans called them *juſta*, and he Greeks πομπαι, ἐκφορα, ὁσια, words implying the violable obligations laid upon the living to take are of the obſequies of the dead. Nor can we onder, that the ancient Greeks and Romans ere anxious about the interment of their deeaſed friends, ſince they were perſuaded, that heir ſouls could not be admitted into the Elyſian elds till their bodies were committed to the arth; and if they never obtained burial, they ere excluded from theſe happy manſions for 100 ears. For this reaſon it was eſteemed a duty inumbent upon all travellers who ſhould meet with dead body, to caſt 3 handfuls of earth upon it; nd particularly one upon the head. The anients likewiſe conſidered it as a great misfortune f they were not laid in the ſepulchres of their faers; for which reaſon, ſuch as died in foreign ountries had uſually their aſhes brought home, nd interred with thoſe of their anceſtors. But here were ſome perſons whom they thought unorthy of burial; ſuch as, 1. Public or private nemies. 2. Such as betrayed or conſpired againſt heir country. 3. Tyrants, who were always look-d upon as enemies to their country. 4. Villains uilty of ſacrilege. 5. Such as died in debt, whoſe odies belonged to their creditors. And, 6. Some articular offenders, who ſuffered capital puniſhment. Of thoſe who were allowed the rites of urial, ſome were diſtinguiſhed by particular cirumſtances of diſgrace attending their interment: hus perſons killed by lightning were buried by hemſelves, being thought odious to the gods; hoſe who waſted their patrimony forfeited the ight of being buried in the ſepulchres of their athers; and thoſe who were guilty of ſelf-murder ere privately depoſited in the ground, without he accuſtomed ſolemnities. Among the Jews, he privilege of burial was denied only to ſelfnurderers, who were thrown out to rot upon the ground. The place of burial among them was ever particularly determined. They had graves n the town and country, upon the highways, in gardens, and upon mountains. Among the Greeks, he temples were made repoſitories for the dead n the primitive ages; yet the general cuſtom in latter ages, with them, as well as with the Romans nd other heathen nations, was to bury their dead without their cities, and chiefly by the highways. The primitive Chriſtians were not, like the heathens, ſo concerned for their bodies, as to think it any detriment to them, if either the barbarity of an enemy, or ſome other accident, deprived them of this privilege. The primitive Chriſtian church denied the more ſolemn rites of burial only to unbaptized perſons, ſelf-murderers, and excommunicated perſons who continued obſtinate and impenitent, in contempt of the church's cenſures. Burying in cities was not allowed for the firſt 300 years, nor in churches for many ages after, the dead bodies being firſt depoſited in the atrium or churchyard, and porches and portices of the church: hereditary burying-places were forbidden till the 12th century. See farther on this ſubject under FUNERAL RITES.

BURICK, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and the duchy of Cleves, ſubject to the king of Pruſſia. It was taken by the French in 1672, who demoliſhed the fortifications. It is agreeably ſeated on the Rhine, over againſt Weſel, 20 miles S. of Cleves. Lon. 6. 5. E. Lat. 51. 35. N.

BURICOURT, a village in Hampſhire, between Bentley and Dogmersfield.

BURIDAN, John, a native of Bethune, in Artois, was one of the moſt celebrated philoſophers of the 14th century. He taught in the univerſity of Paris, about A. D. 1320, with great reputation; and wrote commentaries on logic, morality, and Ariſtotle's metaphyſics. Aventinus relates, that he was a diſciple of Ockam; and that, being expelled Paris by the power of the Realiſts, which was ſuperior to that of the Nominaliſts, he went into Germany, where he founded the univerſity of Vienna. From him came the proverb of the *aſs of Buridan*, ſo famous in the ſchools. Buridan ſuppoſed an hungry aſs fixed at an exactly equal diſtance between two buſhels of oats: or an aſs, as much preſſed by thirſt as hunger, between a buſhel of oats and a pail of water, each of them acting equally on his ſenſes. Having made this ſuppoſition, he deſired to know what the aſs would do? If he was anſwered, that he would remain immoveable, then he concluded he would die of hunger between two buſhels of oats, or of both hunger and thirſt, with both corn and water within his reach. This appeared abſurd, and brought the laughter on his ſide; but if it was replied, that the aſs would not be ſo ſtupid as to die of hunger or thirſt in ſuch a ſituation, Then, (ſaid he,) the aſs has free will, or is it poſſible that of two *equal* weights one ſhould *outweigh* the other? Theſe two conſequences appeared equally abſurd; and thus Buridan, by this ſophiſm, perplexed the philoſophers, and his aſs became famous in the ſchools.

BURIENS, ST, a village in Cornwall, 5 miles from Penzance.

* BURIER. *n. ſ.* [from *bury*.] He that buries; he that performs the act of interment.—

Let one ſpirit of the firſt-born Cain
Reign in all boſoms, that, each heart being ſet
On bloody courſes, the rude ſcene may end,
And darkneſs be the *burier* of the dead.
Shakeſp. Henry IV.

* BURINE. *n. ſ.* [French.] A graving tool; a graver.—Wit is like the graver's *burine* upon copper, or the corrodings of aquafortis, which engrave and indent the characters, that can never be defaced. *Government of the Tongue.*

BURINGHAM, a village in Lincolnſhire, near the iſle of Axholm.

BURIS, a name given by Avicenna, and ſome other old authors, to a ſcirrhous hernia.

BURKE, a mountainous county of North Carolina in the diſtrict of Morgan; bounded on the N. by Wilkes, on the E. by Iredell, on the S. by Rutherford, and on the W. by Buncomb, counties. It contains about 7000 free inhabitants, and 450 ſlaves. Morgantown is the chief town.

BURKET, a town near Shrivenham, Berks.

BURK-

BURKHAUSEN. See BURCHAUSEN.

BURKITT, William, a celebrated commentator on the New Teſtament, was born at Hitcham in Northamptonſhire, July 25, 1650, and educated at Cambridge. He entered young upon the miniſtry, at Milden in Suffolk, where he continued 21 years, firſt as curate, and afterwards as rector of that church. In 1692, he had a call to the vicarage of Dedham in Eſſex, where he continued till his death, Oct. 1703. He was pious and charitable. He made great collections for the French proteſtants in the years 1687, &c. and procured a worthy miniſter to go and ſettle in Carolina. Among other charities, by his laſt will he bequeathed the houſe wherein he lived, with the lands belonging to it, in perpetuity, to the lecturer at Dedham. Beſides his Commentary, he wrote a work intitled, *The poor man's help, and rich man's guide.*

* *To* BURL. *v. a.* To dreſs cloth as fullers do. *Dict.*

* BURLACE. *n. ſ.* [corruptly written for *burdelais.*] A ſort of grape.

BURLAMAQUI, John James, an illuſtrious civilian, born at Geneva, and profeſſor of civil law there. Prince Frederick of Heſſe-Caſſel, being his pupil, took him with him in 1734, and detained him ſeveral years. On his return to Geneva, he was named Counſellor of State, and died there in 1748. His *Principles of Natural Law*, firſt raiſed his fame; and are ſaid to contain the eſſence of Puffendorf, Grotius and Barbeyrac. He wrote alſo *The Principles of Political Law.* Both are in French.

BURLAND, two villages; 1. in Cheſhire, S. E. of Combermere: 2. in Somerſetſhire, between Taunton and Combe St Nicholas.

BURLATON, in Staffordſh. near Sheriff-Hales.

BURLAW. See BY-LAW.

BURLED, *adj. obſ.* Armed. *Aſh.*

(1.) BURLEIGH, a village in Northamptonſh. one mile S. E. of Stamford.

(2.) BURLEIGH, Lord. See CECIL.

BURLESCOMB, a village in Devonſhire, near Holcomb.

(1.) * BURLESQUE. *adj.* [Fr. from *burlare*, Ital. to jeſt.] Jocular; tending to raiſe a laughter, by unnatural or unſuitable language or image.—Homer, in his character of Vulcan and Therſites, in his ſtory of Mars and Venus, in his behaviour of Irus, and in other paſſages, has been obſerved to have lapſed into the *burleſque* character, and to have departed from that ſerious air, eſſential to the magnificence of an epick poem. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * BURLESQUE. *n. ſ.* Ludicrous language, or ideas; ridicule.—When a man lays out a twelvemonth on the ſpots in the ſun, however noble his ſpeculations may be, they are very apt to fall into *burleſque. Addiſon on Ancient Medals.*

(3.) BURLESQUE, in compoſition, is diſtinguiſhable into burleſque that excites laughter merely, and burleſque that excites deriſion or ridicule. A grave ſubject, in which there is no impropriety, may be brought down by a certain colouring to be riſible, as in *Virgil Traveſtie*; the author firſt laughs at every turn in order to make his readers laugh. *The Lutrin* is a burleſque poem of the other ſort, laying hold of a low and trifling incident to expoſe the luxury, indolence, and contentious ſpirit, of a ſet of monks. Boileau, the author, turns the ſubject into ridicule, by dreſſing it in the heroic ſtyle, and affecting to conſider it as of the utmoſt dignity and importance. Though ridicule is the poet's aim, he always carries a grave face, and never once betrays a ſmile. The oppoſition between the ſubject and the manner of handling it, is what produces the ridicule; and therefore, in a compoſition of this kind, no image profeſſedly ludicrous ought to be admitted, becauſe ſuch images deſtroy the contraſt. Though the burleſque that aims at ridicule produces its effects by elevating the ſtyle far above the ſubject; yet the poet ought to confine himſelf to ſuch images as are lively, and readily apprehended. A ſtrained elevation, ſoaring above the ordinary reach of fancy, makes not a pleaſant impreſſion. The mind is ſoon diſguſted by being kept long on the ſtretch. Machinery may be employed in a burleſque poem, ſuch as *the Lutrin*, *the Dyſpenſary*, or *Hudibras*, with more ſucceſs and propriety than in any other ſpecies of poetry. For burleſque poems, though they aſſume the air of hiſtory, give entertainment chiefly by their pleaſant and ludicrous pictures: it is not the aim of ſuch a poem to raiſe ſympathy; and for that reaſon, a ſtrict imitation of nature is not neceſſary. And hence, the more extravagant the machinery in a ludicrous poem, the more entertainment it affords.

* *To* BURLESQUE. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To turn to ridicule.—Would Homer apply the epithet divine to a modern ſwineherd? if not, it is an evidence, that Eumeus was a man of conſequence; otherwiſe Homer would *burleſque* his own poetry. *Broome's Notes on the Odyſſey.*

BURLESTON, a town in Dorſetſhire, near Athelhamſton.

BURLET, *n. ſ. obſ.* a hood; a coif. *Aſh.*

(1—3.) BURLEY, the name of 4 villages. viz. 1. in the New Foreſt, Hampſhire: 2. in Shropſhire, N. of Ludlow: 3. in Yorkſh. near Otley: and,

(4.) BURLEY ON THE HILL, in Rutlandſhire, near Oakham.

BURLEY-PARK, in Leiceſterſhire, near Loughborough.

* BURLINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *burly.*] Bulk, bluſter.

(1.) BURLINGTON, a town in Shropſhire, S. W. of Wem.

(2.) BURLINGTON, a large maritime county of the United States in New-Jerſey, 55 miles in length from the mouth of Mullicus river to Trenton, and 28 in breadth. It is bounded on the N. E. by Middleſex and Monmouth counties, N. W. by Hunterdon, and Delaware river, which ſeparates it from Pennſylvania, S. E. by the Atlantic, S. and S. W. by Glouceſter county. It is divided into 11 townſhips, viz. Cheſterfield, Nottingham, Little Egg-harbour, Eveſham, New Hanover, Cheſter, Springfield, Northampton, Mansfield, Burlington and Williamſbourgh. It contains 17,868 free inhabitants, and 227 ſlaves. The N. E. boundary of this county was the old diviſional line of Eaſt and Weſt Jerſey. The interior part of the county is one extenſive foreſt of pine trees.

(3.) BURLINGTON, an iſland of New Jerſey. See N. 4.

(4.) BURLINGTON city, the capital of the preceding county. (N. 2) It is ſituated partly on an iſland, and partly on the S. E. ſide of the Delaware, and extends, according to its charter, one mile back and 3 miles along the river. The iſland, which is the moſt populous part of the town, is a mile and a quarter in length, and ½ of a mile in breadth. It communicates with the main land by 4 bridges, and cauſeways. On the iſland are about 160 houſes, 1,000 white, and 100 black inhabitants. Few of the blacks are ſlaves: the main ſtreets are regular and ſpacious, and generally ornamented with trees in the front of the houſes. The Delaware, oppoſite the town, is nearly a mile wide, and under ſhelter of Muttinicunck, and Burlington iſland, affords a ſafe and convenient harbour. It is advantageouſly ſituated for trade, but is too near Philadelphia to admit of an extenſive commerce. The public buildings are two market-houſes, a court-houſe, and jail, which is reckoned the ſtrongeſt in the ſtate; beſides two houſes for public worſhip, viz. one for Epiſcopalians, and one for Friends or Quakers, who are the moſt numerous. There are alſo an academy, a free ſchool, a nail manufactory, and a large diſtillery. The academy has been lately eſtabliſhed, and is under the direction of 7 truſtees, and the inſtruction of two preceptors. The iſland of Burlington was laid out, and the firſt ſettlement eſtabliſhed about the year 1677, five years after Mittinicunck or Free School iſland was given for the uſe of the iſland of Burlington; the yearly profits ariſing from it amount to L. 180, and are appropriated for the education of poor children. The city was a free port under the ſtate government; but has been eſtabliſhed by Congreſs a port of entry, and a collector appointed for it. However it carries on no foreign trade, its principal intercourſe is with Philadelphia. In the charter granted by the ſtate legiſlature, the mayor, recorder and aldermen had the power of holding a commercial court, when the matter in controverſy was between foreigners and foreigners, or between citizens and foreigners. But theſe powers, are abrogated by the Federal Conſtitution. It is 20 miles N. E. of Philadelphia by water, and 17 by land. Lon. 75. 10. W. Lat. 40. 17. N.

(5.) BURLINGTON, the capital of Chittendon county, Vermont. It is beautifully ſituated on Lake Champlain at the confluence of Onion river, and contains about 30 houſes compactly built. A law was paſſed by the legiſlature of Vermont, the 2d of November, 1791, for founding an univerſity in this town. Large ſubſcriptions and donations of land and other property, have been made by individuals, for the purpoſe of erecting convenient buildings, and eſtabliſhing a fund. From the agreeableneſs of the ſituation, and the ſalubrity of the climate, there is little doubt but it will become an inſtitution of much public utility. It is 130 miles N. of Bennington, 330 N. by E. of New-York, and 425 N. N. E. of Philadelphia. Lon. 1. 53. E. Lat. 44. 30. N. from Philadelphia.

(6.) BURLINGTON. See BRIDLINGTON.

* BURLY. *adj.* [*Junius* has no etymology; *Skinner* imagines it to come from *boorlike*, clownish.] Great of ſtature; great of ſize; bulky; tumid.—Steel, if thou turn thine edge, or cut not out the *burly* boned clown in chines of beef, ere thou ſleep in thy ſheath, I beſeech Jove, that thou may'ſt be turned into hobnails. *Shakeſpeare.*—It was the orator's own *burly* way of nonſenſe. *Cowley.*—

Away with all your Carthaginian ſtate,
Let vanquiſh'd Hannibal without doors wait,
Too *burly* and too big to paſs my narrow gate.
Dryden.

—Her huſband, being a very *burly* man, ſhe thought it would be leſs trouble for her to bring away little Cupid. *Addiſon.*

BURMAH, an extenſive kingdom of Aſia, E. of the Ganges, ſometimes called AVA, from the name of its capital. It is bounded by Aracan on the W. Upper Siam on the E. and Pegu on the S. and occupies both ſides of the Ava, as far as the frontiers of China. This country produces ſome of the beſt *teck* timber in India. Ships built of teek upwards of 40 years old are common in the Indian ſeas; while a European ſhip is ruined there in 5 years. Burmah has ſeveral valuable mines, and abounds in elephants, horſes, and other animals. The country is fertile, but little known to Europeans.

(1, 2.) BURMAN, Francis, a Proteſtant miniſter, and learned profeſſor of divinity at Utrecht, was born at Leyden in 1628; and died on the 10th of November 1679, after having publiſhed a courſe of divinity, and ſeveral other works. His ſon Francis was alſo an author.

(3.) BURMAN, Peter, profeſſor of hiſtory and eloquence, in the univerſity of Leyden, and rector magnificus of that univerſity. Upon quitting the rectorſhip, in 1720, he delivered an ironical oration "*againſt* the learned languages, hiſtory, eloquence and criticiſm, as not only *uſeleſs* but *dangerous* to the ſtudies of law, phyſic, philoſophy and divinity, &c. Dr Bentley ſtiles this "a fine oration, all wrote in Lucian's manner." Burman tranſlated Petronius Arbiter and wrote commentaries on that and Phædrus, Lucan, Virgil, Ovid, Juſtin and other claſſics. He wrote alſo ſeveral other works, which involved him in diſputes with the literati; particularly the learned Le Clerc, whom Burman attacked with great virulence, in his preface to Petronius. Le Clerc in his reply ſaid, "One may ſee that Mr Burman has profited exceedingly from the ſtudy of Petronius; and that he is perfectly free from the hypocriſy of the monks. His delicacy is obſervable in the promiſe he has made the public in the ſame preface; where he ſays, that 'he has a deſign, if God ſhall grant life and ſtrength, not only to publiſh another vol. of the verſes aſcribed to Petronius, but alſo to enrich it with the Catalecta Scaligeri,' &c. that is, (adds Le Clerc,) Mr Burman intends with *God's bleſſing*, not only to publiſh a collection of moſt *bawdy poems*, among which are the *Priapeia*, but alſo to enrich them with a commentary. Theſe things are very unbecoming a profeſſor of a Chriſtian Univerſity,—not to mention his imprudence, at a time when an action was commenced againſt him by a young girl for debauching her." Burman died in 1740.

BURMANNIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, in the hexandria claſs of plants; ranked,

ranked, in the natural method, under the 10th order, Coronariæ. The flower is ſmall, and conſiſts of three minute, ovated, oblong petals, ſituated at the mouth of the cup; the fruit is an involuted capſule, of a cylindraceo-trigonal figure, formed of 3 valves, with 3 cells, containing many ſmall ſeeds. There are two ſpecies.

BURMASH, a village in Rumney-marſh, Kent.

BURMINGTON, S. E. of Shipton, Warwickſh.

(1.) * BURN. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A hurt cauſed by fire.—We ſee the phlegm of vitriol is a very effectual remedy againſt *burns*. *Boyle*.

(2.) BURN, in ſurgery. See SURGERY.

(3.) BURN, in the Gaelic language, ſignifies a rivulet, in which ſenſe it is ſtill uſed in moſt parts of Scotland.

(1.) * *To* BURN. *v. a.* preterite and participle *burned*, or *burnt*. [*bernan*, Saxon.] 1. To conſume with fire.—They *burnt* Jericho with fire. *Joſhua*.—The fire *burneth* the wood. *Pſalms*.—

Altar of Syrian mode, whereon to *burn*
His odious offerings. *Milton*.

That where ſhe ſed his amorous deſires
With ſoft complaints, and felt his hotteſt fires,
There other flames might waſte his earthly part,
And *burn* his limbs where love had burn'd his heart. *Dryden*.

—A fleſhy excreſcence, becoming exceeding hard, is ſuppoſed to demand extirpation, by *burning* away the induration, or amputating. *Sharp's Surgery*. 2. To wound or hurt with fire or heat.—Hand for hand, foot for foot, *burning* for *burning*, wound for wound, ſtripe for ſtripe. *Exodus*, xxi. 25. 3. To exert the qualities of heat, as by drying or ſcorching.—

O that I could but weep, to vent my paſſion!
But this dry ſorrow *burns* up all my tears. *Dryd*.

(2.) * *To* BURN. *v. n.* 1. To be on fire; to be kindled.—A fire devoureth before them, and behind them a flame *burneth*: the land is as the garden of Eden before them, and behind them a deſolate wilderneſs. *Joel*.—The mount *burned* with fire. *Exodus*.—

O coward conſcience! how doſt thou afflict me?
The light *burns* blue—Is it not dead midnight?
Cold trembling drops ſtand on my trembling fleſh. *Shakeſpeare*.

2. To ſhine; to ſparkle.—

The barge ſhe ſat in, like a burniſh'd throne,
Burnt on the water. *Shakeſ*.

Oh! prince, oh! wherefore *burn* your eyes? and why
Is your ſweet temper turn'd to fury? *Rowe*.

3. To be inflamed with paſſion, or deſire.—When I *burnt* in deſire to queſtion them farther, they made themſelves air, into which they vaniſhed. *Shakeſpeare*.—

Tranio, I *burn*, I pine, I periſh, Tranio,
If I atchieve not this young modeſt girl. *Shakeſ*.

In Raleigh mark their every glory mix'd;
Raleigh, the ſcourge of Spain; whoſe breaſt with all
The ſage, the patriot, and the hero *burn'd*. *Thomſon*.

4. To act with deſtructive violence, uſed of the paſſions.—Shall thy wrath *burn* like fire? *Pſalms*.

5. To be in a ſtate of deſtructive commotion.—

The nations bleed where'er her ſteps ſhe turns,
The groan ſtill deepens and the combat *burns*. *Pope*.

6. It is uſed particularly of love.—

She *burns*, ſhe raves, ſhe dies, 'tis true,
But *burns*, and raves, and dies for you. *Addiſon*.

BURN-ANNE, a rivulet in Ayrſhire, which runs into the Irvine.

BURN-BREA. See BELL, N. II.

BURNBY, two villages; 1. in Suffolk, E. of Beccles: 2. in Yorkſh. near Pocklington.

BURNCHURCH, in Kilkenny, Ireland.

BURNEP, in Durham, near Cumberland.

* BURNER. *n. ſ.* [from *burn*.] A perſon that burns any thing.

BURNERE, a village in the county of Cornwall, near Padſtow Haven.

BURNES, in Cumberland, N. of Keſwick.

BURNESS, a pariſh of Scotland in the iſle of Sanday, in Orkney, united to thoſe of Croſs and N. Ronaldſhay. Its population, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Clouſton in his report to Sir J. Sinclair was 390, in 1791, when there were 211 horſes, 116 black cattle, 1100 ſheep, and 36 ſwine in it. See CROSS, N. 5.

(1.) BURNET, Gilbert, biſhop of Saliſbury in the latter end of the 17th century, was born at Edinburgh, in 1643, of an ancient family in Aberdeen-ſhire. His father being bred to the law, was, at the reſtoration, appointed one of the lords of ſeſſion, with the title of *lord Cramond*, in reward for his conſtant attachment to the royal party during the republic. Our author, the youngeſt ſon of his father, was inſtructed by him in the Latin tongue: at ten years of age he was ſent to the univerſity of Aberdeen, and was admitted M. A. before he was 14. His own inclination led him to the ſtudy of the civil and feudal law; and he uſed to ſay, that from this ſtudy he had received more juſt notions concerning civil ſociety and government, than thoſe which ſome divines maintain. About a year after, he changed his mind, and began to apply to divinity, to the great ſatisfaction of his father. He was admitted preacher before he was 18; and Sir Alexander Burnet, his couſin-german, offered him a benefice; which he refuſed to accept of. In 1663, about two years after the death of his father, he went into England; and after ſix months ſtay at Oxford and Cambridge, returned to Scotland; which he left in 1664, to make a tour in Holland and France. At Amſterdam, by the help of a Jewiſh rabbi, he perfected himſelf in the Hebrew language; and likewiſe became acquainted with the leading men of the different perſuaſions tolerated in that country; as Calviniſts, Arminians, Lutherans, Anabaptiſts, Browniſts, Papiſts, and Unitarians; amongſt each of which ſects, he uſed to declare, he met with men of ſuch unfeigned piety and virtue, that he became fixed in a ſtrong principle of univerſal charity, and an invincible abhorrence of all ſeverities on account of religious opinions. Upon his return from his travels, he was admitted miniſter of Salton; in which ſtation he ſerved 5 years in the moſt exemplary manner. He drew up a memorial, in which he took notice of the principal errors in the conduct of the Scots biſhops, which he obſerved not to be conformable

to

to the primitive inſtitution; and ſent a copy of it to ſeveral of them. This expoſed him to their reſentments: but, to ſhow he was not actuated with a ſpirit of ambition, he led a retired courſe of life for two years; which ſo endangered his health, that he was obliged to abate his exceſſive application to ſtudy. In 1669, he publiſhed his *Modeſt and free conference between a conformiſt and non-conformiſt*. He became acquainted with the ducheſs of Hamilton, who communicated to him all the papers belonging to her father and her uncle; upon which he drew up the *Memoirs of the dukes of Hamilton*. The duke of Lauderdale, hearing he was about this work, invited him to London, and introduced him to king Charles II. He returned to Scotland, and married the lady Margaret Kennedy, daughter of the earl of Caſſillis; a lady of great piety and knowledge, highly eſteemed by the preſbyterians, to whoſe ſentiments ſhe was ſtrongly inclined. As there was ſome diſparity in their ages, that it might remain paſt diſpute that this match was wholly owing to inclination, and not to avarice or ambition, the day before their marriage our author delivered the lady a deed, whereby he renounced all pretenſions to her fortune, which was very conſiderable, and muſt otherwiſe have fallen into his hands, ſhe herſelf having no intention to ſecure it. The ſame year he publiſhed his *Vindication of the authority, conſtitution, and laws of the church and ſtate of Scotland*; which at that juncture was looked upon as ſo great a ſervice, that he was again offered a biſhopric, and a promiſe of the next vacant archbiſhopric; but did not accept of it, becauſe he could not approve of the meaſures of the court, the grand view of which he ſaw to be the advancement of popery. His intimacy with the dukes of Hamilton and Lauderdale occaſioned him to be frequently ſent for by the king and the duke of York, who had converſations with him in private. But Lauderdale conceiving a reſentment againſt him on account of the freedom with which he ſpoke to him, repreſented at laſt to the king, that Dr Burnet was engaged in an oppoſition to his meaſures. Upon his return to London, he perceived that theſe ſuggeſtions had entirely thrown him out of the king's favour, though the duke of York treated him with greater civility than ever, and diſſuaded him from going to Scotland. Upon this, he reſigned his profeſſorſhip at Glaſgow, and ſtaid at London. About this time the living at Cripple-gate being vacant, the dean and chapter of St Paul's (in whoſe gift it was,) hearing of his circumſtances, and the hardſhips he had undergone, ſent him an offer of the benefice; but as he had been informed of their firſt intention of conferring it on Dr Fowler, he generouſly declined it. In 1675, at the recommendation of lord Hollis, whom he had known in France, ambaſſador at that court, he was, by Sir Herbottle Grimſtone, maſter of the rolls, appointed preacher of the chapel there, notwithſtanding the oppoſition of the court. He was ſoon after choſen a lecturer of St Clement's, and became one of the preachers that were moſt followed in town. In 1679, he publiſhed his *Hiſtory of the Reformation*, for which he had the thanks of both houſes of parliament. The firſt part of it was publiſhed in 1679, and the ad in 1681. Next year he publiſhed an abridgement of theſe two parts. Dr Burnet about this time happened to be ſent for to a woman in ſickneſs, who had been engaged in an amour with the earl of Rocheſter. The manner in which he treated her during her illneſs, gave that lord a great curioſity for being acquainted with him. Whereupon, for a whole winter, he ſpent one evening in a week with Dr Burnet, who diſcourſed with him upon all thoſe topics upon which ſceptics and men of looſe morals attack the Chriſtian religion. The happy effect of theſe conferences occaſioned the publication of his account of the life and death of that earl. In 1682, when the adminiſtration was changed in favour of the duke of York, being much reſorted to by perſons of all ranks and parties, in order to avoid returning viſits, he built a laboratory, and went for a year through a courſe of chemical experiments. Not long after, he refuſed a living of 300l. a-year offered him by the earl of Eſſex, on the terms of his not reſiding there, but in London. When the inquiry concerning the popiſh plot was on foot, he was frequently ſent for and conſulted by king Charles, on the ſtate of the nation. The king offered him the biſhopric of Chicheſter, if he would engage in his intereſts; but he refuſed to accept it on theſe terms. He preached at the Rolls till 1684, when he was diſmiſſed by order of the court. About this time he publiſhed ſeveral pieces. On king James's acceſſion, having obtained leave to go out of the kingdom, he firſt went to Paris, and lived in great retirement, till contracting an acquaintance with brigadier Stouppe, a Proteſtant gentleman in the French ſervice, he made a tour with him into Italy. He met with an agreeable reception at Rome. Pope Innocent XI. hearing of our author's arrival, ſent the captain of the Swiſs guards to acquaint him he would give him a private audience in bed, to avoid the ceremony of kiſſing his holineſs's ſlipper. But Dr Burnet excuſed himſelf as well as he could. Some diſputes which our author had here concerning religion, beginning to be taken notice of, made it proper for him to quit the city; which, upon an intimation given him by prince Borgheſe, he accordingly did. He purſued his travels through Switzerland and Germany. In 1688, he came to Utrecht, with an intention to ſettle in one of the ſeven provinces. There he received an invitation from the prince and princeſs of Orange, (to whom their party in England had recommended him,) to come to the Hague, which he accepted. He was ſoon made acquainted with the ſecret of their counſels, and adviſed the fitting out of a fleet in Holland ſufficient to ſupport their deſigns and encourage their friends. This, and the *Account of his Travels*, in which he blends Popery and tyranny together, and repreſents them as inſeparable, with ſome papers reflecting on the proceedings of England, that came out in ſingle ſheets, and were diſperſed in ſeveral parts of England, moſt of which Mr Burnet owned himſelf the author of, alarmed king James; and were the occaſion of his writing twice againſt him to the princeſs of Orange, and inſiſting, by his ambaſſador, on his being forbid the court; which, after much importunity, was done, though he continued to

be truſted and employed as before, the Dutch miniſter conſulting him daily. To put an end to theſe frequent conferences with the miniſters, a proſecution for high treaſon was ſet on foot againſt him both in England and Scotland. But Burnet receiving the news thereof before it arrived at the States, he avoided the ſtorm, by petitioning for, and obtaining without any difficulty, a bill of naturalization, in order to his intended marriage with Mary Scot, a Dutch lady of conſiderable fortune, who, with the advantage of birth, had thoſe of a fine perſon and underſtanding. After his marriage with this lady, being legally under the protection of Holland, when Mr Burnet found king James plainly ſubverting the conſtitution, he omitted no method to promote the deſign the prince of Orange had formed of delivering Great Britain, and came over with him in quality of chaplain. He was ſoon advanced to the ſee of Saliſbury. He declared for moderate meaſures with regard to the clergy, who ſcrupled to take the oaths, and many were diſpleaſed with him for declaring for the toleration of non-conformiſts. His *paſtoral letter*, concerning the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy to king William and queen Mary, 1689, happening to touch upon the right of conqueſt, gave ſuch offence to both houſes of parliament, that it was ordered to be burnt by the hands of the common executioner. In 1698 he loſt his wife by the ſmall-pox; and, as he was almoſt immediately after appointed preceptor to the duke of Glouceſter, of whoſe education he took great care, this employment, and the tender age of his children, induced him the ſame year to ſupply her loſs by a marriage with Mrs Berkely, eldeſt daughter of Sir Richard Blake, knight. In 1699, he publiſhed his Expoſition of the 39 articles; which occaſioned a repreſentation againſt him in the lower houſe of convocation in 1701; but he was vindicated in the upper houſe. His ſpeech in the houſe of lords in 1704, againſt the bill to prevent occaſional conformity, was ſeverely attacked. He died in 1715, and was interred in the church of St James, Clerkenwell, where he has a monument erected to him. He formed a ſcheme for augmenting the poor livings; which he preſſed forward with ſuch ſucceſs, that it ended in an act of parliament paſſed in the 2d year of queen Anne, "for the augmentation of the livings of the poor clergy." See AUGMENTATION, § 3.

(2.) BURNET, Thomas, a learned writer in the end of the 17th century, was born in Scotland, but educated in Cambridge under the tuition of Mr Tillotſon, afterwards Abp. of Canterbury. In the beginning of 1685, he was made maſter of Sutton's hoſpital in London, after which he entered into holy orders. During the reign of king James, he made a noble ſtand as maſter of the charter-houſe, againſt the encroachments of that monarch, who would have impoſed one Andrew Popham, a papiſt, as a penſioner upon the foundation of that houſe. In 1680 he publiſhed his *Telluris theoria ſacra*, ſo univerſally admired for the purity of the ſtyle and beauty of the ſentiments, that king Charles gave encouragement to a tranſlation of it into Engliſh. This *Theory* was however attacked by ſeveral writers. In 1692, he his *Archæologia philoſophica*, dedicated to king William, to whom he was clerk of the cloſet. He died in 1715. Since his death have been publiſhed, his books *De ſtatu mortuorum et reſurgentium*, and *De fide et officiis Chriſtianorum*.

(3.) BURNET, Thomas, a phyſician of Scotland, of whom nothing is recorded, except what his works ſet forth; viz. that he was "M. D. *Medicus Regius, et Collegii Regii Medicorum Edinb. Socius.*" Theſe works, however, ſhow his merit and induſtry. They are entitled, *Theſaurus Medicinæ Practicæ*, 4to. Lond. 1673; and *Hippocrates Contractus, in quo Hippocratis omnia in breviorem Epitomen redacta habentur*; 8vo. Edin. 1685.

(4.) * BURNET. *n. ſ.* [*pimpinella*, Lat.] The name of a plant.—

The even mead that erſt brought ſweetly forth,
The freckled cowſlip, *burnet*, and green clover.
Shakeſpeare.

(5.) BURNET, in botany. See POTERIUM and SANGUISORBA.

(6.) BURNET, in geography, a town in Somerſetſhire, 4 m. W. of Bath.

BURNETA, or BURNETUS, in middle age writers, denotes brown cloth made of dyed wool.

BURNETON-BATTAIL, a village in Northumberland, near Bamburgh Caſtle.

BURNGATE, in Dorſetſhire. 1 m. E. of Lulworth.

BURNHALL, S. W. of Durham.

(1.) BURNHAM, a fiſhing town of Eſſex, at the mouth of the river Crouch, which is here called BURNHAM WATER. It is 40 m. E. by N. of London; and has fairs April 25 and Sept. 4.

(2.) BURNHAM, a town in Buckinghamſhire, on the Bath road, near the Thames, 3 m. E. of Maidenhead. It has fairs, Feb. 25, May 1. and Sept. 25.

(3.) BURNHAM, a town on the coaſt of Norfolk, with a harbour. It has a market on Saturday, and fairs March 15 and Aug. 1. On the ſhore, there are many little eminences, ſuppoſed to be the tombs of the Danes and Saxons killed here. It lies 29 m. N. W. of Norwich, and 115 N. E. of London. Lon. 0. 48. E. Lat. 53. 4. N.

(4.) BURNHAM, a village in Somerſetſhire, near the Star Point in the Channel.

(5.) BURNHAM BOVENEY, and EAST BURNHAM, two villages, near BURNHAM, N. 3.

(6.) BURNHAM-DEEPDALE, in the N. W. of Norfolkſhire. It is famous for its ſalt marſhes, on which ſheep thrive well.

(7.) BURNHAM, EAST. See N. 5.

(8.) BURNHAM, NETHER. } Two villages in Axholm iſle, Lincolnſhire.

(9.) BURNHAM, UPPER. }

(10.) BURNHAM WATER. See N. 1. and CROUCH.

BURNHOLM, NORTH. } Two villages in
BURNHOLM, SOUTH. } Yorkſh. E. of Pocklington.

(1.) * BURNING. *adj.* [from the participle.] Vehement; powerful.—

Theſe things ſting him
So venomouſly, that *burning* ſhame detains him
From his Cordelia. *Shakeſpeare.*

I had a glimpſe of him; but he ſhot by me
Like a young hound upon a *burning* ſcent.
Dryden.

(2.) * BURNING. *n. ſ.* [from *burn*.] Fire; flame; fire

ſtate of inflammation.—The mind ſurely, of itſelf, can feel none of the *burnings* of a fever. *South.*—

In liquid *burnings*, or on dry to dwell,
Is all the ſad variety of hell. *Dryden.*

(3.) BURNING, conſidered philoſophically, is the action of fire on ſome pabulum or fuel, by which the minute parts thereof are put into a violent motion, and ſome of them aſſuming the nature of fire themſelves, fly off *in orbem*, while the reſt are diſſipated in form of vapour or reduced to aſhes. See IGNITION.

(4.) BURNING is alſo applied to the action of many ſubſtances, which appear to be cold, or not to contain fire; ſuch as aquafortis, vitriol, &c.

(5.) BURNING, in antiquity, was a method of diſpoſing of the dead much practiſed by the ancient Greeks and Romans, and ſtill retained by ſeveral nations in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. The antiquity of this cuſtom riſes as high as the Theban war, where we are told of the great ſolemnity accompanying this ceremony at the pyre of Menœacus and Archemorus, who were cotemporary with Jair the 8th judge of Iſrael. Homer abounds with deſcriptions of ſuch funeral obſequies. In the inward regions of Aſia the practice was of very ancient date, and the continuance long: for we are told, that, in the reign of Julian, the king of Chionia burnt his ſon's body, and depoſited the aſhes in a ſilver urn. Coeval almoſt with the firſt inſtances of this kind in the Eaſt, was the practice in the weſtern parts of the world. The Herulians, the Getes, and the Thracians, had all along obſerved it; and its antiquity was as great with the Celtæ, Sarmatians, and other neighbouring nations. The origin of this cuſtom ſeems to have been out of friendſhip to the deceaſed: their aſhes were preſerved, as we preſerve a lock of hair, a ring, or a ſeal, which had belonged to a deceaſed friend. Kings were burnt in cloth made of the aſbeſtos, that their aſhes might be preſerved pure from any mixture with the fuel and other matters thrown on the funeral pile. The ſame method is ſtill obſerved with the princes of Tartary. Among the Greeks, the body was placed on the top of a pile, on which were thrown divers animals, and even ſlaves and captives, beſides unguents and perfumes. In Homer's account of the funeral of Patroclus we find a number of ſheep and oxen thrown in; then horſes followed by two dogs, and laſtly by 12 Trojan priſoners. The like is mentioned by Virgil in the funeral of his Trojans; where, beſides oxen, ſwine, and all manner of cattle, we find 8 youths condemned to the flames. The body was covered with the fat of the beaſts, that it might conſume the ſooner; it being reckoned great felicity to lie quickly reduced to aſhes. For the like reaſon, where numbers were to be burnt at the ſame time, care was taken to mix with the reſt ſome of humid conſtitutions, and therefore more eaſily to be inflamed. Thus we are aſſured by Plutarch and Macrobius, that with every ten men it was cuſtomary to put in one woman. Soldiers uſually had their arms burnt with them. The garments worn by the living were alſo thrown on the pile, with other ornaments and preſents; a piece of extravagance which the Athenians carried to ſo great a height, that ſome of the law-givers reſtrained them, by ſevere penalties, from defrauding the living by their liberality to the dead. In ſome caſes, burning was expreſsly forbid among the Romans, and even looked upon as the higheſt impiety. Thus infants, who died before the breeding of teeth, were intombed unburnt in the ground, in a particular place ſet apart for this purpoſe, called *ſuggrundarium*. The like was practiſed with regard to thoſe ſtruck dead by lightning. Some ſay that burning was denied to ſuicides. The manner of burning among the Romans was not unlike that of the Greeks: the corpſe, being brought out without the city, was carried directly to the place appointed for burning it; which, if it joined to the ſepulchre, was called *buſtum*; if ſeparate from it, *uſtrina*; and there laid on the *rogus* or *pyra*, a pile of wood prepared on which to burn it, built in ſhape of an altar, but of different height according to the quality of the deceaſed. The wood uſed was commonly from ſuch trees as contain moſt pitch or reſin; and if any other were uſed, they ſplit it for the more eaſy catching fire: round the pile they ſet cypreſs trees, probably to hinder the noiſome ſmell of the corpſe. The body was not placed on the bare pile, but on the couch or bed whereon it lay. This done, the next of blood performed the ceremony of lighting the pile; which they did with a torch, turning their faces all the while the other way, as if it were done with reluctance. During the ceremony, decurſions and games were celebrated; after which came the OSSILEGIUM, or gathering of the bones and aſhes; alſo waſhing and anointing them, and repoſiting them in urns.

(6.) BURNING, in medicine and ſurgery, denotes the application of an actual cautery, that is a red hot iron inſtrument, to the part affected: otherwiſe denominated *cauterization*.—The whole art of phyſic among the Japaneſe lies in the choice of places proper to be burnt; which are varied according to the diſeaſe. In the country of the Mogul, the colic is cured by an iron ring applied red-hot about the patient's navel. Certain it is, that ſome very extraordinary cures have been performed accidentally by burning. See § 8.

(7.) BURNING, or BRENNING, in our old writings, denotes an infectious diſeaſe, got in the ſtews by converſing with lewd women, and ſuppoſed to be the ſame with what we now call the *venereal diſeaſe*. In a MS. of the vocation of John Bale to the biſhopric of Offory, written by himſelf, he ſpeaks of Dr Hugh Weſton, who was dean of Windſor in 1556, but deprived by cardinal Pole for adultery; thus: "At this day is leacherous Weſton, who is more practiſed in the arts of breech-burning, than all the whores of the ſtews. He not long ago brent a beggar of St Botolph's pariſh." See STEWS.

(8.) BURNING, ACCIDENTAL CURES BY. The following caſe is recorded in the Memoirs of the Academy of ſciences by M. Homberg. A woman of about 35 became ſubject to a headach, which at times was ſo violent, that it drove her out of her ſenſes, making her ſometimes ſtupid and fooliſh, at other times raving and furious. The ſeat of the pain was in the forehead, and over the eyes, which were inflamed, and looked violently red and ſparkling; and the moſt violent fits of it were

attended with naufea and vomiting. In the time of the fits, fhe could take no food; but, at all other times, had a very good ftomach. M. Homberg had in vain attempted her cure for 3 years with all kinds of medicines: only opium fucceeded; and that but little, all its effect being only to take off the pain for a few hours. The rednefs of her eyes was always the fign of an approaching fit. One night, feeling a fit coming on, fhe went to lie down upon the bed; but firft walked up to the glafs with the candle in her hand, to fee how her eyes looked: in obferving this, the candle fet fire to her cap: and as fhe was alone, her head was terribly burnt before the fire could be extinguifhed. M. Homberg was fent for, and ordered bleeding and proper dreffings: but the expected fit this night never came on; the pain of the burning wore off by degrees; and the patient found herfelf from that hour cured of the headach, which had never once returned in 4 years after, which was the time when the account was communicated.—Another cafe, not lefs remarkable was communicated to M. Homberg by a phyfician at Bruges. A woman, who for feveral years had her legs and thighs fwelled in an extraordinary manner, found fome relief from rubbing them before the fire with brandy every morning and evening. One evening the brandy fhe had rubbed herfelf with, took fire and flightly burnt her. She applied fome brandy to her burn; and in the night all the water, her legs and thighs were fwelled with, was entirely difcharged by urine, and the fwelling did not again return.

(9.) BURNING ALIVE, among the Romans, a punifhment inflicted on deferters, betrayers of the public councils, incendiaries, coiners, and even Chriftians: It was called CREMATIO. The Jews had two ways of burning; the one called burning of the body, performed with wood and faggots; the other burning of the foul, *combuftio animæ*, performed by pouring fcalding hot lead down their throats. Inceft in the afcending and defcending degrees was thus punifhed by them. But philanthropy is fhocked to reflect, for what trifling crimes this horrid punifhment has been inflicted among other nations. Even in our own country, till within thefe 7 or 8 years, *burning alive* was the punifhment of *women*, convicted of coining or counterfeiting *fhillings!* Thus was the weaker fex punifhed in the moft barbarous manner, for a trifling felony, which could hardly wrong any individual above the value of a few pence!

(10.) BURNING BUSH. See BUSH, N. 6.

(11.) BURNING, EXTRAORDINARY CASES OF INTERNAL. We have inftances of perfons burnt by a fire kindled within their own bodies. A woman at Paris, who ufed to drink brandy to excefs, was one night reduced to afhes by a fire from within, all but her head and the ends of her fingers. Signora Cornelia Zangari, or, as others call her, *Corn. Bandi*, an aged lady, of an unblemifhed life, near Cefena in Romagna, underwent the fame fate in March 1731. She had retired in the evening into her chamber fomewhat indifpofed; and in the morning was found in the middle of the room reduced to afhes, all except her face, legs, fkull, and three fingers. The ftockings and fhoes fhe had on were not burnt in the leaft. The afhes were light; and on preffing between the fingers, vanifhed, leaving behind a grofs ftinking moifture with which the floor was fmeared; the walls and furniture of the room being covered with a moift cineritious foot, which had not only ftained the linen in the cheft, but had penetrated into the clofet, as well as into the room overhead, the walls of which were moiftened with the fame vifcous humour. We have various other relations of perfons burnt to death in this unaccountable manner. Sig. Mondini, Bianchini, and Maffei, have written treatifes expreffs to account for the caufe of fo extraordinary an event: common fire it could not be, fince this would likewife have burnt the bed and the room; befides that it would have required many hours, and a vaft quantity of fuel, to reduce a human body to afhes; and, after all, a confiderable part of the bones would have remained entire, as they were anciently found after the fierceft funeral fires. Some attribute the effect to a mine of fulphur under the houfe; others to a miracle; while others fufpect that art or villany had a hand in it. A philofopher of Verona maintains, that fuch a conflagration might have arifen from the inflammable matters wherewith the human body naturally abounds. Sig. Bianchini accounts for the conflagration of the lady above mentioned, from her ufing a bath or lotion of camphorated fpirit of wine when fhe found herfelf out of order. Maffei fuppofes it owing to lightning generated in her own body, agreeable to his own doctrine, which is, That lightning does not proceed from the clouds, but is always produced in the place where it is feen and its effects perceived. We have had a late attempt to eftablifh the opinion, that thefe deftroying internal fires are caufed in the entrails of the body by inflamed effluvia of the blood; by juices and fermentation in the ftomach; by the many combuftible matters which abound in living bodies for the purpofes of life: and, finally, by the fiery evaporations which exhale from the fettlings of fpirit of wine, brandies, and other hot liquors, in the tunica villofa of the ftomach and other adipofe or fat membranes; within which thofe fpirits engender a kind of camphor, which in the night time, in fleep, by a full refpiration, are put in a ftronger motion, and are more apt to be fet on fire. Others afcribe the caufe of fuch perfons being fet on fire to lightning; and their burning fo entirely, to the greater quantity of phofphorus and other combuftible matter they contained. We can by no means pretend to explain the caufe of fuch phenomena: but for the intereft of humanity we wifh it could be derived from fomething external to the human body; for if, to the calamities of human life already known, we fuperadd a fufpicion, that we may unexpectedly and without the leaft warning be conſumed by an *internal* fire, the thought is too dreadful to be born.

(12.) * BURNING-GLASS. *n. f.* [from *burning* and *glafs*.] A glafs which collects the rays of the fun into a narrow compafs, and fo increafes their force. —The appetite of her eye did feem to fcorch me up like a *burning-glafs*. *Shakefpeare.*—Love is of the nature of a *burning-glafs*, which, kept ſtill in one place, fireth; changed often, it doth nothing. *Suckling.*—

O dif-

O diadem, thou centre of ambition,
Where all its different climes are reconciled,
As if thou wert the *burning-glaſs* of glory!
Dryden.

(13.) BURNING GLASSES are made convex and commonly ſpherical. The ſmall ſpace upon which the collected rays fall, is called the *focus*; where wood, or any other combuſtible matter being put, will be ſet on fire. The term *burning glaſs* is alſo applied to thoſe concave mirrors, whether compoſed of glaſs quick-ſilvered, or of metalline matters, which burn by reflection, condenſing the ſun's rays into a focus ſimilar to the former. See § 15, 16.

(14.) BURNING GLASSES, ANCIENT. The uſe of burning glaſſes appears to have been very ancient. Diodorus Siculus, Lucian, Dion, Zonaras, Galen, Anthemius, Euſtathius, Tzetzes, and others, atteſt, that by means of them Archimedes ſet fire to the Roman fleet at the ſiege of Syracuſe. Tzetzes is ſo particular in his account of this matter, that his deſcription ſuggeſted to Kercher the method by which it was probably accompliſhed. That author ſays, that "Archimedes ſet fire to Marcellus's navy, by means of a burning glaſs compoſed of ſmall ſquare mirrors, moving every way upon hinges; which, when placed in the ſun's rays, directed them upon the Roman fleet, ſo as to reduce it to aſhes at the diſtance of a bow-ſhot." A very particular teſtimony we have alſo from Anthemius of Lydia, who takes pains to prove the poſſibility of ſetting fire to a fleet, or any other combuſtible body, at ſuch a diſtance. That the ancients were alſo acquainted with the uſe of catoptric or refracting burning glaſſes, appears from a paſſage in Ariſtophanes's comedy of the clouds, which clearly treats of their effects. The author introduces Socrates as examining Strepſiades about the method he had diſcovered of getting clear of his debts. He replies, that "he thought of making uſe of a burning glaſs which he had hitherto uſed in kindling his fire; for" ſays he "ſhould they bring a writ againſt me, I'll immediately place my glaſs in the ſun at ſome little diſtance from it, and ſet it on fire." Pliny and Lactantius have alſo ſpoken of glaſſes that burn by refraction. The former calls them *balls* or *globes of glaſs* or *cryſtal*, which, expoſed to the ſun, tranſmit a heat ſufficient to ſet fire to cloth, or corrode the dead fleſh of thoſe patients who ſtand in need of cauſtics; and the latter, after Clemens Alexandrinus, takes notice that fire may be kindled by interpoſing glaſſes filled with water between the ſun and the object, ſo as to tranſmit the rays to it. It ſeems difficult to conceive how they ſhould know ſuch glaſſes would burn without knowing they would magnify, which it is granted they did not, till towards the cloſe of the 13th century, when ſpectacles were firſt thought on. For as to thoſe paſſages in Plautus which ſeem to intimate the knowledge of ſpectacles, M. de la Hire obſerves, they do not prove any ſuch thing; and he ſolves this, by obſerving, that their burning glaſſes being ſpheres, either ſolid or full of water, their foci would be one fourth of their diameter diſtant from them. If then their diameter were ſuppoſed half a foot, which is the moſt we can allow, an object muſt be only at an inch and a half diſtance to perceive it magnified; thoſe at greater diſtances do not appear greater, but only more confuſed through the glaſs than out of it. It is no wonder, therefore, the magnifying property of convex glaſſes was unknown, and the burning one known. It is more wonderful that there ſhould have been 300 years between the invention of ſpectacles and teleſcopes. Among the ancients, the burning mirrors of Archimedes (§ 16.) and Proclus are famous. By the latter the navy of Vitellius beſieging Byzantium, according to Zonaras, was burnt to aſhes.

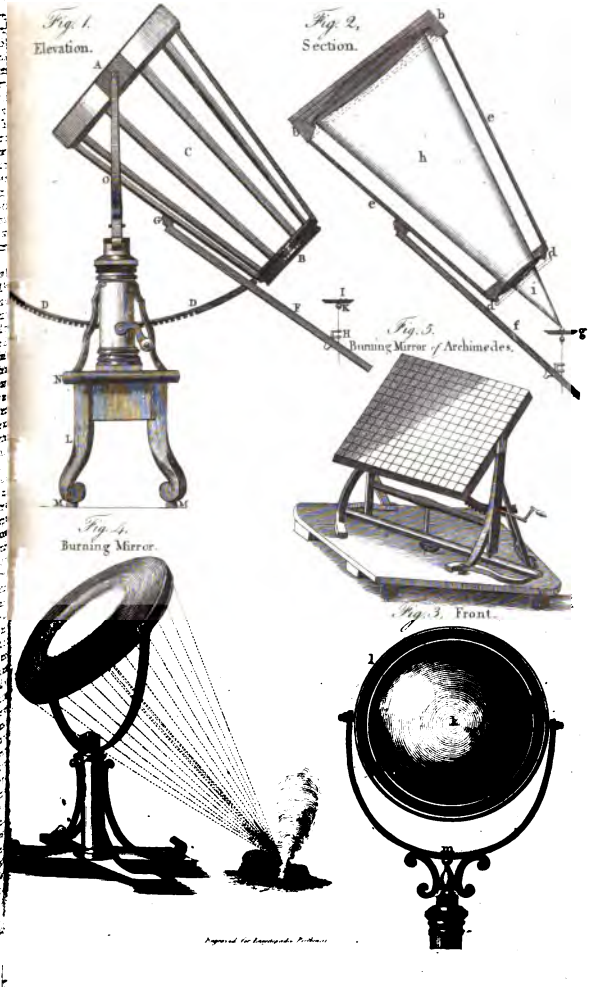
(15.) BURNING GLASSES, MODERN. Among the moderns, the moſt remarkable burning mirrors are thoſe of Settala, Vilette, Tſchirnhauſen, Buffon, Trudaine, and Parker. Settala, canon of Padua, made a parabolic mirror, which, according to Schottus, burnt pieces of wood at the diſtance of 15 or 16 paces. The following things are noted of it in the *Acta Eruditorum*. 1. Green wood takes fire inſtantaneouſly, ſo as a ſtrong wind cannot extinguiſh it. 2. Water boils immediately; and eggs in it are preſently edible. 3. A mixture of tin and lead, three inches thick, drops preſently; and iron and ſteel plate becomes red-hot preſently, and a little after burns into holes. 4. Things not capable of melting, as ſtones, bricks, &c. become ſoon red-hot, like iron. 5. Slate becomes firſt white, then a black glaſs. 6. Tiles are converted into a yellow glaſs: and ſhells into a blackiſh yellow one. 7. A pumice ſtone, emitted from a volcano, melts into white glaſs. 8. A piece of crucible alſo vitrifies in 8 minutes. 9. Bones are ſoon turned into an opaque glaſs, and earth into a black one. The breadth of this mirror is near 3 Leipſic ells, its focus 2 ells from it; it is made of copper, and its ſubſtance is not above double the thickneſs of the back of a knife. Villette, a French artiſt of Lyons, made a large mirror, which was bought by Tavernier, and preſented to the king of Perſia; a 2d bought by the king of Denmark; a 3d preſented by the French king to the royal academy; a 4th has been in England, where it was publicly expoſed. The effects hereof, as found by Dr Harris and Dr Deſaguliers, are, that a ſilver ſix-pence is melted in 7″ and ½, a halfpenny in 16″, and runs with a hole in 34″. Tin melts in 3″, caſt iron in 16″, ſlate in 3″; a foſſil ſhell calcines in 7″; a piece of Pompey's pillar at Alexandria vitrifies the black part in 50″, the white in 54″; copper ore in 8″; bone calcines in 4″, vitrifies in 33″. An emerald melts into a ſubſtance like a torquois ſtone; a diamond weighing 4 grains loſes ſeven 8ths of its weight: the aſbeſtos vitrifies; as all other bodies will do, if kept long enough in the focus; but when once vitrified, the mirror can go no farther with them. This mirror is 47 inches wide, and is ground to a ſphere of 76 inches radius; ſo that its focus is about 38 inches from the vertex. Its ſubſtance is a compoſition of tin, copper, and tin glaſs. Every lens, whether convex, plano-convex, or convexo-convex, collects the ſun's rays, diſperſed over its convexity, into a point by refraction; and is therefore a burning glaſs. The moſt conſiderable of this kind is that made by M. de Tchirnhauſen: the diameters of his lenſes are 3 and 4 feet, the

focus

focus at the diſtance of 12 feet, and its diameter an inch and a half. To make the focus the more vivid, it is collected a ſecond time by a ſecond lens parallel to the firſt, and placed in that point where the diameter of the cone of rays formed by the firſt lens is equal to the diameter of the ſecond; ſo that it receives them all; and the focus, from an inch and a half, is contracted into the ſpace of 8 lines, and its force increaſed proportionably. This glaſs vitrifies tiles, ſlates, pumice-ſtones, &c. in a moment. It melts ſulphur, pitch, and all roſins, under water; the aſhes of vegetables, woods, and other matters, are tranſmuted into glaſs; and every thing applied to its focus is either melted, turned into a calx, or into ſmoke. Tſchirnhauſen obſerves, that it ſucceeds beſt when the matter applied is laid on a hard charcoal well burnt. Sir Iſaac Newton preſented a burning-glaſs to the royal ſociety, conſiſting of 7 concave glaſſes, ſo placed, as that all their foci join in one phyſical point. Each glaſs is about 11 inches and a half in diameter: ſix of them are placed round the ſeventh, to which they are all contiguous; and they form a kind of ſegment of a ſphere, whoſe ſubtenſe is about 34 inches and a half, and the central glaſs lies about an inch farther in than the reſt. The common focus is about 22 inches and a half diſtant, and about an inch in diameter. This glaſs vitrifies brick or tile in 1″, and melts gold in 30″. It appears that glaſs quickſilvered is a more proper material for burning glaſſes than metals; for the effects of that ſpeculum wherewith Mr Macquer melted the platina, ſeem to have been ſuperior to thoſe above mentioned, though the mirror itſelf was much ſmaller. The diameter of this glaſs was only 22 inches, and its focal diſtance 28. Black flint, when expoſed to the focus, being powdered to prevent its crackling and flying about, and ſecured in a large piece of charcoal, bubbled up and ran into tranſparent glaſs in leſs than half a minute. Heſſian crucibles, and glaſs-houſe pots, vitrified completely in 3 or 4 ſeconds. Forged iron ſmoked, boiled, and changed into a vitreſcent ſcoria as ſoon as it was expoſed to the focus. The gypſum of Montmartre, when the flat ſides of the plates or leaves, of which it is compoſed, were preſented to the glaſs, did not ſhow the leaſt diſpoſition to melt; but, on preſenting a tranſverſe ſection of it, or the edges of the plates, it melted in an inſtant, with a hiſſing noiſe, into a browniſh yellow matter. Calcareous ſtones did not completely melt: but there was detached from them a circle more compact than the reſt of the maſs, and of the ſize of the focus; the ſeparation of which ſeemed to be occaſioned by the ſhrinking of the matter which had begun to enter into fuſion. The white calx of antimony, commonly called *diaphoretic antimony*, melted better than the calcareous ſtones, and changed into an opaque pretty gloſſy ſubſtance like white enamel. It was obſerved, that the whiteneſs of the calcareous ſtones and the antimonial calx was of great diſadvantage to their fuſion, by reaſon of their reflecting great part of the ſun's rays; ſo that the ſubject could not undergo the full activity of the heat thrown upon it by the burning glaſs. The caſe was the ſame with metallic bodies, which melted ſo much the more difficultly as they were more white and poliſhed; and this difference was ſo remarkable, that in the focus of this mirror, ſo fuſible a metal as ſilver, when its ſurface was poliſhed, did not melt at all. M. Trudaine, a French gentleman, conſtructed a burning lens on a new principle. It was compoſed of two circular ſegments of glaſs ſpheres, each 4 feet in diameter, applied with their concave ſides towards each other. The cavity was filled with ſpirit of wine, of which it contained 20 pints. It was preſented by the maker to the royal academy of ſciences, but was, not long after, broken by accident. The expence of conſtructing it amounted to about 1000 l. ſterling. After all, it does not appear that the effects of this lens were very great. Mr Magellan informs us, that it could only coagulate the particles of platina in 12 minutes, while Mr Parker's lens entirely melted them in leſs than two. See § 17.

(16.) BURNING GLASSES OF M. BUFFON. *Plate* XLV. *Fig.* 5. repreſents M. BUFFON's burning mirror, which he with great reaſon ſuppoſes to be of the ſame nature with that of Archimedes. It conſiſts of a number of ſmall mirrors of glaſs quickſilvered, all of which are held together by an iron frame. Each of theſe ſmall mirrors is ſo moveable by a contrivance on the back part of the frame, that ſo their reflections may all coincide in one point. By this means they are capable of being accommodated to various heights of the ſun, and to different diſtances. The adjuſting them in this manner takes up a conſiderable time; but after they are ſo adjuſted, the focus will continue unaltered for an hour or more. In 1747 he conſtructed a machine of this kind, with 140 plain mirrors; each about 4 inches long, and 3 broad: theſe were fixed about a quarter of an inch diſtant from each other, upon a large wooden frame, of about 6 feet ſquare. The experiment was firſt tried with 24 mirrors, which readily ſet on fire a combuſtible matter, prepared of pitch and tow, and laid on a deal board, at the diſtance of 66 French feet. He then put together a kind of polyhedron, conſiſting of 168 pieces of plain looking glaſs, each being 6 inches ſquare; and by means of this ſome boards of beech were ſet on fire, at the diſtance of 150 feet, in the month of March, and a ſilver plate was melted at the diſtance of 60 feet. This machine, beſides other advantages, may be eaſily moved, ſo as to burn downwards or horizontally; and it burns either at its diſtant focus, or in any nearer interval, which our common burning glaſſes cannot do, becauſe their focus is wholly fixed. This machine, in the next ſtage of its improvement, contained 360 plain mirrors, each 8 inches long, and 6 broad, mounted on a frame 8 feet high, and 7 broad. With 128 of theſe mirrors, light combuſtible matters were kindled at the diſtance of 20 feet; at the ſame diſtance, a large tin veſſel was melted with all of them, and a thin piece of ſilver with 117. When the whole machine was employed, all the metals and metallic minerals were melted at the diſtance of 25, and even of 40 feet. Wood was kindled in a clear ſky, at the diſtance of 210 feet. The focus, at the diſtance of 50 feet, is about 8 inches broad; and at the diſtance of 240 feet, it becomes 2 feet in diameter. Buffon afterwards conſtructed a machine

Parker's Burning Lens. Plate XLV.



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(16.) Burning Glaſſes
Plate XLV. *Fig.* 5. repreſents
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a machine which contained 400 mirrors, each half a foot ſquare, with which he could melt lead and tin at the diſtance of 140 feet. *Fig.* 4. repreſents a contrivance of M. Buffon's for diminiſhing the thickneſs of very large refracting lenſes. He obſerves, that in large lenſes of this kind, which are moſt convenient for many purpoſes, the thickneſs of the glaſs in the middle is ſo great, as very much to diminiſh their force. For this reaſon he propoſes to form a burning glaſs of concentric or circular pieces of glaſs, each reſting upon the other, as repreſented in the figure. His method is to divide the convex arch of the lens into 3 equal parts. Thus, ſuppoſe the diameter to be 26 inches, and the thickneſs in the middle to be 3 inches: By dividing the lens into 3 concentric circles, and laying the one over the other, the thickneſs of the middle piece needs be only one inch; at the ſame time that the lens will have the ſame convexity, and almoſt the ſame focal diſtance, as in the other caſe; while the effects of it muſt be much greater, on account of the greater thinneſs of the glaſs.

(17.) BURNING GLASS OF MR PARKER. A large burning lens for the purpoſe of fuſing and vitrifying ſuch ſubſtances as reſiſt the fires of ordinary furnaces, and eſpecially for the application of heat in vacuo, and in other circumſtances in which heat cannot be applied by any other means, has long been a deſideratum among perſons concerned in philoſophical experiments: And it appears now to be in a great degree accompliſhed by Mr PARKER. His lens is 3 feet in diameter, made of flint glaſs, and, which, when fixed in its frame, expoſes a ſurface 2 feet 8¼ inches in the clear. In the ELEVATION repreſented on *Plate* XLV, *fig.* 1. A is the lens of the diameter mentioned; thickneſs in the centre, 3¼ inches: weight 212 pounds; length of the focus, 6 feet 8 inches; diameter of ditto, 1 inch. B, a ſecond lens, whoſe diameter in the frame is 16 inches, and ſhows in the clear 15 inches: thickneſs in the centre, 1⅝ inches; weight 21 pounds: length of focus 29 inches: diameter of ditto, ⅜ of an inch. When the two above lenſes are compounded together, the length of the focus is 5 feet 3 inches: diameter of ditto, half an inch. C, a truncated cone, compoſed of 21 ribs of wood: at the larger end is fixed the great lens A, at the ſmaller extremity the leſſer lens B: near the ſmaller end is alſo fixed a rack, D, paſſing through the pillar L, moveable by a pinion turning in the ſaid pillar, by means of the handle E, and thus giving a vertical motion to the machine. F, a bar of wood, fixed between the two lower ribs of the cone at G; having, within a chaced mortice in which it moves, an apparatus H, with the iron plate, I, fixed thereto; and this part turning on a ball and ſocket, K, a method is thereby obtained of placing the matter under experiment, ſo as to be acted upon by the focal rays in the moſt direct and powerful manner. L L, a ſtrong mahogany frame, moving on caſtors, M M. Immediately under the table N are three friction wheels, by which the machine moves horizontally. O, a ſtrong iron bow, in which the lens and the cone hang. SECTION. *Fig.* 2. a, The great lens marked A in the elevation. b, The frame which contains the lens. c, The ſmall lens marked B. d, The frame which contains the ſmall lens. e, The truncated cone, marked C. f, The bar on which the apparatus marked F moves. g, The iron plate marked I. h, The cone of rays formed by the refraction of the great lens a, and falling on the lens c. i, The cone of rays formed by the refraction of the lens c. FRONT VIEW. *Fig.* 3. k, The great lens. l, The frame containing it. m, The ſtrong iron bow in which it hangs. From a great number of experiments made with this lens, in the preſence of many ſcientific perſons, the following are ſelected as ſpecimens of its powers.

Subſtances fuſed, with their weight and time of fuſion.	*Weight in Grains.*	*Time in Seconds.*
Gold, pure,	20	4
Silver, do.	20	3
Copper, do.	33	20
Platina, do.	10	3
Nickell,	16	3
Bar iron, a cube,	10	12
Caſt iron, a cube,	10	3
Steel, a cube,	10	12
Scoria of wrought iron,	12	2
Kearſh,	10	3
Cauk, or terra ponderoſa,	10	7
A topaz, or chryſolite,	3	45
An oriental emerald,	2	25
Cryſtal pebble,	7	6
White agate,	10	30
Flint oriental,	10	30
Rough cornelian,	10	75
Jaſper,	10	25
Onyx,	10	20
Garnet,	10	17
White Rhomboidal ſpar,	10	60
Zeolites,	10	23
Rotten ſtone,	10	80
Common ſlate,	10	2
Aſbeſtos,	10	10
Common lime-ſtone,	10	55
Pumice ſtone,	10	24
Lava,	10	7
Volcanic clay,	10	60
Corniſh moor-ſtone,	10	60

(18.) BURNING LENS. See § 15, 17.

(19.) BURNING MIRRORS. See § 13—16.

(20.) BURNING MOUNTAINS. See ÆTNA, ETNA, HECLA, VESUVIUS, and VOLCANO, with the plates accompanying them.

(21.) BURNING OF COLOURS, among painters. There are ſeveral colours that require burning; as, 1. Lamp-black, which is a colour of ſo greaſy a nature, that, except it is burnt, it will require a long time to dry. The method of burning, or rather drying, lamp-black, is as follows: Put it into a crucible over a clear fire, letting it remain till it be red hot, or ſo near it that there is no manner of ſmoke ariſes from it. 2. Umber, which if it be intended for colour for a horſe, or to be a ſhadow for gold, then burning fits it for both purpoſes. In order to burn umber, you muſt put it into the naked fire, in large lumps, and not take it out till it is thoroughly red hot; if you have a mind to be more curious, put it into a crucible, and keep it over the fire till it be red hot. 3. Ivory alſo muſt be burnt to make black, thus: Fill two crucibles with ſhavings of ivory, then clap their two mouths together, and bind them faſt with an iron wire, and

and lute the joints close with clay, salt, and horse dung, well beaten together; then set it over the fire, covering it all over with coals: let it remain in the fire till the matter inclosed is thoroughly red hot: then take it out, but do not open the crucibles till they are perfectly cold; for were they opened while hot, the matter would turn to ashes; as it will still do, if the joints are not luted close.

(22.) BURNING OF LAND, called also DENSHIRING, from Devonshire, a county in which it has been long practised, is a method of preparing and fertilizing barren, sour, heathy, or rushy lands, for corn or pasture; by paring off the turf, and burning it on the ground.

(23.) BURNING OF METALS is either performed by fire, or by corrosive salts; which last method is also denominated CÆMENTATION. The first preparation of most ores is by burning, to dispose them for fusion. This is usually performed by exposing them, without addition, to the naked fire; sometimes fixed alkalis and absorbents are added, to hinder the avolation of the metalline particles. The baser metals, tin and lead, may be burnt like plants to ashes.

(24.) BURNING PLANT. See EUPHORBIA.

(25.) BURNING SPRINGS. Of these there are many in different parts of the world; particularly one in France in the department of Here, near Grenoble; another near Hermanstadt in Transylvania; a 3d at Chermay, a village near Switzerland; a 4th in the canton of Friburg; and a 5th not far from the city of Cracow in Poland. There also is, or was, a famous spring of this kind at Wigan in Lancashire, which, upon the approach of a lighted candle, would take fire and burn like spirit of wine for a whole day. But the most remarkable one, or at least that of which we have the minutest description, was discovered in 1711, at Brosely in Shropshire. The following account of this remarkable spring was given by the rev. Mr Mason Woodwardin, professor at Cambridge, dated Feb. 18th 1746. "The well for 4 or 5 feet deep is 6 or 7 feet wide; within that is another less hole of like depth dug in the clay, in the bottom whereof is placed a cylindric earthen vessel, of about 4 or 5 inches diameter at the mouth, having the bottom taken off, and the sides well fixed in the clay rammed close about it. Within the pot is a brown water, thick as puddle, continually forced up with a violent motion beyond that of boiling water, and a rumbling hollow noise, rising or falling by fits 5 or 6 inches; but there was no appearance of any vapour rising, which perhaps might have been visible, had not the sun shone so bright. Upon putting a candle down at the end of a stick, at about a quarter of a yard distance, it took fire, darting and flashing after a very violent manner for about half a yard high, much in the manner of spirits in a lamp, but with great agitation. It was said, that a tea-kettle had been made to boil in about 9 minutes, and that it had been left burning for 48 hours without any sensible diminution. It was extinguished by putting a wet mop upon it; which must be kept there for a little time, otherwise it would not go out. Upon the removal of the mop there arises a sulphureous smoke lasting about a

and yet the water is very cold to the

1755, this well totally disappeared by the sinking of a coal-pit in its neighbourhood. The cause of the inflammable property of such waters, is with great probability supposed to be their mixture with petroleum, which is one of the most inflammable substances in nature, and has the property of burning on the surface of water.

(26.) BURNING WELL. See ANCLIFF.

BURNINGHAM, a village in Suffolk, 4 miles N. E. of Holt.

(1.) * *To* BURNISH. *v. a.* [*burner*, Fr.] To polish; to give a gloss to.—

Mislike me not for my complexion,
The shadow'd livery of the *burnish'd* sun,
To whom I am a neighbour, and near bred.
Shakespear.

—Make a plate of them, and *burnish* it as they do iron. *Bacon.*—

The frame of *burnish'd* steel, that cast a glare
From far, and seem'd to thaw the freezing air.
Dryden.

(2.) * *To* BURNISH. *v. n.* To grow bright or glossy.—

I've seen a snake in human form,
All stain'd with infamy and vice,
Leap from the dunghill in a trice,
Burnish, and make a gawdy show,
Become a gen'ral, peer, and beau. *Swift.*

(3.) * *To* BURNISH. *v. n.* [of uncertain etymology.] To grow; to spread out.—

This they could do, while Saturn fill'd the throne,
Ere Juno *burnish'd*, or young Jove was grown.
Dryden.

To shoot, and spread, and *burnish* into man.
Dryden.

—Mrs Primley's great belly she may lace down before, but it *burnishes* on her hips. *Congreve.*

(1.) * BURNISHER. *n. s.* [from *burnish*.] 1. The person that burnishes or polishes. 2. The tool with which bookbinders give a gloss to the backs of books: it is commonly a dog's tooth set in a stick.

(2.) BURNISHERS, for gold and silver, were formerly made of the teeth of dogs or wolves set in the end of iron or wooden handles; but for a long time past, agates have been introduced and are found preferable. In most cases polished steel answers equally well, as it gives a very good lustre. These are of different forms; straight, or bent, &c. The steel burnishers used by engravers on copper are formed to serve with one end to burnish, and with the other to scrape out erroneous scratches.

BURNISHING, the art of smoothing or polishing a metalline body, by a brisk rubbing of it with a burnisher. Book-binders burnish the edges of their books, by rubbing them with a dog's tooth.

BURNISTON, 2 villages in Yorkshire, viz. 1. between Bedal and Thirsk: 2. N. of Scarsdale.

BURNLEY, a town of Lancashire, in a healthy situation, 35 m. S. E. of Lancaster, and 208 N. N. W. of London. It has a market on Sat. and fairs March 6. Easter eve, May 13, July 10, and Oct. 11. Lon. 2. 15. W. Lat. 53. 46. N.

BURNS, Robert, the latest and one of the most eminent of our modern Scots poets, was born in Ayrshire. Of this extraordinary genius, we have not met with a better account than the following, drawn

drawn up by Mr Reid, bookſeller in Glaſgow. "Robert Burns was literally a ploughman, but neither in that ſtate of ſervile dependance nor degrading ignorance, which the ſituation might beſpeak in this country. He had the common education of a Scotch peaſant, perhaps ſomething more, and that ſpirit of independence, which is ſometimes to be found, in a high degree, in the humbleſt claſſes of ſociety. He had genius ſtarting beyond the obſtacles of poverty, and which would have diſtinguiſhed itſelf in any ſituation. His early days were occupied in procuring bread by the labour of his own hands, in the honourable taſk of cultivating the earth, but his nights were devoted to books and the Muſe, except when they were waſted in thoſe haunts of village feſtivity, and in the indulgences of the ſocial bowl, to which the poet was but too immoderately attached in every period of his life. He wrote not with a view to encounter the public eye, or in the hope to procure fame by his productions, but to give vent to the feelings of his own genius—to indulge the impulſe of an ardent and poetical mind. Burns, from ambition, or from that reſtleſs activity, which is the peculiar characteriſtic of his countrymen, propoſed to emigrate to Jamaica, in order to ſeek his fortune, by the exertion of thoſe talents of which he felt himſelf poſſeſſed. It was upon this occaſion, that one of his friends ſuggeſted to him the idea of publiſhing his poems, in order to raiſe a few pounds to defray the expence of his paſſage. This idea was eagerly embraced. A cheap edition of his poems was firſt publiſhed at Kilmarnock. They were ſoon noticed by the gentlemen in the neighbourhood. Proofs of ſuch uncommon genius, in a ſituation ſo humble, made the acquaintance of the author eagerly ſought after. His poems reaching Edinburgh, ſome extracts, and an account of the author, were inſerted in the periodical paper, *The Lounger*, which was at that time in the courſe of publication. The voyage of the author was delayed, in the hope that a ſuitable proviſion would be made for him by the generoſity of the public. A ſubſcription was ſet on foot for a new edition of his works, and was forwarded by the exertions of ſome of the firſt characters in Scotland. The ſubſcription liſt contains a greater number of reſpectable names than almoſt have ever appeared to any ſimilar production; but as the book was ſet at a low price, we have reaſon to know that the return to the author was not very conſiderable. Burns was brought to Edinburgh; for a few months every where invited and careſſed, and at laſt one of his patrons procured him the ſituation of an exciſeman, with an income ſomewhat leſs than L.50 per annum. We believe, that no ſteps were taken to better this humble income, and he was ſoon diſguſted with his ſituation. His talents were often obſcured, and finally impaired by exceſs, and his private circumſtances were imbittered by pecuniary diſtreſs. With regard to his poems, it has been juſtly obſerved, without the apologies ariſing from his ſituation in life, that they are fully entitled to command our feelings, and to obtain our applauſe. Some of his productions, eſpecially thoſe of the grave ſtyle, poſſeſs a high tone of feeling, a power and energy of expreſſion, particularly and ſtrongly characteriſtic of the mind and the voice of a poet. Of the ſolemn and ſublime, the poems entitled *The Viſion*, *Deſpondency*, *The Lament*, *Winter* a Dirge, and the *Invocation to Ruin*, afford ſtriking examples. Of the tender and the moral, many advantageous ſpecimens may be found, in the Elegiac Verſes, intitled *Man was made to mourn*, in *The Cottar's Saturday night*, the Stanzas *to a Mouſe*, and thoſe to a *Mountain Daiſy*. There is ſcarcely an image more truly paſtoral than that of the *Lark*, in the ſecond ſtanza of the laſt mentioned poem. It is one of thoſe ſtrokes that mark the pencil of the poet, which delineates nature with the delicate colouring of beauty and of taſte. Againſt ſome paſſages of his poems it has been objected, that they breathe a ſpirit of libertiniſm and irreligion. But it ought to be conſidered, that he attacks only the ignorance and fanaticiſm of the lower claſs of people, a fanaticiſm of that pernicious ſort which ſets *faith* in oppoſition to *good works*. Of religion, he expreſſes, in ſeveral places, the juſteſt ſentiments, though he has been ſometimes ſufficiently open in his ridicule of hypocriſy. Such, we believe, is the faithful portrait of a man, who, in his compoſitions, has diſcovered the force of native humour, the warmth and tenderneſs of paſſion, the glowing touches of a deſcriptive pencil, and that honeſt pride and independence of ſoul, which are often the Muſe's only dower. A man who was the pupil of nature, the poet of inſpiration, and who poſſeſſed, in an extraordinary degree, the powers and the feelings of genius." It is proper to add, that Mr Burns was married, and had a family. The occaſion of his marriage is hinted at by an ingenious writer in the *Monthly Magazine*, publiſhed by J. Johnſon, Lond. for March, 1797. As the deſcription is characteriſtical of our bard's tender feelings, we ſhall quote the paſſage:—"When his heart was firſt ſtruck by the charms of village beauty, the love he felt was pure, tender, ſimple, and ſincere, as that of the youth and maiden in his *Cottar's Saturday Night*. If the ardour of his paſſion hurried him afterwards to triumph over the chaſtity of the maid he loved, the tenderneſs of his heart, the manly honeſty of his ſoul, ſoon made him offer with eager ſolicitude to repair by marriage the injury of love."—The ſame writer aſcribes Mr Burns's firſt attachment to poetry, to an early acquaintance not only with the works of *Ramſay*, *Milton*, *Brattie*, *Thomſon*, *Blair*, *Gray*, &c. but alſo to the poems of *Robert Ferguſon*, and other original writers in *Ruddiman's Weekly Magazine*; a periodical work then in univerſal circulation. The benefit which Mr Burns himſelf had derived from ſuch ſources, he wiſhed to communicate as much as poſſible to others. A ſtrong evidence of this is on record in *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* vol. III. p. 598, where a letter from Burns, addreſſed to Sir John, is inſerted, giving an account of the eſtabliſhment of a reading ſociety, among a number of country people, under the Patronage of Mr Riddell of Glenriddell. After mentioning ſome of their principal books, ſuch as Robertſon's and Hume's hiſtories, Blair's ſermons, the Spectator, Idler, Adventurer, Mirror, &c. he concludes thus; "A peaſant, who can read and enjoy ſuch books, is certainly a much ſuperior being to his neigh-

bour, who perhaps ſtalks behind his team, very little removed, except in ſhape, from the brutes he drives." Mr Burns died at Dumfries, and having been a member of the Royal Dumfries Volunteers, was interred with military honours, on Monday 25th July 1796, in Dumfries church yard. We cannot conclude our account of this celebrated poet better than by ſubjoining his epitaph, long ago written by himſelf.

I.

Is there a whim-inſpired fool,
Owre faſt for thought, owre hot for rule,
Owre blate to ſeek, owre proud to ſnoul?
Let him draw near;
And owre this graſſy heap ſing dool,
And drap a tear.

II.

Is there a bard of ruſtic ſong,
Who, noteleſs, ſteals the crowds among,
That weekly to this area throng?
O paſs not by!
But with a frater-feeling ſtrong,
Here, heave a ſigh.

III.

Is there a man whoſe judgment clear,
Can others teach the courſe to ſteer,
Yet runs, himſelf, life's mad career,
Wild as the wave?
Here pauſe—and, through the ſtarting tear,
Survey this grave.

IV.

The poor Inhabitant below
Was quick to learn and wiſe to know,
And keenly felt the friendly glow,
And *ſoſter flame*;
But thoughtleſs follies laid him low,
And ſtain'd his name.

V.

Reader, attend.—Whether thy ſoul
Soars fancy's flights beyond the pole,
Or darkling grubs this earthly hole,
In low purſuit;
Know, prudent, cautious, *ſelf-controul*
Is Wiſdom's root.

BURNSAL, a village in Yorkſhire, on the Wherfe, between Settle and Paitley Bridge.

BURNSWARK, a hill of Dumfries-ſhire, in the pariſh of Hoddom, remarkable for its form, which, from its ſmoothneſs and regularity, has all the appearance of art; as well as for the extenſive view which it commands, and for the veſtiges of Roman works, which may be diſtinctly traced on its ſides and top. Mr Gordon, in his *Itinerary*, has given a particular deſcription of this hill, with a plan of the works in it.

* BURNT. *particip. paſſ.* of *burn*: applied to liquours, it means made hot.—

I find it very difficult to know,
Who, to refreſh th' attendant to a grave,
Burnt claret firſt, or Naples biſket gave. *King.*

BURNT-ELY, a village in Suffolk, between Sudbury and Bilſton.

(1.) BURNTISLAND, a pariſh of Scotland, on the coaſt of Fifeſhire, anciently called KINGHORN WESTER, about 9 m. N. by W. from Leith; extending about 3 miles every way. The climate is healthy and warm, owing to the ſurrounding hills: The ſoil is rich, and produces excellent crops of wheat, barley and beans. The coaſt abounds in ſhell fiſh. The population, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Wemyſs, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was about 1100, in 1791, and had decreaſed 290 ſince 1755.

(2.) BURNTISLAND, a royal burgh and ſea port town in the above pariſh, (No. 1.) ſeated on the frith of Forth, 9 m. N. by W. of Edinburgh. It has the beſt harbour on the coaſt, formed by a rocky iſle eked out with piers. It is very capacious and of great depth, although it is dry at low water. Docks might be eſtabliſhed in it for receiving the largeſt ſhips of war. The church is ſquare, with a ſteeple riſing in the centre, and was built by the inhabitants, in 1592, at their own expence, without the aid of the heritors. The old caſtle, built by the *Duries*, commanded both town and harbour. The place has a natural ſtrength, which, with the conveniency of a port oppoſite to the capital, made it, during the troubles of 1560, a moſt deſirable poſt. The French, allies to the queen regent, fortified it ſtrongly. Laſt century, it held out againſt Cromwell, till he was obliged to enter into conditions with the inhabitants; part of which were, that he ſhould repair the ſtreets and harbour; in conſequence of which the quays, as they now ſtand, were built by him; and the ſtreets have never been repaired ſince. In 1715, the town was ſurpriſed and poſſeſſed by the rebels, who formed the bold deſign of paſſing over a body of troops to the oppoſite ſhore; which was in part executed under the command of brigadier Macintoſh, notwithſtanding all the efforts of the men of war. The government of the burgh is veſted in 21 perſons, viz. 14 guild counſellers, out of whom are choſen 3 bailies; and 7 trades counſellors. A provoſt is alſo elected annually, ſometimes from among the counſellors, and ſometimes from the neighbouring nobility and gentry, in which caſe he is a ſupernumerary. This town had a great trade before the union, but it fell off totally after it. It has now, however, a ſugar houſe belonging to a Glaſgow company and a vitriol work. Ship building is alſo carried on by a few hands; and about 12 or 15 tons of kelp are annually made. The advantages of Burntiſland for trade and manufactures are immenſe, if they were properly improved. Lon. 3. 5. W. Lat. 56. 3. N.

BURNTURK, a ſmall diſtrict of Fifeſhire, about 8 m. from the frith of Forth, abounding in coals.

BURNTWOOD, a town of Eſſex, ſituated on a hill. Lon. 0. 25. E. Lat. 51. 38. N.

BURPH, a town N. of Bridport, Dorſetſhire.

BURPHAM, in Suſſex, N. E. of Arundel.

BURPHANTS, in Surry, S. E. of Woking.

(1.) * BURR. *n. ſ.* The lobe or lap of the ear. *Dict.*

(2.) BURR, among huntſmen, the round knob of a horn next a deer's head.

(1.) BURRA, an iſland of Scotland, in the county of Shetland, joined to that of Houſe by a bridge, containing, along with the iſles of Havera and Papa, 379 inhabitants, in 1792. See No. 2.

(2.) BURRA

(2.) BURRA, a parish in the above island, (N. 1.) united with those of Bressay and Quarff. See BRESSAY, No. 2.

BURRAMPOOTER, the name of a river in India, the magnitude and course of which were scarcely explored till very lately; and of which the following account is given by J. Rennel, Esq; in the 71st volume of the Philosophical Transactions: "The Burrampooter, which has its source from the opposite side of the mountains that give rise to the Ganges, first takes its course eastwards through the country of Thibet, where it is named Sanpoo or Zancu, which bears the same interpretation as the Ganga of Hindostan, namely the river. After winding with a rapid current through Thibet, it washes the border of the territory of Lassa, and then deviating from an E. to a S. W. course, it approaches within 220 miles of Yunan, the most westerly province of China. Here it appears as if undetermined whether to attempt a passage to the sea by the Gulf of Siam, or by that of Bengal; but seemingly determining on the latter, it turns suddenly to the N. W. through Assam, and enters Bengal on the N. E. I have not been able to learn the exact place where it changes its course; but as the people of Assam call it *Burrampoot*, it would appear that it takes this name on entering that country. After its entry into Bengal it makes a circuit round the western point of the Garrow mountains, and then altering its course to S. it meets the Ganges about 40 miles from the sea. On tracing this river in 1765, I was no less surprised to find it rather larger than the Ganges, in its course previous to its entering Bengal. This I found to be from the E.; though all the former accounts represented it as from the N.; and this unexpected discovery soon led to inquiries, which furnished me with an account of its general course, to within 100 miles of the place where the geographer Du Halde left the Sanpoo. I could then no longer doubt, that the Burrampooter and Sanpoo were one and the same river; and to this were added the positive assurances of the Assamers, "That their river came from the northward through the Boutan mountains." The river, during a course of 400 miles through Bengal, bears so near a resemblance to the GANGES, except in one particular, that one description may serve for both. The exception I mean is, that during the last 60 miles before its junction with the Ganges, it forms a stream which is regularly from 4 to 5 miles wide, and but for its freshness might pass for an arm of the sea. I have endeavoured to account for the singular breadth of the Megna, (Burrampooter,) by supposing that the Ganges once joined it where the Issamurty now does; and that their joint waters there scooped out its present bed. The present junction of these two mighty rivers, below Luckipour, produces a body of running fresh water, hardly to be equalled in the old hemisphere, and perhaps not to be excelled in the new. It now forms a gulf interspersed with islands, some of which rival in size and fertility our Isle of Wight. The water at ordinary times is hardly brackish at the extremities of these islands; and in the rainy season, the sea, or at least the surface of it, is fresh to the distance of many leagues out. The quantity of water discharged by the Ganges, in one second of time during the dry season, is 80,000 cubic feet; but in the place where the experiment was made, the river, when full, has thrice the quantity of water in it, and its motion is also accelerated in the proportion of 5 to 3; so that the quantity discharged in a second at that time is 405,000 cubic feet. If we take the medium the whole year through, it will be nearly 180,000 cubic feet in a second." Mr Rennel, however, does not inform us, whether the experiment was made above or below the junction of the Ganges and Burrampooter. He informs us that in the mouths of the Ganges, particularly the Hugueley or Calcutta river, there is a remarkable bore, or sudden and abrupt influence of the tide into a narrow strait or river; so that boats which lie near the shore immediately quit that station, and make towards the stream of the river as fast as possible. At Calcutta it sometimes rises 5 feet almost instantaneously. In the channels between the islands in the mouth of the Burrampooter, it sometimes rises more than 12 feet, and is so terrible that no boat will venture to pass at spring tide.

BURRANESS, a place in Orkney, where there is an ancient Pictish castle of a circular form, without any entrance but from the top.

BURRANT, EAST, } two villages in the coun-
BURRANT, WEST, } ty of Hampshire.

* BURRAS PIPE, [With surgeons.] An instrument or vessel used to keep corroding powers in, as vitriol, precipitate. *Harris.*

BURRA-VOE, a good harbour on the coast of Shetland.

(1.) BURRAY, an island of Scotland on the S. coast of Orkney, 4 m. long and one broad. In 1792, it contained 312 inhabitants.

(2.) BURRAY, an ancient parish in the above island, now united to that of S. Ronaldsay. See RONALDSAY.

BURRE, BOURREE, or BOREE, a kind of dance composed of three steps joined together in two motions, begun with a crotchet rising. The first couplet contains twice 4 measures, the second twice 8. It consists of a balance and coupee.

(1.) BURREL, a village in Yorkshire, 3 miles N. of Snape, and W. of Bedal.

(2.) * BURREL. *n. s.* A sort of pear, otherwise called the red *butter pear*, from its smooth, delicious, and soft pulp. *Philips.*

(3.) * BURREL-FLY. [from *bourreler*, Fr. to execute, to torture.] An insect, called also *oxfly*, *gadbee*, or *breeze*. *Dict.*

(4.) * BURREL SHOT. [from *bourreler*, to execute, and *shot*.] In gunnery, small bullets, nails, stones, pieces of old iron, &c. put into cases, to be discharged out of the ordnance; a sort of case-shot. *Harris.*

BURRELL. See BURELL.

BURRELS, a village of Westmoreland, S. of Appleby.

BURRINGTON, two villages in Devonshire, 1. N. of Cumleigh: 2. N. of Plympton.

BURRIS. See BORRIS, No. 2.

BURRISALEIGH, a village of Ireland, in Tipperary, Munster, 78 m. from Dublin.

BURROBY, in Yorksh. 3 m. from Thirsk.

* BURROCK. *n. s.* A small wear or dam,

where wheels are laid in a river for catching of fish. *Philips.*

BURRODEN, a village in Northumberland, near the two Trewhets.

BURRON HILL, in Dumfries-shire. The vestiges of an ancient camp, with a strong double fosse, are still visible on it.

(1.) BURROUGH, a town in Norfolk, between Fakenham and Holt.

(2.) BURROUGH. See BOROUGH, § 2.

BURROUGHS'S MACHINE, an invention by Mr Burroughs of Southwark, for which the society for the encouragement of arts gave him a premium of L. 70. See Plate XLIV. fig. 8 and 10. This machine consists of a cog-wheel, A, fig. 8; 12 feet in diameter, carrying 72 cogs; which turn a trundle-head B, one foot 4 inches in diameter and furnished with 8 rounds; and also an horizontal spur-wheel C, of 12 cogs, and one foot 8 inches in diameter. The trundle-head B turns a spur-wheel D of 10 cogs, and 2 feet 8 inches in diameter. This spur-wheel has two cranks, *a*, *b*, in its shaft; one of which, *a*, gives motion to a wooden frame, *c*, about 34 inches long and 19 broad. On the under side of this frame are fastened by screws 12 pieces of polished metal, 5¼ inches long, and 3 broad, covered with leather; and underneath these polishers, a glass plate cemented in another frame, is placed on the bench, *d*, and polished with tripoli by the motion given to the upper frame of the crank, *c*. The nuts of the screws, which fasten the polishers to the upper frame, are not screwed close to the wood, in order to give the frame room to play; by which contrivance the perpendicular rise of the crank is avoided, and the motion of the polishers always parallel and equal. The under frame may be moved by the hand in any direction without stopping the machine; by which means the plate, when larger than the polishing frame can cover in its motion, will be equally polished in every part. The other crank, *b*, gives motion to two other polishers, marked *n*, *o*, which have an alternate motion by the bending of the crank; they move upon the same plate, and have an equal number of polishers, as that already described. The same crank also gives motion to a contrivance represented at *e*, for polishing spectacle glasses. It consists of two segments of the same sphere; one concave and the other convex. On the latter the glasses are cemented; and polished by the former, which is moved by the crank *b*. The convex segment may be moved by the hand without stopping the machine, so that all the glasses on its superficies will be equally polished. The other spur-wheel C, by means of a crank in its shaft, gives motion to another frame, *g*, employed in grinding the glass plates. The rod, *b*, extended from the crank *f*, to the frame *g*, is fastened to the latter by means of a pivot, in order to admit of a rotatory motion, as well as that given it by the crank in a longitudinal direction. This rotatory motion is effected by means of a rod of iron *i*, called a *trigger*, sharp at the extremity next the frame, where it touches the teeth of an horizontal spur-wheel, or circular piece of wood, fixed to the grinding plate, while the other end is extended 3 feet 2 inches, to the centre of the motion. But this contrivance, in which the merit of the machine principally consists, will be much better conceived from a small delineation of it by itself, fig. 9. where F is the crank marked *f* in fig. 8. and turned by the spur-wheel C in the same figure. G is the trigger, 3 feet 2 inches long. I, a roll fixed on the trigger for the rod to slide on. H, the horizontal spur-wheel, 11 inches in diameter, fixed on the grinding plate; the teeth of which is touched by the trigger; but with a very unequal force, as it will wholly depend upon the grinding plate being farther from, or nearer to, the centre of motion of the trigger. By this simple contrivance, the grinding plate has a very compound motion, never moving exactly in the same tract, and therefore must grind the plates equally in every part. Several attempts have been made by others for producing the same effect; but without success; the grinding plate always follows the same tract, and consequently the plates are ground unequally.

(1.) * BURROW, BERG, BURG, BURGH. *s.f.* [derived from the Saxon *burg*, *biirg*, a city, tower, or castle, *Gibson's Camden.*] 1. A corporate town, that is not a city, but such as sends burgesses to the parliament. All places that, in former days, were called *boroughs*, were such as were fenced or fortified. *Cowel.*—

King of England shalt thou be proclaim'd
In ev'ry *burrow*, as we pass along. *Shakſp.*

—Possession of land was the original right of election among the commons; and *burrows* were entitled to sit, as they were possessed of certain tracts. *Temple.* 2. The holes, made in the ground by conies.—When they shall see his crest up again, and the man in blood, they will out of their *burrows*, like conies after rain, and revel all with him. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) BURROW, Sir James, master of the crown office, was elected F. R. S. and F. A. S. 1751. On the death of Mr West, in 1772, he was prevailed on to fill the president's chair at the Royal Society till the anniversary election, when he resigned it to Sir John Pringle: and Aug. 10, 1773, when the society presented an address to the king, he was knighted. He published two volumes of Reports in 1766: two others in 1771 and 1776; and a volume of Decisions of the Court of King's Bench, upon settlement cases from 1732 to 1772. (to which was subjoined An Essay on Punctuation,) in 3 parts 4to, 1768, 1772, 1776. The Essay was also printed separately in 4to, 1773. He published, without his name, "A few Anecdotes and Observations relating to Oliver Cromwell and his family, serving to rectify several errors concerning him:" published by Nicol. Comn. Papadopoli, in his *Historia Gymnasii Patavini*, 1763, 4to. He died in 1782.

(3—5.) BURROW; 3 villages; viz. 1. S. of Lancaster: 2. in Leicestershire, near Billesdon: and, 3. in Norfolk, near Alesham.

* *To* BURROW. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To make holes in the ground; to mine, as conies or rabbits. —Some strew sand among their corn, which they say, prevents mice and rats *burrowing* in it; because of its falling into their ears. *Mortimer.*—Little sinuses would form, and *burrow* underneath. *Sharp.*

BUR-

BURROWAN, a place in Dunfermline, in Culross parish, where there are the remains of an old Daniſh camp.

BURROWBRIDGE, a town in Yorkſhire, ſeated on the river Ure. See BOROUGHBRIDGE.

BURROW-DUCK, an Engliſh name given the Anas Tadorna. See ANAS, N° 36.

BURROW-GREEN, 2 miles from Cambridge and 1 from Newmarket.

BURROW-HILL, near Daventry, Northamptonſhire.

BURROWMUIR, a diſtrict in the county of Linlithgow, where Edward I. lay with his vaſt army, the night before the battle of Falkirk. Though now incloſed, it ſtill retains its ancient name.

(1.)* BURR PUMP. [In a ſhip.] A pump by the ſide of a ſhip, into which a ſtaff 7 or 8 feet long is put; having a burr or knob of wood at the end, which is drawn up by a rope faſtened to the middle of it, called alſo a *bilge-pump*. *Harris*.

(2.) BURR-PUMP, or BILGE-PUMP, differs from the common pump, in having a ſtaff 6, 7, or 8 feet long, with a bar of wood, whereto the leather is nailed, and this ſerves inſtead of a box. Two men, ſtanding over the pump, thruſt down this ſtaff, to the middle whereof is faſtened a rope, for 6, 8, or 10 men to hale by, thus pulling it up and down.

BURR REED. See SPARGANIUM.

(1.) BURSA, BURSE, originally ſignifies a purſe. In writers of the middle age it is more particularly uſed for a little college, or hall in an univerſity, for the reſidence of ſtudents, called *burſales* or *burſarii*. In ſome univerſities it ſtill denotes a foundation for the maintenance of poor ſcholars in their ſtudies. The nomination to burſes is in the hands of the patrons and founders thereof. The burſes of colleges are not benefices, but mere places aſſigned to certain countries and perſons. A burſe becomes vacant by the burſer's being promoted to a cure.

(2.) BURSA, or PURSA, the capital of Bithynia in Aſia Minor, ſituated in a fine fruitful plain, at the foot of mount Olympus, about 100 miles S. of Conſtantinople. It is one of the largeſt and fineſt cities of Aſiatic Turkey, and contains about 40,000 Turks, beſides 300 families of Greeks, 400 of Jews, and 500 of Armenians. It was the capital of the Turkiſh empire, before the taking of Conſtantinople. Part of it ſtands on ſeveral ſmall hills at the foot of Olympus. The plain is covered with mulberry and various other fruit trees. The moſques and caravanſeras are elegant; and ſo many ſprings proceed from Olympus that every houſe has its fountain. The beniſtan contains all the commodities of the Eaſt. See BAZAR and BENISTAN. It alſo abounds in their own manufactures; the beſt workmen in Turkey reſiding in this town, and being excellent imitators of the French and Italian artiſts; particularly in tapeſtry. Lon. 29. 5. E. Lat. 39. 22. N.

BURSÆ MUCOSÆ. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

BURSALES. See BURSA, N° 1.

(1.) BURSA PASTORIS, in botany. See THLASPI.

(2.) BURSA PASTORIS MINOR. See DRABA.

(1.)* BURSAR. *n. ſ.* [*burſarius*, Lat.] 1. The treaſurer of a college. 2. Students ſent as exhibitioners to the univerſities in Scotland by each preſbytery, from whom they have a ſmall yearly allowance for four years.

(2.) BURSARS or BURSERS alſo denote thoſe to whom ſtipends are paid out of a burſe or fund appointed for that purpoſe.

BURSARIA, the burſary, or exchequer of collegiate and conventual bodies; or the place of receiving, paying, and accounting by the burſers.

BURSARII, 1. Butlers of a college: 2. Privileged ſtudents. See BURSA, N° 1. and BURSAR.

BURSARY. See BURSERY.

BURSCOMB, a village in Lancaſhire, near Latham and Ormſkirk.

(1.)* BURSE. *n. ſ.* [*bourſe*, Fr. *burſa*, Lat. a purſe; or from *byrſa*, Lat. the exchange of Carthage.] An exchange where merchants meet, and ſhops are kept; ſo called, becauſe the ſign of the purſe was anciently ſet over ſuch a place; the Exchange in the Strand was termed Britain's Burſe by James I. *Philips*.

(2.) BURSE, Guicchardin aſſures us, was firſt applied to a commercial edifice at Bruges, and took its riſe from an hotel, built by a lord of the family de la Bourſe, whoſe arms, which are 3 purſes, are ſtill found on the crowning over the portal of the houſe. Catel's account is ſomewhat different, *viz.* that the merchants of Bruges bought a houſe to meet in, at which was the ſign of the purſe. From this city the name was afterwards transferred to ſimilar places in Antwerp, Amſterdam, Bergen in Norway, London, &c. This laſt, anciently known by the name of the *common burſe of merchants*, had the denomination ſince given it by queen Elizabeth, of the *royal exchange*. The moſt conſiderable burſe is that of Amſterdam, which is a large building, 230 feet long and 130 broad, round which runs a periſtyle 20 feet wide. The columns of the periſtyle, which are 46, are numbered, for the conveniency of finding people. It will hold 4500 perſons. The ancient Romans had public places for the meetings of merchants in moſt of their trading cities; that built at Rome, A. U. C. 259. under the conſulate of Appius Claudius and Publius Servilius, was denominated the *college of merchants*; ſome remains of it are ſtill to be ſeen, and are known by the modern Romans under the name *loggia*. The Hans towns, after the example of the Romans, gave the name of *colleges* to their burſes.

BURSELEY, a village in Worceſterſhire, 4 m. S. E. of Broomſgrove.

BURSER. See BURSAR.

BURSERA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria claſs of plants. The calyx is triphyllous; the corolla tripetalous; the capſule carnous, trivalved, and monoſpermous. There is but one ſpecies; viz.

BURSERA GUMMIFERA, or gum elemi. It is frequent in woods in moſt of the Bahama iſlands, and grows ſpeedily to a great height and thickneſs. The bark is brown, and very like the birch of Britain. The wood is ſoft and uſeleſs, except when pieces of the limbs are put into the ground as fences, when it grows readily, and becomes a durable barrier. The leaves are pinnate; the middle rib 3 or 6 inches long, with the pinnæ ſet oppoſite, on footſtalks half an inch long. It has

yellow

yellow flowers, male and female on different trees. Theſe are ſucceeded by purple-coloured berries bigger than large peas, hanging in cluſters on a ſtalk of about 5 inches long, to which each berry is joined by a footſtalk half an inch long. The ſeed is hard, white, and of a triangular figure, incloſed within a thin capſule, which divides in 3 parts, and diſcharges the ſeed. The fruit, when cut, diſcharges a clear balſam, eſteemed a good vulnerary, particularly for horſes. On wounding the bark, a thick milky liquor is obtained, which ſoon concretes into a reſin no way different from the *gum elemi* of the ſhops. See AMYRIS, § 5. Dr Browne, and after him Linnæus, have, according to Dr Wright, miſtaken the bark of the root for the SIMAROUBA, which is a ſpecies of QUASSIA. See *Plate* XLII. *fig.* 18.

BURSERY, 1. A privilege to attend a college in Scotland, without paying fees: 2. A ſalary beſtowed for that purpoſe at the diſpoſal of ſome patron: 3. The treaſury of a college or monaſtery.

BURS-HOLDER. See BOROUGH-HEAD.

BURSLEM, a village in Staffordſhire, 3 m. from Newcaſtle under Line.

(1.) * BURST. BURSTEN. *particip. adj.* [from *burſt*.] Diſeaſed with a hernia, or rupture.

(2.) * BURST. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A ſudden diſruption; a ſudden and violent action of any kind.—

Since I was man,
Such ſheets of fire, ſuch *burſt* of horrid thunder,
Such groans of roaring wind and rain, I never
Remember to have heard. *Shakeſ.*

Down they came, and drew
The whole roof after them, with *burſt* of thunder,
Upon the heads of all. *Milton.*

Impriſon'd fires, in the cloſe dungeons pent,
Roar to get looſe, and ſtruggle for a vent,
Eating their way, and undermining all,
Till with a mighty *burſt* whole mountains fall.
Addiſon.

(1.) * *To* BURST. *v. n.* I *burſt*; I have *burſt*, or *burſten*. [*burſtan*, Saxon.] 1. To break, or fly open; to ſuffer a violent diſruption.—So ſhall thy barns be filled with plenty, and thy preſſes ſhall *burſt* out with new wine. *Prov.* iii. 10.—It is ready to *burſt* like new bottles. *Joh.*—

Th' egg that ſoon
Burſting with kindly rupture, forth diſclos'd
The callow young. *Milton.*

2. To fly aſunder.—

Yet am I thankful; if my heart were great,
'Twould *burſt* at this. *Shakeſ.*

3. To break away; to ſpring.—

You *burſt*, ah cruel! from my arms,
And ſwiftly ſhoot along the Mall,
Or ſoftly glide by the Canal. *Pope.*

4. To come ſuddenly.—

A reſolved villain,
Whoſe bowels ſuddenly *burſt* out; the king
Yet ſpeaks, and peradventure, may recover.
Shakeſpeare.

If the worlds
In worlds incloſ'd ſhou'd on his ſenſes *burſt*,
He wou'd abhorrent turn. *Thomſon.*

5. To come with violence.—

Well didſt thou, Richard, to ſuppreſs thy voice;
For had the paſſions of thy heart *burſt* out,
I fear, we ſhould have ſeen decypher'd there
More ranc'rous ſpight. *Shakeſ.*

—Where is the notable paſſage over the river Euphrates, *burſting* out by the vallies of the mountain Antitaurus; from whence the plains of Meſopotamia, then part of the Perſian kingdom, begin to open themſelves? *Knolles.*—

Young ſpring protrudes the *burſting* gems.
Thomſon.

6. To begin an action violently or ſuddenly.—She *burſt* into tears, and wrung her hands. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) * *To* BURST. *v. a.* To break ſuddenly; to make a quick and violent diſruption.—

My breaſt I'll *burſt* with ſtraining of my courage,
And from my ſhoulders crack my arms aſunder,
But I will chaſtiſe this high-minded ſtrumpet.
Shakeſpeare.

He faſten'd on my neck, and bellow'd out,
As if he would *burſt* heav'n. *Shakeſ.*

—I will break his yoke from off thy neck, and will *burſt* thy bonds. *Jer.* xxx. 8.—Moſes ſaith alſo, the fountains of the great abyſs were *burſt* aſunder, to make the deluge; and what means this abyſs, and the *burſting* of it, if reſtrained to Judea? what appearance is there of this diſruption there? *Burnet's Theory.*—If the juices of an animal body were, ſo as by the mixture of the oppoſites, to cauſe an ebullition, they would *burſt* the veſſels. *Arbuthnot.*

BURSTALL, 3 villages; 1. N. E. of Leiceſter on the Stour: 2. in Suffolk, W. of Ipſwich: 3. in Yorkſ. between Huddersfield and Leeds.

BURSTALL-GARTH, in Holderneſs, Yorkſ.

BURSTED, GREAT, } two villages in Eſſex,
BURSTED, LITTLE, } near Billericay.

BURSTEN. See BURST, N. 2, and RUPTURE.

* BURSTENNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *burſt*.] A rupture, or hernia.

BURSTOCK, a village in Dorſetſhire, W. of Bemiſter.

BURSTON, 5 villages; viz. 1. in Bucks, N. E. of Aileſbury: 2. in Dorſetſh. 4 m. W. of Bere-Regis: 3. in Norfolk, 2 m. from Diſs: 4. in ditto, 4 m. S. of Holt: and, 5. in Staffordſh. N. E. of Newcaſtle under Line.

BURSTOW, in Surry, near E. Grinſted.

BURSTWICK, in Holderneſs, Yorkſhire.

(1.) * BURSTWORT. *n. ſ.* [from *burſt* and *wort*; *herniaria*, Latin.] An herb good againſt ruptures. *Dict.*

(2.) BURST-WORT. See HERNIARIA.

* BURT. *n. ſ.* A flat fiſh of the turbot kind.

BURTFORD, a town near Saliſbury, Wilts.

(1.) * BURTHEN. *n. ſ.* See BURDEN.—

Sacred to ridicule his whole life long,
And the ſad *burthen* of ſome merry ſong. *Pope.*

(2.) BURTHEN OF A SHIP. See BURDEN, 4.

* *To* BURTHEN. *v. a.* See *To* BURDEN.

BURTHORP, a village in Glouceſterſhire, near Lechlade.

BURTICK, a fort in Livonia.

BURTLE HOUSE, near Bridgewater.

(1.) BURTON, a town of Lincolnſhire, ſeated on a hill near the Trent; 30 m. N. of Lincoln, and 164 N. by W. of London; alſo called BURTON-STATHER. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 53. 40. N.

(2.) BURTON, a town of Weſtmoreland, ſeated in a valley near a large hill, called *Earlet*[illegible]

bill. It is pretty well built, and lies on the great road from Lancaſter to Carliſle. Lon. 2. 35. W. Lat. 54. 10. N.

(3.) * BURTON. *n. ſ.* [In a ſhip.] A ſmall tackle to be faſtened any where at pleaſure, conſiſting of two ſingle pullies, for hoiſting ſmall things in or out. *Philips.*

(4.) BURTON, Henry, one of the ſufferers under the civil and eccleſiaſtical tyranny of laſt century, was born at Birſall, in Yorkſhire, in 1579; educated at Cambridge; and took his degrees of M. A. and B. D. there and at Oxford. He was firſt tutor to lord Carey's ſons;—afterwards clerk of the cloſet to prince Henry and prince Charles; and next appointed to attend the latter into Spain, in 1623: but, probably from ſpeaking too freely of the biſhops, was ſet aſide, after his goods were partly ſhipped. In 1625, he preſented a letter to king Charles remonſtrating againſt Dr Laud and Dr Neil, as being popiſhly affected; for which he was prohibited the court. About this time, however, he obtained the rectory of St Matthews, London, where he preached with ſo much freedom, that, in 1636, he was ſummoned before commiſſioner Duck, to anſwer for what he had ſaid in two ſermons on the 5 Nov. preceding. He appealed to the king, but was ſuſpended by the high commiſſion court; whereupon he abſconded, but publiſhed his ſermons, with reaſons for his appeal. He was ſoon after apprehended by warrant from that ſtate inquiſition, the ſtar-chamber; incarcerated in Fleet priſon along with the celebrated Prynne and Baſtwick, and all his papers ſeized. They were charged with writing ſeditious, ſchiſmatical, and libellous books, againſt the church and government. They gave in anſwers, but the court expunged the greater part of them, and ſentenced them to pay a fine of L. 5000 each; and Burton beſides to be degraded from his office and degrees, deprived of his benefice, ſet on the pillory, there to have his ears cut off, and to be afterwards impriſoned for life, denied the uſe of paper, pens, and ink, and debarred the acceſs of all perſons except the keeper,—not even his wife being permitted to ſee him. After 12 weeks cloſe confinement in Lancaſter jail, he was removed in 1637, to Cornet caſtle in Guernſey, where he was ſhut up for 3 years, till 1640, when the Houſe of Commons reverſed the ſentence as illegal, annulled the fine, reſtored him to his degrees and benefice, and voted him L. 6000 as a compenſation for his impriſonment and the loſs of his ears. From the confuſion of the times, however, he never received this ſum, though he was reſtored to his living. He died in Jan. 1648.

(5.) BURTON, John, D. D. a worthy and learned divine, born in 1696, at Wembworth, in Deronſhire, and educated at Oxford. In 1725, being then pro-proctor, he ſpoke a Latin oration, entitled "*Heli*; or, An inſtance of a magiſtrate's erring through unſeaſonable lenity;" written and publiſhed with a view to encourage the ſalutary exerciſe of academical diſcipline; and afterwards treated the ſame ſubject ſtill more fully in 4 Latin ſermons before the univerſity, and publiſhed them with appendixes. He alſo introduced into the ſchools Locke, and other eminent modern philoſophers, as ſuitable companions to Ariſtotle; and printed a double ſeries of philoſophical queſtions, for the uſe of the younger ſtudents; from which Mr Johnſon of Magdalene college, Cambridge, took the hint of his larger work of the ſame kind, which has gone through ſeveral editions. When the ſettling of Georgia was in agitation, in 1732, Dr Burton preached before the ſociety, and publiſhed his ſermon, with an appendix on the ſtate of that colony; and he afterwards publiſhed an account of the deſigns of the aſſociates of the late Dr Bray, with an account of their proceedings in that buſineſs. About the ſame time, on the death of Dr Edward Littleton, he was preſented by Eton college to the vicarage of Maple-Derham, in Oxfordſhire. Here a melancholy ſcene, which too often appears in the manſions of the clergy, preſented itſelf to his view; a widow, with three infant daughters, without a home, without a fortune: from his compaſſion aroſe love, the conſequence of which was marriage; for Mrs Littleton was handſome, elegant, accompliſhed, ingenious, and had great ſweetneſs of temper. In 1760, he exchanged his vicarage of Maple-Derham for the rectory of Worpleſdon in Surrey. In his advanced age, finding his eyes begin to fail, he collected and publiſhed, in one volume, all his ſcattered pieces, under the title of *Opuſcula miſcellanea*; and ſoon after died, Feb. 11th, 1771.

(6.) BURTON, Robert, known to the learned by the name of *Democritus junior*, was the ſon of Ralph Burton, Eſq. of Lindley in Leiceſterſhire, and born Feb. 8, 1576. He was educated at Sutton Coleſield in Warwickſhire; in 1593 was ſent to Oxford; and in 1599, was elected ſtudent of Chriſt-church. In 1616, he had the vicarage of St Thomas, in Oxford, conferred upon him by the dean and canons of Chriſt-church, to the pariſhioners of which, it is ſaid, that he always gave the ſacrament in wafers; and this, with the rectory of Segrave in Leiceſterſhire, given him ſome time after by George lord Berkeley, he held to his death, in January 1639. He was a man of general learning; a great philoſopher; an exact mathematician; and a very curious calculator of nativities. He was extremely ſtudious, and of a melancholy turn; yet an agreeable companion, and very humorous. *The anatomy of Melancholy*, by *Democritus junior*, ſhows, that theſe oppoſite qualities were mingled in his compoſition. This book was printed firſt in 4to, afterwards in folio, in 1624, 1632, 1638, and 1652, to the great emolument of the bookſeller, who, as Mr Wood tells us, got an eſtate by it. He died in his chamber at or very near the time which, it ſeems, he had ſome years before predicted from the calculation of his nativity; and this exactneſs made it whiſpered about, that for the glory of aſtrology, and rather than his calculation ſhould fail, he had become *felo de ſe*. This, however, was generally diſcredited; he was buried with due ſolemnity in the cathedral of Chriſt-church, and had a fair monument erected to his memory. He left behind him a very choice collection of books. He bequeathed many to the Bodleian library; and 100l. to Chriſt-church, the intereſt of which was to be laid out yearly in books for their library.

(7.) BURTON, William, elder brother of Robert, (N. 6.) was born 24th Aug. 1575; educated

at

at Sutton-Coldfield; admitted at Oxford in 1591; graduated B. A. in 1594, and afterwards admitted a barriſter in the court of common pleas. But his genius ſoon led him from the law, to the ſtudy of antiquities, genealogies, heraldry, &c. in which branches of ſcience he became eminent. In 1602, he corrected Saxton's map of Leiceſterſhire, and added 80 towns to it. In 1612, he drew up the corollary of Leland's life, prefixed to the *Collectanea*. In 1622, he publiſhed his great work, *The Deſcription of Leiceſterſhire*. In 1625, he compiled a folio vol. ſtill in M. S. entitled, *Antiquitates de Dadlington*. After ſuffering much in the civil war, he died at Falde in Staffordſhire, 6 April, 1645.

(8—30.) BURTON, the name of 23 ſmall towns and villages; viz. 1. in Berks, near Aſhbury: 2. in Buckinghamſh. 3. in Cheſhire, near the Dee: 4. five m. E. of Cheſter: 5. in Dorſetſh. near Bridport: 6. in ditto, W. of Wareham: 7. in Hampſhire, between Lymington and Chriſt-church: 8. in Herefordſh. N. E. of Pembridge: 9. in Kent, near Aſhbridge: 10. in ditto, near Tunbridge: 11. in Lincolnſh. between Grantham and Market-Deeping: 12. N. W. of Lincoln: 13. in Norfolkſh. 3 m. S. E. of Wurſtead: 14. in Northumberland, S. of Bamburgh caſtle: 15. four m. from Nottingham: 16. in Shropſh. S. of Wenlock: 17. in ditto, between Wenlock and Shrewſbury: 18. in Somerſetſh. W. of Bedminſter: 19. in ditto, near Somerton: 20. in ditto, near Wyncanton: 21. in Staffordſh. near Penkridge: 22. in the Iſle of Wight, near Cowes: and, 23. in Worceſterſh. near Lower Sapy. BURTON alſo makes part of the names of other 38 towns and villages: viz.

(31.) BURTON-AGNES, E. of Kilham, Yorkſh.

(32.) BURTON-BISHOPS, N. of Beverly, Yorkſh.

(33.) BURTON, BLACK, N. of Bradwell, Oxf.

(34.) BURTON-CHERRY, N. W. of Beverley, Yorkſhire.

(35, 36.) BURTON-CONSTABLE, 1. N. W. of Beverly: 2. between Midlam and Richmond: both in Yorkſhire. This laſt has a market on Frid. and St Mary Magdalen's eve and day.

(37.) BURTON-DORSET, in Warwickſhire, 3. m. from Kyneton.

(38—42.) BURTON, EAST; 5 villages; viz. 1. in Nottinghamſh. 3 m. from Gainſborough: 2. in Suſſex, between Petworth and Arundel: 3. in Weſtmoreland, E. of Appleby: 4. in Yorkſ. in Holderneſs: and, 5. in Yorkſ. 4 m. N. E. of Richmond.

(43.) BURTON-GRANGE, near Barnſley, York.

(44.) BURTON, GREAT, N. of Dorcheſter.

(45.) BURTON-HASTINGS, in Warwickſhire, between Coventry and Leiceſter.

(46.) BURTON-HILL, S. of Malmſbury, Wilts.

(47.) BURTON IN BISHOPSDALE, S. W. of Midlam, Yorkſhire.

(48.) BURTON-LATIMER, in Northampton, S. W. of Kettering.

(49.) BURTON-LAZERS, S. of Melton-Mowbray, in Leiceſterſh.

(50.) BURTON-LEONARD, in Yorkſhire, W. of Boroughbridge.

(51.) BURTON, LITTLE, near Great B. N. 44.

(52.) BURTON, LONG, N. of the White Hart Ie, in Dorſetſhire.

(53.) BURTON MAGNA, S. of Branbury, Oxford.

(54.) BURTON, NORTH, N. W. of Bridlington.

(55.) BURTON ON THE WATER, in Glouceſt.

(56.) BURTON-OVERY, near Hallaton, Leiceſt.

(57.) BURTON PA VA, S. E. of Magna, N. 55.

(58.) BURTON-PIDSEY, in Holderneſs.

(59.) BURTON-SALMON, N. of Pontefract, in the W. Riding of Yorkſhire.

(60.) BURTON-STATHER. See N. 1.

(61.) BURTON SUPER MONTEM, in Glouceſterſhire, W. of Morton in Marſh.

(62.) BURTON UPON OLDO, in Leiceſterſhire.

(63.) BURTON UPON TRENT, a town of Staffordſhire. It had formerly a large abbey; and over the Trent it has a famous bridge of free ſtone, about a quarter of a mile in length, ſupported by 37 arches. It conſiſts chiefly of one long ſtreet, reaching from the place where the abbey ſtood to the bridge; and has a good market for corn and proviſions. Burton ale is reckoned the beſt of any brought to London. It lies N. E. of Litchfield, and 124 m. N. N. W. of London. Lon 1. 40. W. Lat. 52. 48. N.

(64—68.) BURTON, WEST, 5 villages, near the 5 Eaſt Burtons. See N. 38—42.

(69.) BURTON-WOOD, in W. Derby.

BURWARTON, near Brownclee hill, Salop.

BURWASH, a town in the county of Suſſex, on the river Rother, N. of Rotherbridge, 8 m. from Battle-Abbey. Fairs, May 12, and Sept. 4.

(1.) BURWELL, a town in the county of Cambridge, 3 m. N. of Newmarket Heath. A melancholy event happened in this place, in 1727, at the exhibition of a puppet ſhow, in a barn; where 160 people being aſſembled, the barn and ſcenes took fire, and only 5 or 6 perſons eſcaped. The bodies of the dead were ſo mangled and diſfigured, by the fire, and the fall of the roof, that their friends could not recogni.e them; and they were promiſcuouſly buried in one large grave. *Walker's Gazetteer.*

(2, 3.) BURWELL, two villages; 1. in Hampſhire near Hambledon: 2. in Lincolnſhire near Althorp.

(4.) BURWELL'S GREEN, N. W. of Ware Park, Hertfordſhire.

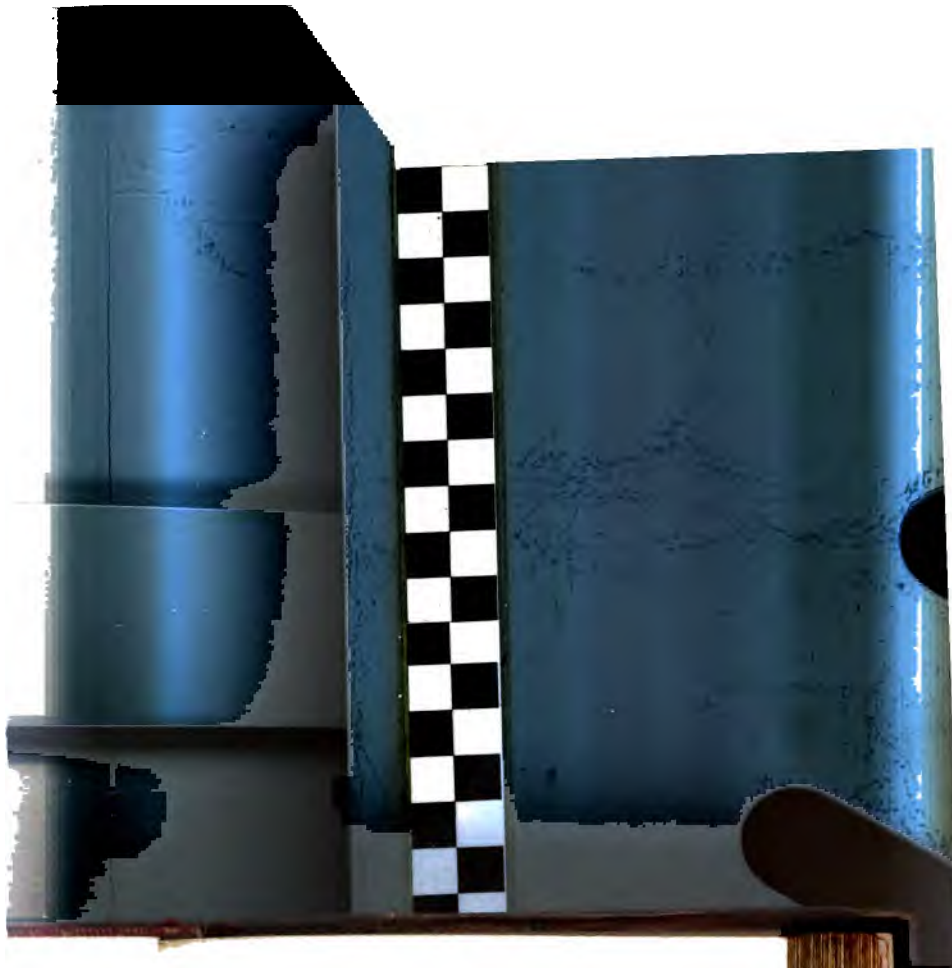
BURWOOD, in Surry, S. of Walton upon Thames.

(1.) * BURY. *n. ſ.* [from *burg*, Sax.] A dwelling-place; a termination ſtill added to the names of ſeveral places; as, *Aldermanbury*, St *Edmund's bury*; ſometimes written *bery*. *Phil.*

(2.) * BURY. *n. ſ.* [corrupted from *borough*.] 'Tis his nature to dig himſelf *buries*, as the coney doth; which he doth with very great celerity. *Grew.*

(3.) BURY is applied to the holes or dens of ſuch animals as live under ground; ſuch as mice, tortoiſes, &c. The grillotalpa, or mole-cricket, digs itſelf a bury with its fore-feet, which are made broad and ſtrong for that purpoſe. Naturaliſts ſpeak of a kind of urchins in the iſland of Maraguan, which have two entries to their buries, one towards the N. the other to the S. which they open and ſhut alternately as the wind happens to lie.

(4.) BURY, in geography, a town of Lancaſhire, ſeated on the Irwell, famous for its manufactures



factures of fuftians, half-thicks, and kerfeys. In 1781, the theatre fell, whereby above 300 perfons were buried in the ruins. A few of thefe efcaped unhurt, but the majority were either killed or much bruifed. Bury is 36 m. S. E. of Lancafter, and 190 N. N. W. of London. Lon. 2. 24. W. Lat. 53. 36. N.

(2.) BURY, ST EDMUND'S, the county town of Suffolk, and the *Montpelier* of England, lies in a pleafant fituation, 14 m. E. of Newmarket, and 83 N. N. E. of London. It was fo named from St Edmund, king of the E. Angles, who was drowned in it, and afterwards martyred by the Danes; and being buried in it, an abbey was erected in his honour. It fends 2 members to parliament. It has a fair Oct. 17, which lafts a fortnight, and a large market for corn, fifh, fowls, &c. Lon. 0. 45. E. Lat. 52. 20. N.

* To BURY. *v. a. [birigean,* Saxon] 1. To inter; to put into a grave.—

When he lies along,
After your way his tale pronounc'd, fhall *bury*
His reafons with his body. *Shakef.*

2. To inter, with the rites and ceremonies of fepulture.—

Slave, thou haft flain me!
If ever thou wilt thrive, *bury* my body. *Shakef.*
If you have kindefs left, there fee me laid;
To *bury* decently the injur'd maid,
Is all the favour. *Waller.*

3. To conceal; to hide.—

This is the way to make the city flat,
And *bury* all, which yet diftinctly ranges,
In heaps and piles of ruin. *Shakef.*

4. To place one thing within another.—

A tearing groan did break
The name of Anthony; it was divided
Between her heart and lips; fhe rendr'd life,
Thy name fo *bury'd* in her. *Shakef.*

(1.) BURYING. See BURIAL, § 1, 2.

(2.) BURYING ALIVE was the punifhment of a veftal who had violated her vow of virginity. The unhappy prieftefs was let down into a deep hole with bread, water, milk, oil, a lamp burning, and a bed to lie on. But this was only for form; for the moment fhe was let down, they began to caft in the earth upon her till the pit was filled up. See VESTALS. Some middle age writers feem to make burying alive, *(defoffio,)* the punifhment of a woman thief. This barbarous punifhment has even been ufed in our own country under the feudal tyranny. Mr Matheſon, minifter of Kilmuir Eaſter, in Roſs-ſhire, mentions, that, "in the year 1751, as labourers were digging a bank of earth near Milntown, they found a human ſkeleton fitting in an erect poſture, on a ſeat ſeemingly made for that purpoſe. Many credible perſons authenticate this as a fact known to themſelves. Tradition ſays, that ſeveral perſons were been buried alive, in this and the neighbouring parifh, by the direction of a cruel and arbitrary landlord, who was proprietor of theſe lands, in the beginning of laſt century."—*Stat. Acc. Vol. II. p.* 195. Lord Bacon gives inſtances of the reſurrection of perſons who have been buried alive. The famous Duns Scotus is of the number; who, having been ſeized with a cataleptis, was thought dead, and laid to ſleep among his fathers, but raiſed again by his ſervant in whoſe abſence he had been buried. Bartholin gives an account of a woman, who, on recovering from an apoplexy, could not believe but ſhe was dead, and ſolicited ſo long and ſo earneſtly to be buried, that they were forced to comply; and performed the ceremonies, at leaſt in appearance. The famous emperor Charles V. after his abdication, took it into his head to have his burial celebrated in his lifetime and aſſiſted at it. See CHARLES V.

(1.) * BURYING-PLACE. *n. ſ.* A place appointed for the ſepulture of dead bodies.—The place was formerly a church-yard, and has ſtill ſeveral marks in it of graves and *burying-places. Spectator.*

(2.) BURYING-PLACES. The ancients buried out of cities and towns; an uſage which we find equally among Jews, Greeks, and Romans. Among the laſt, burying within the walls was expreſsly prohibited by a law of the 12 tables. The uſual places of interment were in the ſuburbs and fields, but eſpecially by the way ſides. We have inſtances, however, of perſons buried in the city; but it was a favour allowed only to a few of ſingular merit in the commonwealth. Plutarch ſays, thoſe who had triumphed were indulged in it. Be thus as it will, Val. Publicola, and C. Fabricius, are ſaid to have had tombs in the forum; and Cicero adds Tubertus to the number. Lycurgus allowed his Lacedemonians to bury their dead within the city and around their temples, that the youth, being inured to ſuch ſpectacles, might be the leſs terrified with the apprehenſion of death. Two reaſons are alledged why the ancients buried out of cities: the firſt, an opinion, that the ſight, touch, or even neighbourhood, of a corpſe defiled a man, eſpecially a prieſt; whence that rule in A. Gellius, that the *flamen Dialis* might not on any account enter a place where there was a grave: the ſecond, to prevent the air from being corrupted by the ſtench of putrified bodies, and the buildings from being endangered by the frequency of funeral fires. The firſt ſtep towards burying in churches (See BURIAL, § 2.) appears to have been the practice of erecting churches over the graves of ſome martyrs in the country, and tranſlating the relics of others into churches in the city: the next was, allowing kings and emperors to be buried in the atrium or church porch. In the 6th century, the people began to be admitted into the church-yards; and ſome princes, founders, and biſhops, into the church. From that time the matter ſeems to have been left to the diſcretion of the biſhop.

BUSA, a fermented liquor made from meal and water, at Baſſah and Armenia.

BUSBEC, or } Auger Giſlen, Lord of. See
BUSBEQUIUS, } GISLEN.

BUSBY, Dr Richard, ſon of Richard Buſby, Eſq; of Weſtminſter, was born at Lutton in Lincolnſhire, in 1606. He paſſed through the claſſes in Weſtminſter, and completed his ſtudies at Oxford. In 1640, he was appointed maſter of Weſtminſter ſchool; and by his ſkill and diligence in the diſcharge of this important and laborious office, for the ſpace 55 years, bred up the greateſt number of eminent men in church and ſtate, that ever at one time adorned any age or nation. He was extremely severe in his ſchool; though he applauded

plauded wit in his ſcholars, even when it reflected on himſelf. This great man, after a long and healthy life, the effect of temperance, died in 1695, aged 89; and was buried in Weſtminſter abbey, where there is a fine monument erected for him, with a Latin inſcription. He compoſed ſeveral books for the uſe of his ſchool.

BUSCA, } or BUSCH, in old records, under-
BUSCAS. } wood, or bruſhwood.

BUSDORPH, a town of Germany in Weſtphalia; one of the ſcenes of the French operations under general Kleber, in June 1796.

BUSELAPHUS, in zoology, the name of an animal of the goat kind, called alſo MOSCHELAPHUS. It is of a middle ſhape between the ſtag and ox kind. Its head and ears are long, its legs and feet ſmall, its tail about a foot long, reſembling that of a heifer; its upper part reddiſh and very naked, its lower covered with long hairs. The hair of its whole body is of a tawny colour; its horns are black, ſmooth at the top, and round every where elſe. It has two teats, and is tame and fond of play. It is extremely ſwift in running, and in moſt reſpects, except in ſize, reſembles the common antelope. *Ray.*

BUSELINUM. See SELINUM.

(1.) * BUSH. *n. ſ.* [*bois*, Fr.] 1. A thick ſhrub.

Eft through the thick they heard one rudely ruſh,
With noiſe whereof, he, from his lofty ſteed,
Down fell to ground, and crept into a *buſh*,
To hide his coward head from dying dread.
Fairy Queen.

—The poller, and exacter of fees, juſtifies the reſemblance to the courts of juſtice to the *buſh*, whereunto while the ſheep flies for defence from the weather, he is ſure to loſe part of the fleece. *Bacon's Eſſays.*—

Her heart was that ſtrange *buſh*, whoſe ſacred fire,
Religion did not conſume, but inſpire
Such piety, ſo chaſte uſe of God's day,
That what we turn to feaſt, ſhe turn'd to pray.
Donne.

With ſuch a care,
As roſes from their ſtalks we tear,
When we would ſtill prefer them new,
And freſh as on the *buſh* they grew. *Waller.*

The ſacred ground
Shall weeds and poiſ'nous plants refuſe to bear;
Each common *buſh* ſhall Syrian roſes wear?
Dryden.

2. A bough of a tree fixed up to a door, to ſhew that liquours are ſold there.—If it be true, that good wine needs no *buſh*, 'tis true that a good play needs no epilogue. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) BUSH, a term uſed for ſeveral ſhrubs of the ſame kind growing cloſe together: thus we ſay, a *furze-buſh*, *bramble-buſh*, &c. Buſh is ſometimes uſed, in a more general ſenſe, for any aſſemblage of thick branches interwoven and mixed together.

(3.) BUSH, Paul, the firſt biſhop of Briſtol, became a ſtudent in Oxford about 1513, and in 1518 took the degree of B. A. He afterwards became a brother of the order of *Bons-hommes*; of which, after ſtudying ſome time among the friars of St Auſtin, (now Wadham college,) he was elected provincial. In that ſtation he lived many years; till Henry VIII. being informed of his great knowledge in divinity and phyſic, made him his chaplain, and in 1542 appointed him to the new epiſcopal ſee of Briſtol: but having in the reign of Edward VI. taken a wife, he was, on the acceſſion of Mary, deprived of his dignity, and ſpent the remainder of his life at Briſtol, where he died in 1558, aged 68. Wood ſays, that while he was a ſtudent at Oxford, he was numbered among the celebrated poets of that univerſity; and Pits gives him the character of a faithful catholic. He wrote, 1. An exhortation to Margaret Burgeſs, wife to John Burgeſs, clothier of King's-wood, in the county of Wilts. 8vo. 2. Notes on the Pſalms. 3. Treatiſe in praiſe of the croſs. 4. Anſwer to certain queries concerning the abuſes of the maſs. Records, N° 25. 5. Dialogues between Chriſt and the Virgin Mary. 6. Treatiſe of ſalves and curing remedies. 7. *The extirpation of ignorancy*, &c. in verſe, Lond. by Pinſon, 4to. 8. *Carmina diverſa.*

(4.) BUSH, among huntſmen, a fox's tail.

(5.) BUSH, among wheel-wrights. See BUSHEL, § 1. *def.* 3.

(6.) BUSH, BURNING, the buſh wherein the Lord appeared to Moſes at the foot of mount Horeb, as he was feeding his father-in-law's flocks. As to the perſon that appeared in the buſh, the text ſays, "That the angel of the Lord appeared unto him in a flame of fire, out of the middle of the buſh;" but whether it was a created angel, ſpeaking in the perſon of God, or God himſelf, or (as the moſt received opinion is,) Chriſt the Son of God, has been matter of ſome controverſy among the learned. Thoſe who ſuppoſe it no more than an angel, ſeem to think that it would be a diminution of the majeſty of God, to appear upon every occaſion, eſpecially when he has ſuch a number of celeſtial miniſters. But conſidering that God is omni-preſent, the notification of his preſence by ſome outward ſign in one determinate place, (which is all that is meant by his appearance,) is in our conception leſs laborious (if any thing laborious could be conceived of almighty power,) than a delegation of angels upon every occaſion; and ſeems to illuſtrate rather than debaſe the glory of his nature and exiſtence. But however this be, it is plain that the angel here ſpoken of was no created being, from the whole context, and eſpecially from his ſaying, "I am the Lord God, the Jehovah," &c. ſince this is not the language of angels, who are always known to expreſs themſelves in ſuch humble terms as theſe, "I am ſent from God; I am thy fellow ſervant," &c. It is a vain pretext to ſay, that an angel, as God's ambaſſador, may ſpeak in God's name and perſon; for what ambaſſador of any prince ever yet ſaid, "I am the king?" Since therefore no angel could aſſume theſe titles; and ſince neither God the Father, nor the Holy Ghoſt, are ever called by the name of *angel*, *i. e.* "meſſenger, or perſon ſent," whereas God the Son is called by the prophet Malachi, (chap. iii. 1.) "The angel of the covenant;" it ſeems to follow, that this angel of the Lord was God the Son, who might very properly be called an *angel*, becauſe in the fulneſs of time he was ſent into the world in our fleſh, as a meſſenger from God, and might therefore make

theſe his temporary apparitions, preſages, and forerunners, as it were, of his more ſolemn miſſion. The emblem of the burning buſh is uſed as the ſeal of the church of Scotland, with this motto; "Though burning, it is never conſumed."

* *To* BUSH. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To grow thick.—

The roſes *buſhing* round
About her glow'd, half ſtooping to ſupport
Each flow'r of tender ſtalk. *Milton.*
A guſhing fountain broke
Around it, and above, for ever green,
The *buſhing* alders form'd a ſhady ſcene.
Pope's Odyſſey.

BUSHAM, a town, in Suſſex, S. of Arundel.

BUSHBURY, a village in Staffordſhire, between Brewood and Walſall.

(1.) BUSHBY, a village in Renfrewſhire, where there are two cotton mills.

(2.) BUSHBY, N. of Whartleton Caſtle, Yorkſh.

(3.) BUSHBY PARVA, S. of Stokeſley, Yorkſhire.

(1.) * BUSHEL. *n. ſ.* [*boiſſeau*, Fr. *buſſellus*, low Lat.] 1. A meaſure containing 8 gallons; a ſtrike.—His reaſons are as two grains of wheat hid in two *buſhels* of chaff; you ſhall ſeek all day ere you find them, and when you have them they are not worth the ſearch. *Shak.* 2. It is uſed, in common language, indefinitely for a large quantity.—The worthies of antiquity bought the rareſt pictures with *buſhels* of gold, without counting the weight or the number of pieces. *Dryden.* 3. *Buſhels of a cart-wheel.* Irons within the hole of the nave, to preſerve it from wearing. [from *bouche*, Fr. a mouth.] *Dict.*

(2.) BUSHEL, a meaſure of capacity for things dry; as grains, pulſe, dry fruits, &c. containing 4 pecks, or ½ of a quarter. Du Cange derives the word from *buſſellus*, *buſtellus*, or *biſſellus*, a diminutive of *buſa*, or *biſa*, uſed in the corrupt Latin for the ſame thing; others derive it from BUSSULUS, an *urn*, wherein lots were caſt; which ſeems to be a corruption from BUXULUS. BUSSELLUS appears to have been firſt uſed for a liquid meaſure of wine, equal to 8 gallons. *Octo libræ faciunt galonem vini, & octo galones vini faciunt* buſſelum *Londin, quæ eſt octava pars quarterii.* It was ſoon after transferred to the dry meaſure of corn of the ſame quantity—*Pondus octo librarum frumenti facit* buſſelum, *de quibus octo conſtitit quarterium.* By 12 Hen. VII. cap. 5. a buſhel is to contain 8 gallons of wheat; the gallon 8 pounds of wheat troy weight; the pound 12 ounces troy weight; the ounce 20 ſh. and the ſterling 32 grains, or corn of wheat, growing in the midſt of the ear. This ſtandard buſhel is kept in the exchequer; when, being filled with the common ſpring water, and the water meaſured before the houſe of commons in 1696, in a regular parallelopiped, it was found to contain 2145,6 ſolid inches; and the ſaid water being weighed, amounted to 1131 ounces and 14 penny weights troy. Beſides the ſtandard or legal buſhel, we have ſeveral local buſhels, of different dimenſions in different places. At Abingdon and Andover, a buſhel contains 9 gallons; at Appleby and Penrith, a buſhel of peaſe, rye, and wheat, contains 16 gallons; of barley, big, malt, mixt malt, and oats, 20 gallons. A buſhel contains, at Carliſle, 24 gallons; at Cheſter, a buſhel of wheat, rye, &c. contains 32 gallons, and of oats 40; at Dorcheſter, a buſhel of malt and oats contains 10 gallons; at Falmouth, the buſhel of ſtricken coals is 16 gallons, of other things 20, and uſually 21 gallons; at Kingſton upon Thames, the buſhel contains 8½; at Newbury, 9; at Wycomb and Reading, 8¾; at Stamford 16 gallons.

(3.) BUSHELS, FRENCH, &c. At Paris, the buſhel is divided into 2 half buſhels; the half buſhel into 2 quarts: the quart into 2 half quarts; the half quart into 2 litrons; and the litron into 2 half litrons. The buſhel ſhould be 8 inches 2½ lines high, and 10 inches in diameter; the quart 4 inches 9 lines high, and 6 inches 9 lines wide; the half quart 4 inches 3 lines high, and 5 inches in diameter; the litron 3½ inches high, and 3 inches 10 lines in diameter. Three buſhels make a minot, ſix a mine, 12 a ſeptier, and 144 a muid. In other parts of France the buſhel varies: 14½ buſhels of Amboiſe and Tours make the Paris ſeptier: 20 buſhels Avignon make 3 Paris ſeptiers: 20 buſhels of Blois make one Paris ſeptier: 2 buſhels of Bourdeaux make one Paris ſeptier: 32 buſhels of Rochel make 19 Paris ſeptiers. Oats are meaſured in a double proportion to other grains; ſo that 20 buſhels of oats make a ſeptier, and 248 a muid. The buſhel of oats is divided into 4 picotins, the picotin into 2 half quarts, or 4 litrons. For ſalt 4 buſhels make one minot, and 6 a ſeptier. For coals 8 buſhels make one minot, 16 a mine, and 320 a muid. For lime, 3 buſhels make a minot, and 48 minots a muid. See MEASURE and WEIGHT.

BUSHFORD, a town in Somerſetſhire, near Dulverton.

BUSH-HILL, near Edmondton, Middleſex.

* BUSHINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *buſhy*.] The quality of being buſhy.

BUSHLEY, near Tewkſbury, Worceſterſhire.

BUSH-MEAD, near Eaton, Bedfordſhire.

* BUSHMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *buſh*.] A thicket; a cluſter of buſhes.—Princes thought how they might diſcharge the earth of woods, briars, *buſhments*, and waters, to make it more habitable and fertile. *Raleigh.*

BUSH-MILLS, a village of Ireland in the county of Antrim, Ulſter.

BUSHTON, in Clavepepper pariſh, Wilts.

(1.) * BUSHY. *adj.* [from *buſh*.] 1. Thick; full of ſmall branches, not high.—

The gentle ſhepherd ſat beſide a ſpring,
All in the ſhadow of a *buſhy* brier. *Spenſer.*

—Generally the cutting away of boughs and ſuckers at the root and body, doth make trees grow high; and, contrariwiſe, the polling and cutting of the top, make them ſpread and grow *buſhy*. *Bacon.* 2. Thick like a buſh.—Statues of this god, with a thick *buſhy* beard, are ſtill many of them extant in Rome. *Addiſ.* 3. Full of buſhes.

The kids with pleaſure browſe the *buſhy* plain;
The ſhow'rs are grateful to the ſwelling grain.
Dryden.

(2, 3.) BUSHY, two villages; viz. 1. in Hertfordſh. near Watford: 2. two m. from Leiceſter.

(4.) BUSHY-HALL, N. W. of Watford.

(5.) BUSHY-LEASE, a village in Hampſhire, in the pariſh of Fackham, has fairs in April and Oct.

(6.) BUSHY-PARK, near Hampton Court.

* BUSILESS. *adj.* [from *buſy*.] At leiſure; without buſineſs; unemployed.—

The sweet thoughts do even refresh my labour,
Most *busy* when I do it. *Shakespeare.*

* BUSILY. *adv.* [from *busy.*] 1. With an air of importance; with an air of hurry. 2. Curiously; importunately.—

Or if too *busily* they will enquire
Into a victory, which we disdain,
Then let them know, the Belgians did retire,
Before the patron saint of injur'd Spain. *Dryd.*

* BUSINESS. *n. s.* [from *busy.*] 1. Employment; multiplicity of affairs.—

What *busy* cares
Could thee from hence remove?
Oh! that's the worst disease of love. *Donne.*

2. An affair. In this sense it has the *plural.*—

Bestow
Your needful counsel to our *business* fit,
Which crave the instant use. *Shakespeare.*

3. The subject of business; the affair or object that engages the care.—You are so much the *business* of our souls, that while you are in sight we can neither look nor think on any else; there are no eyes for other beauties. *Dryden.*—The great *business* of the senses, being to take notice of what hurts or advantages the body. *Locke.* 4. Serious engagement, in opposition to trivial transactions.—I never knew one, who made it his *business* to lash the faults of other writers, that was not guilty of greater himself. *Addison.*—He had *business* enough upon his hands, and was only a poet by accident. *Prior.*—When diversion is made the *business* and study of life, though the actions chosen be in themselves innocent, the excess will render them criminal. *Rogers.* 5. Right of action.—What *business* has a tortoise among the clouds? *L'Estrange.* 6. A point; a matter of question; something to be examined or considered.—Fitness to govern, is a perplexed *business*; some men, some nations, excel in the one ability, some in the other. *Swift.* 7. Something to be transacted.—They were far from the Zidonians, and had no *business* with any one. *Judges.* 8. Something required to be done.—To those people that dwell under or near the equator, this spring would be most pestilent; as for those countries that are nearer the poles, in which number are our own, and the most considerable nations of the world, a perpetual spring will not do their *business*; they must have longer days, a nearer approach of the sun. *Bentley.* 9. *To do one's business.* To kill, destroy, or ruin him.

(1.) BUSIRIS, in ancient geography, a city of the Lower Egypt, S. of Leontopolis, on the Busiriticus; built by Busiris. In this city there stood a grand temple of Isis, which gave it the appellation of the city of Isis. It was destroyed, on a revolt, by Diocletian.

(2.) BUSIRIS, in fabulous history, a tyrant of Egypt, noted for his cruelty, and slain by Hercules. Strabo denies such a tyrant ever called; Isocrates has written his panegyric.

(1.) BUSIRITICUS FLUVIUS, in ancient geography, that branch of the Nile which empties itself at the mouth called Ostium Pathmeticum, or [illegible]n, also a part, according to an ancient [illegible]nium Mendesium; this branch, di[illegible]ds into two branches: called Bu[illegible]he city of Busiris, which stood on its left, or west branch. It is the second branch of the Nile, reckoning from the E.

(2.) BUSIRITICUS NOMOS, in ancient geography, a prefecture, or division of Lower Egypt; so called from the city Busiris.

BUSITIS, in ancient geography, a district of Arabia Deserta; the country of Elihu; so called from BUZ, Nahor's second son. It is called BUZITES, by the Septuagint.

* BUSK. *n. s.* [*busque*, Fr.] A piece of steel or whalebone, worn by women to strengthen their stays.—

Off with that happy *busk*, which I envy,
That still can be, and still can stand so nigh. *Donne.*

(1.) * BUSKIN. *n. s.* [*broseken*, Dutch.] 1. A kind of half boot; a shoe which comes to the middle leg.—The foot was dressed in a short pair of velvet *buskins*; in some places open, to shew the fairness of the skin. *Sidney.*—

Sometimes Diana she her takes to be,
But misseth bow, and shafts, and *buskins* to her knee. *Spenser.*

—There is a kind of rusticity in all those pompous verses; somewhat of a holiday shepherd strutting in his country *buskins*. *Dryden.* 2. A kind of high shoe worn by the ancient actors of tragedy, to raise their stature.—

Great Fletcher never treads in *buskins* here,
No greater Johnson dares in socks appear. *Dryd.*

In her best light the comick muse appears,
When she, with borrow'd pride, the *buskin* wears. *Smith.*

(2.) BUSKINS anciently were adapted to either foot, and worn by either sex. This part of dress, covering both the foot and mid leg, was tied below the knee; it was very rich, and principally used on the stage by actors in tragedy. It was of a quadrangular form; and the sole was so thick, as that, by means thereof, men of ordinary stature might be raised to the pitch and elevation of the heroes they personated. The colour was generally purple on the stage; herein it was distinguished from the sock worn in comedy, that being only a low common shoe. The buskin seems to have been worn not only by actors but by girls, to raise their height; travellers and hunters also made use of it, to defend themselves from the mire. Classic authors, we frequently find the buskin used for tragedy itself, as it was a mark of tragedy on the stage. It was also to be understood for a lofty strain or high style.

* BUSKINED. *adj.* [from *buskin.*] Dressed in buskins.—

Or what, though rare, of later age,
Ennobl'd hath the *buskin'd* stage? *Milton.*

Here, arm'd with silver bows, in early dawn,
Her *buskin'd* virgins trace'd the dewy lawn. *Pope.*

* BU'SKY. *adj.* [written more properly by Milton, *bosky.* See BOSKY.] Woody; shaded with woods; overgrown with trees.—

How bloodily the sun begins to peer
Above yon *busky* hill! *Shakespeare.*

(1.) * BUSS. *n. s.* [*bus*, the mouth, Irish; *baiser*, Fr.] 1. A kiss; a salute with the lips.—Thou shalt give me flattering *busses*.—By my troth, I kiss thee with a constant heart. *Shakespeare.*—

Song

Some ſquire perhaps you take delight to rack,
Who viſits with a gun, preſents with birds,
Then gives a ſmacking *buſs*. *Pope.*

. A boat for fiſhing. [*buſſe*, German.] If the king could enter towards building ſuch a number of ats and *buſſes*, as each company could eaſily ma- age, it would be an encouragement both of ho- our and advantage. *Temple.*

(2.) BUSS, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) is a ſmall ſea veſſel, uſed y us and the Dutch, in the herring fiſhery, com- only from 48 to 60 tons burden, and ſometimes ore: a buſs has two ſmall ſheds or cabins, one t the prow and the other at the ſtern; that at the row ſerves for a kitchen. Every buſs has a maſ- r, an aſſiſtant, a mate, and ſeamen in proportion o the ſize of the veſſel; the maſter commands in hief, and without his expreſs orders the nets can- ot be caſt nor taken up; the aſſiſtant has the ommand after him; and the mate next, whoſe uſineſs is to ſee the ſeamen manage their rigging n a proper manner, to mind thoſe who draw in heir nets, and thoſe who kill, gut, and cure the errings, as they are taken out of the ſea: the ſea- men generally engage for a whole voyage in the emp. The proviſion, which they take on board he buſſes, conſiſt commonly in biſket, oat meal, nd dried or ſalt fiſh; the crew being content for he reſt with what freſh fiſh they catch. See FISH- ERIES.

* *To* BUSS. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To kiſs; to alute with the lips.—

Yonder walls, that partly front your town,
Yond towers, whoſe wanton tops do *buſs* the clouds,
Muſt kiſs their feet. *Shakeſpeare.*

Go to them with this bonnet in thy hand,
Thy knee *buſſing* the ſtones; for in ſuch buſineſs,
Action is eloquence. *Shakeſpeare.*

BUSSA, a large ſort of veſſel of war, in uſe in he middle age, ſpoke of by antiquaries and hiſto- ians under the denominations of *buſſa*, *buſcia*, *bur- a*, *buza*, *bucca*, and *bucia*.

BUSSAGE, a hamlet of Biſley, Glouceſterſhire.

BUSSARA, or BASSORA. See BASSORA.

BUSSELLUS. See BUSHEL.

BUSSORES, from Baſſora, whence they were riginally brought, a name given by ſome to that pecies of pigeon called the carrier.

BUSSULUS. See BUSHEL, § 2.

BUSSY, Roger Rabutin, count of. See RABU- IN.

(1.) * BUST. *n. ſ.* [*buſto*, Ital.] A ſtatue repre- enting a man to his breaſt.—Agrippa, or Caligula, s a common coin, but a very extraordinary *buſt*; nd a Tiberius, a rare coin, but a common *buſt*. *Addiſon on Italy.*—

Ambition ſigh'd: ſhe found it vain to truſt
The faithleſs column, and the crumbling *buſt*.
Pope.

(2.) BUST, or BUSTO, in ſculpture, denotes he figure or portrait of a perſon in relievo, ſhow- ng only the head, ſhoulders, and ſtomach, the rms being lopped off; ordinarily placed on a pe- deſtal or conſole. In ſpeaking of an antique, we ay the head is marble, and the buſt porphyry, or ronze, that is, the ſtomach and ſhoulders. Fe- ibien obſerves, that though in painting, one may ay a figure appears in buſto, yet it is not proper- ly called a *buſt*, that word being confined to things in relievo. The buſt is the ſame with what the Latins called HERMA, from the Greek Hermes, Mercury, the image of that god being frequently repreſented in this manner among the Athenians.

(3.) BUST is alſo uſed, eſpecially by the Italians, for the trunk of a human body, from the neck to the hips.

(1.) BUSTA GALLICA, was a place in ancient Rome, wherein the bones of the Gauls, who firſt took the city, and were ſlain by Camillus, were depoſited. It differed from

(2.) BUSTA GALLORUM, a place on the Apen- nines, ſo called from many thouſands of Gauls be- ing killed there by Fabius

BUSTAH, a town of Orkney, in Fair Iſle.

(1.) * BUSTARD. *n. ſ.* [*biſtarde*, Fr.] A wild turkey.—His ſacrifices were phenicopters, pea- cocks, *buſtards*, turkeys, pheaſants; and all theſe were daily offered. *Hakewill.*

(2.) BUSTARD, in ornithology. See OTIS.

BUSTA VOE, a harbour on the coaſt of Shet- land.

BUSTELLUS. See BUSHEL, § 2.

* BUSTLE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A tumult; a hurry; a combuſtion.—

Wiſdom's ſelf
Oft ſeeks to ſweet retired ſolitude:
She plumes her feathers, and lets grow her wings,
That in the various *buſtle* of reſort,
Were all too ruffl'd. *Milton.*

—This is the creature that pretends to knowledge, and that makes ſuch a noiſe and *buſtle* for opini- ons. *Glanville.*—Such a doctrine made a ſtrange *buſtle* and diſturbance in the world, which then ſate warm and eaſy in a free enjoyment of their luſts. *South.*—If the count had given them a pot of ale after it, all would have been well, without any of this *buſtle*. *Spectator.*

* *To* BUSTLE. *v. n.* [of uncertain etymology; perhaps from *buſy*.] To be buſy; to ſtir; to be active.—

Come, *buſtle*, *buſtle*—capariſon my horſe. *Shak.*
God take king Edward to his mercy,
And leave the world for me to *buſtle* in. *Shakeſ.*

—Sir Henry Vane was a buſy and *buſtling* man, who had credit enough to do his buſineſs in all places. *Clarendon.*—

A poor abject worm,
That crawl'd a while upon a *buſtling* world,
And now am trampled to my duſt again.
Southerne.

Ye ſov'reign lords, who ſit like gods in ſtate,
Awing the world, and *buſtling* to be great!
Granville.

* BUSTLER. *n. ſ.* [from *buſtle*.] An active ſtir- ring man.

BUSTLETON, two towns: 1. in Hampſhire, 12 miles from Portſmouth: 2. in Northumber- land, near Heydon.

BUSTO. See BUST, § 2.

BUSTON, two villages; 1. in Kent, near Maid- ſtone: 2. in Northumberland, near Alnwick.

BUSTROPHE. See BOUSTROPHEDON.

BUSTUARIÆ MOECHÆ, in antiquity, accord- ing to ſome, women that were hired to accom- pany the funeral and lament the loſs of the de- ceaſed: but others are of opinion, that they were rather

rather common proſtitutes, that ſtood among the tombs, graves, and other ſuch lonely places.

BUSTUARII, in Roman antiquity, gladiators who fought about the buſtum or funeral pile of a perſon of diſtinction, that the blood which was ſpilt, might ſerve as a ſacrifice to the infernal gods, and render them more propitious to the manes of the deceaſed. This cuſtom was introduced in the room of the more inhuman one of ſacrificing captives at the buſtum, or on the tombs of warriors.

(1.) BUSTUM, in antiquity, denotes a pyramid or pile of wood, whereon were anciently placed the bodies of the deceaſed, in order to be burnt. The Romans borrowed the cuſtom of burning their dead from the Greeks. The deceaſed, crowned with flowers, and dreſſed in his richeſt habits, was laid on the buſtum. Some authors ſay, it was only called *buſtum*, after the burning, *quaſi bene uſtum*: before the burning it was more properly called *pyra*; during it, *rogus*: and afterwards, *buſtum*. When the body was only burnt there, and buried elſewhere, the place was not properly called *buſtum*, but USTRINA, or *uſtrinum*. Buſtum was alſo figuratively applied to denote any tomb. Whence thoſe phraſes, *facere buſtum*, *violare buſtum*, &c.

(2.) BUSTUM, in the Campus Martius, was a ſtructure whereon the emperor Auguſtus firſt, and after him the bodies of his ſucceſſors, were burnt. It was built of white ſtone, ſurrounded with an iron paliſade, and planted withinſide with alder trees.

(3.) BUSTUM OF AN ALTAR, was the hearth or place where the fire was kindled.

BUSTWATH HILL, in Cumberland, near Burgh-Marſh.

* BUSY. *adj.* [*byrzian*, Sax. It is pronounced as *biſſy*, or *bizzy*.] 1. Employed with earneſtneſs. —My miſtreſs ſends you word, that ſhe is *buſy*, and cannot come. *Shakeſpeare*. 2. Buſtling; active; meddling.—

The next thing which ſhe waking looks upon,
On meddling monkey, or on *buſy* ape,
She ſhall purſue it with the ſoul of love. *Shakeſp.*

Thus *buſy* pow'r is working day and night;
For when the outward ſenſes reſt do take.
A thouſand dreams, fantaſtical and light,
With flutt'ring wings, do keep her ſtill awake. *Davies.*

The coming ſpring would firſt appear,
And all this place with roſes ſtrow,
If *buſy* feet would let them grow. *Waller.*

—All written ſince that time, ſeem to have little more than events we are glad to know, or the controverſy of opinions, wherein the *buſy* world has been ſo much employed. *Temple.*—Religious motives and inſtincts are ſo *buſy* in the heart of every reaſonable creature, that no man would hope to govern a ſociety, without regard to thoſe principles. *Addiſon*. 3. Troubleſome; vexatiouſly importunate or intenſive.—The Chriſtians, ſometimes valiantly receiving the enemy, and ſometimes charging them again, repulſed the proud enemy, ſtill *buſy* with them. *Knolles's Hiſtory of the Turks.*

* *To* BUSY. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To employ; engage; to make or keep buſy.—

He in great paſſion all this while did dwell,
More *buſying* his quick eyes her face to view,
Than his dull ears to hear what ſhe did tell. *Fairy Queen.*

—The pleaſure which I took at my friend's picture herein, idly *buſied* me thus to expreſs the ſame. *Carew's Survey.*—

Be it thy courſe to *buſy* giddy minds
With foreign quarrels. *Shakeſpeare.*

—While they were *buſied* to lay the foundation, their buildings were overthrown by an earthquake, and many thouſands of the Jews were overwhelmed. *Raleigh.*—The points which *buſied* the devotion of the firſt ages, and the curioſity of the latter. *Decay of Piety.*—The ideas it is *buſied* about, ſhall be natural and congenial ones, which it had in itſelf. *Locke.*—The learning and diſputes of the ſchools have been much *buſied* about genus and ſpecies. *Locke.*—For the reſt, it muſt be owned, he does not *buſy* himſelf, by entering deep into any party, but rather ſpends his time in acts of hoſpitality. *Swift.*

* BUSYBODY. *n. ſ.* [from *buſy* and *body*.] A vain, meddling, fantaſtical perſon.—Going from houſe to houſe, tatlers and *buſybodies*, are the canker and ruſt of idleneſs, as idleneſs is the ruſt of time. *Taylor.*—*Buſybodies* and intermeddlers are a dangerous ſort of people to have to do with. *L'Eſtrange.*—She is well acquainted with all the favourite ſervants, *buſybodies*, dependants, and poor relations of all perſons of condition in the whole town. *Spectator.*

(1.) * BUT. *conjunct.* [*bate*, *butan*, Saxon.] 1. Except.—An emiſſion of immateriate virtues we are a little doubtful to propound, it is ſo prodigious: *but* that it is ſo conſtantly avouched by many. *Bacon.*—

Who can it be, ye gods! *but* perjur'd Lycon!
Who can inſpire ſuch ſtorms of rage, *but* Lycon?
Where has my ſword left one ſo black, *but* Lycon? *Smith.*

—Your poem hath been printed, and we have no objection *but* the obſcurity of ſeveral paſſages, by our ignorance in facts and perſons. *Swift.* 2. Except then; had it not been that: in this ſenſe we now write *but that*. See ſenſe 11.

And *but* infirmity,
Which waits upon worn times, hath ſomething ſeiz'd
His wiſh'd ability, he had himſelf
The lands and waters meaſur'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

3. Yet; nevertheleſs. It ſometimes only enforces *yet*.—Then let him ſpeak, and any that ſtand without ſhall hear his voice plainly; *but yet* made extreme ſharp and exile, like the voice of puppets: and yet the articulate ſounds of the words will not be confounded. *Bacon.*—Our wants are many, and grievous to be born, *but* quite of another kind. *Swift.* 4. The particle which introduces the minor of ſyllogiſm; now.—If there be a liberty and poſſibility for a man to kill himſelf to-day, then it is not abſolutely neceſſary that he ſhall live till to-morrow; *but* there is ſuch a liberty, therefore no ſuch neceſſity. *Bramhall againſt Hobbes.*—God will one time or another make a difference between the good and the evil. *But* there is little or no difference made

in this world: therefore there must be another world, wherein this difference shall be made. *Watt's Logick.* 5. Only; nothing more than.—

If my offence be of mortal kind,
That not my service, past or present sorrows,
Can ransom me into his love again;
But to know so, must be my benefit. *Shakesp.*

What nymph soe'er his voice *but* hears,
Will be my rival, though she have *but* ears.
Ben Johnson.

No, Aurengzebe, you merit all my heart,
And I'm too noble *but* to give a part. *Dryden.*

—Did *but* men consider the true notion of God, he would appear to be full of goodness. *Tillotson.*

—If we do *but* put virtue and vice in equal circumstances, the advantages of ease and pleasure will be found to be on the side of religion. *Tillotson.*—The mischiefs or harms that come by play, inadvertency, or ignorance are not at all, or *but* very gently, to be taken notice of. *Locke on Education.*—If a reader examines Horace's Art of Poetry, he will find *but* very few precepts in it, which he may not meet with in Aristotle. *Addis.*

Prepar'd I stand: he was *but* born to try
The lot of man, to suffer and to die. *Pope.*

6. Than.—The full moon was no sooner up, and shining in all its brightness, *but* he opened the gate of Paradise. *Guardian.* 7. But that; without this consequence that.—

Frosts that constrain the ground,
Do seldom their usurping power withdraw,
But raging floods pursue their hasty hand.
Dryden.

8. Otherwise than that.—It cannot be *but* nature with some director, of infinite power, to guide her in all her ways. *Hooker.*—

Who shall believe,
But you misuse the reverence of your place?
Shakespeare.

9. Not more than; even.—A genius so elevated and unconfined as Mr Cowley's, was *but* necessary to make Pindar speak English. *Dryden.* 10. By any other means than.—

Beroe *but* now I left; whom pin'd with pain,
Her age and anguish from these rites detain.
Dryden.

It is evident, in the instance I gave *but* now, the consciousness went along. *Locke.*—Out of that will I cause those of Cyprus to mutiny: whose qualification shall come into no true taste again, but by transplanting of Cassia. *Shakespeare.* 11. If it were not for this; that; if it were not that. Obsolete.—

Believe me, I had rather have lost my purse
Full of cruzades. And, *but* my noble Moor
Is true of mind, and made of no such baseness,
As jealous creatures are, it were enough
To put him to ill-thinking. *Shakespeare.*

I here do give thee that with all my heart,
Which *but* thou hast already, with all my heart
I would keep from thee. *Shakespeare.*

12. However; howbeit: a word of indeterminate connection.—

I do not doubt but I have been to blame;
But, to pursue the end for which I came,
Unite your subjects first, then let us go,
And pour their common rage upon the foe.
Dryden.

13. It is used after *no doubt*, *no question*, and such words, and signifies the same with *that*. It sometimes is joined with *that*.—They made no account, *but that* the navy should be absolutely master of the seas. *Bacon.*—I fancied to myself a kind of ease in the change of the paroxysm; never suspecting *but that* the humour would have wasted itself. *Dryden.*—There is no question *but* the king of Spain will reform most of the abuses. *Addison.* 14. That. This seems no proper sense in this place.—It is not therefore impossible, *but* I may alter the complexion of my play, to restore myself into the good graces of my fair criticks. *Dryden.* 15. Otherwise than. Obsolete.

I should sin
To think *but* nobly of my grandmother.
Shakspeare

16. A particle by which the meaning of the foregoing sentence is bounded or restrained; only.

Thus fights Ulysses, thus his fame extends,
A formidable man, *but* to his friends. *Dryden.*

17. A particle of objection; yet it may be objected: it has sometimes *yet* with it.—

But yet, madam—
I do not like *but yet*; it does allay
The good precedence; fie upon *but yet!*
But yet is as a jaylour, to bring forth
Some monstrous malefactor. *Shakespeare.*

—Must the heart then have been formed and constituted, before the blood was in being? *But* here again, the substance of the heart itself is most certainly made and nourished by the blood, which is conveyed to it by the coronary arteries. *Bentley.* 18. *But for*; without; had not this been.—

Rash man! forbear, *but for* some unbelief,
My joy had been as fatal as my grief. *Waller.*

Her head was bare,
But for her native ornament of hair,
Which in a simple knot was ty'd above.
Dryden.

When the fair boy receiv'd the gift of right,
And, *but for* mischief, you had dy'd for spight.
Dryden.

(2.) * BUT. *n. s.* [*bout*, French.] A boundary. —*But*, if I ask you what I mean by that word, you will answer, I mean this or that thing, you cannot tell which; but if I join it with the words in construction and sense, as, *but* I will not, a *but* of wine, *but* and boundary, the ram will *but*, shoot at *but*, the meaning of it will be as ready to you as any other word. *Holder.*

(3.) * BUT. *n. s.* [In sea language.] The end of any plank which joins to another on the outside of a ship, under water. *Harris.*

BUTADÆ. See ATHENS, § 9.

(1.) * BUTCHER. *n. s.* [*boucher*, Fr.] 1. One that kills animals to sell their flesh.—The shepherd and the *butcher* both may look upon one sheep with pleasing conceits. *Sidney.*—

Hence he learnt the *butcher's* guile,
How to cut your throat, and smile;
Like a *butcher* doom'd for life
In his mouth to wear his knife. *Swift.*

2. One that is delighted with blood.—Honour and renown are bestowed on conquerors, who, for the most part, are but the great *butchers* of mankind. *Locke.*

(2.) BUTCHERS, in antiquity. Among the ancient

cient Romans, there were three kinds of eſtabliſhed butchers, whoſe office it was to furniſh the city with the neceſſary cattle, and to take care of preparing and vending their fleſh. The ſuarii provided hogs; the pecuarii or boarii, other cattle, eſpecially oxen; and under theſe was a ſubordinate claſs, whoſe office was to kill, called *laanii*, and *carnifices*. To exerciſe the office of butcher among the Jews with dexterity, was of more reputation than to underſtand the liberal arts and ſciences. They have a book concerning ſhamble-conſtitution; and in caſe of any difficulty, they apply to ſome learned rabbi for advice: nor was any allowed to practiſe this art, without a licence in form; which gave the man, upon evidence of his abilities, a power to kill meat, and others to eat what he killed; provided he carefully read every week for one year, and every month the next year, and once a quarter during his life, the conſtitution above mentioned.

(3.) BUTCHERS, LAWS RESPECTING. For preventing the abuſes committed by butchers, he that ſells ſwine's fleſh meaſled, or dead of the murrain, for the firſt offence ſhall be amerced; for the 2d, pilloried; for the 3d, impriſoned and fined; and for the 4th, he muſt abjure the town. Butchers not ſelling meat at reaſonable prices, ſhall forfeit double the value, leviable by two juſtices of the peace. No butcher ſhall kill any fleſh in his ſcalding-houſe, or within the walls of London, on pain to forfeit for every ox ſo killed, 12d. and for every other beaſt, 8d. to be divided betwixt the king and the proſecutor.

* *To* BUTCHER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To kill; to murder.—

In ſuffering thus thy brother to be ſlaughter'd,
Thou ſhoweſt the naked pathway to thy life,
Teaching ſtern murder how to *butcher* thee.
Shakeſpeare.

Uncharitably with me have you dealt,
And ſhamefully by you my hopes are *butcher'd*. *Shakeſpeare.*

—The poiſon and the dagger are at hand to *butcher* a hero, when the poet wants brains to ſave him. *Dryden.*

BUTCHER BIRD. See LANIUS.

* BUTCHERLINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *butcherly*.] A brutal, cruel, ſavage, butcherly manner.

* BUTCHERLY. *adj.* [from *butcher*.] Cruel; bloody; barbarous.—There is a way which, brought into ſchools, would take away this *butcherly* tear in making of Latin. *Aſcham.*—

What ſtratagems, how fell, how *butcherly*,
This deadly quarrel daily doth beget. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) * BUTCHER'S-BROOM, or KNEEHOLLY. *n. ſ.* [*ruſcus*, Lat.] The roots are ſometimes uſed in medicine, and the green ſhoots are cut and bound into bundles, and ſold to the butchers, who uſe it as beſoms to ſweep their blocks; from whence it had the name of *butcher's broom*. *Miller.*

(2.) BUTCHER'S-BROOM. See RUSCUS.

BUTCHER'S ISLAND, in the Eaſt Indies, a ſmall iſland about two miles long and ſcarce one broad. It has its name from cattle being kept there for the uſe of Bombay, from which it is about three miles diſtant. It has a ſmall fort, but of very little conſequence.

* BUTCHERY. *n. ſ.* [from *butcher*.] 1. The trade of a butcher.—Yet this man, ſo ignorant in modern *butchery*, has cut up half an hundred heroes, and quartered five or ſix miſerable lovers, in every tragedy he has written. *Pope.* 2. Murder; cruelty; ſlaughter.—

If thou delight to view thy heinous deeds,
Behold this pattern of thy *butcheries*. *Shakeſ.*

—The *butchery*, and the breach of hoſpitality, is repreſented in this fable under the maſk of friendſhip. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Can he a ſon to ſoft remorſe incite,
Whom goals, and blood, and *butchery* delight? *Dryden.*

3. The place where animals are killed; where blood is ſhed.—

There is no place, this houſe is but a *butchery*;
Abhor it, fear it, do not enter it. *Shakeſ.*

BUTCOMB, a village in Somerſetſhire, S. E. of Winton.

(1.) BUTE, an iſland lying to the W. of Scotland, being ſeparated from Cowal in Argyleſhire, only by a narrow channel. In length it is about 18 miles; the broadeſt part from E. to W. is about 5. Part of it is rocky and barren; but from the middle ſouthwards, the ground is cultivated, and produces peaſe, oats, and barley. Here is a quarry of red ſtone, which the natives have uſed in building a fort and chapel in the neighbourhood of Rothſay, which is a very ancient royal borough, head town of the ſhire of Bute and Arran; but very thinly peopled, and maintained chiefly by the herring fiſhery, with the profits of which all the rents of this iſland are chiefly paid. On the N. ſide of Rothſay are the ruins of an ancient fort, with its draw-bridge, chapel, and barracks. It has likewiſe the remains of ſome Daniſh towers. The natives are healthy and induſtrious, ſpeak the Erſe and the dialect of the Lowlands indifferently, and profeſs the Proteſtant religion. The iſland is divided into two pariſhes, accommodated with 4 churches; and belongs chiefly to the earl of Bute, who poſſeſſes an elegant ſeat near Rothſay. The name has in different periods, been very differently written: as *Bote, Both, Bothe, Boot*, but now generally *Bute*. Our ancient writers ſuppoſe that it derived its name from a cell erected therein by St Brendan, an Iriſh abbot who flouriſhed in the 6th century, becauſe in his language ſuch a cell was called *Both*. It is, however, probable, that this name was of greater antiquity, ſince we find it denominated *Botis* by the anonymous geographer of Ravenna. It was from very early times part of the patrimony of the Stuarts: large poſſeſſions in it were granted to Sir John Stuart, ſon of Robert II. by his beloved miſtreſs Elizabeth More; and it has continued in that line to the preſent time.

(2.) BUTE, a ſhire of Scotland, comprehending the iſland, (N. 1.) with thoſe of Arran, the two Cumbrays, and Inchmarnock. This county and that of Caithneſs ſend a member to parliament alternately. The earl of Bute is admiral of the county, by commiſſion from his majeſty; and in no way dependent on the lord high admiral of Scotland: ſo that if any maritime caſe occurs within his juriſdiction (even crimes of as high a nature as

murder

murder or piracy), he is judge, by virtue of his powers as admiral, or he may delegate his authority to any deputies.

(3.) BUTE, John, Earl of. See STEWART.

(4.) BUTE, KEILS OF, a safe harbour in the island, N. 1.

* BUT END. *n. f.* [from *but* and *end*] The blunt end of any thing; the end upon which it rests.—The reserve of foot galled their foot with small volleys, and then fell on them with the *but-ends* of their muskets. *Clarendon.*—Thy weapon was a good one when I wielded it, but the *but-end* is now in my hands. *Arbuthnot.*—Some of the soldiers accordingly pushed them forwards with the *but-ends* of their pikes, into my reach. *Swift.*

BUTEO, in ornithology, the trivial name of a species of FALCO.

BUTES. See ATHENS, § 9.

BUTHENA. See BOTHENA.

BUTHOE, or } an island of Dalmatia. See
BUTHOECE, } BATUA and BUDOA.

BUTHROTUM. See BUTRINTO, N. 2.

BUTHYSIA, [θυσία,] in antiquity, a sacrifice of the greatest kind; such were the hecatombs. See SACRIFICE and HECATOMB. The Greeks frequently prefixed the particle βου to words, to denote things of extraordinary magnitude, as alluding to the bigness of oxen.

BUTIGA, an inflammation of the whole face.

(1.) BUTLER, Charles, a native of Wycomb in Bucks, and M. A. in Magdalen college, Oxford, published a book, "The principles of musick in singing and setting; with the two-fold use thereof, ecclesiastical and civil:" 4to. Lond. 1636. He was a person of singular learning and ingenuity, which he manifested in sundry other works enumerated by Wood in the *Athen. Oxon.* Among the rest is an English grammar, published in 1633, in which he proposes a scheme of regular orthography, and makes use of characters, some borrowed from the Saxon, and others of his own invention, so singular, that we want types to express them: and of this supposed improvement he appears to have been so fond, that all his tracts are printed in the same manner with his grammar. The consequence has been an almost general disgust to all that he has written. His Principles of Music is, however, a very learned, curious, and entertaining book; and, by the help of the advertisement prefixed to it, explaining the powers of the characters used by him, may be read to great advantage, and may be considered as a judicious supplement to Morley's introduction.

(2.) BUTLER, Joseph, bishop of Durham, a prelate distinguished by his piety and learning, was the youngest son of Mr Thomas Butler, a reputable shop keeper at Wantage, in Berkshire, where he was born in 1692. His father, who was a presbyterian, observing that he had a strong inclination to learning, sent him to an academy in Gloucestershire, to qualify him for a dissenting minister; and while there, he wrote some remarks on Dr Clerk's first sermon at Boyle's lecture. Afterwards, resolving to conform to the established church, he studied at Oriel college, where he contracted an intimate friendship with Mr Edward Talbot, brother to the lord chancellor, who laid the foundation of his subsequent advancement. He was first appointed preacher at the Rolls, and rector of Haughton and Stanhope, two rich benefices in the bishopric of Durham. He quitted the Rolls in 1726; and published in 8vo a volume of sermons, preached at that chapel. After this he constantly resided at Stanhope, in the regular discharge of all the duties of his office, till 1733, when he was called to attend the lord chancellor Talbot as his chaplain, who gave him a prebend in the church of Rochester. In 1736, he was appointed clerk of the closet to queen Caroline, whom he attended every day, from 7 to 9 in the evening. In 1738 he was appointed bishop of Bristol; and not long afterwards dean of St Paul's, London. He now resigned his living of Stanhope. In 1746, he was made clerk of the closet to the king; and in 1750, was translated to Durham. This rich preferment he enjoyed but a short time; for he died at Bath, June 16th, 1752. His corpse was interred in the cathedral at Bristol; where there is a monument, with an inscription, erected to his memory. He died a bachelor. His deep learning and comprehensive mind appear sufficiently in his writings; particularly in that excellent treatise intitled, *The Analogy of religion, natural and revealed, to the constitution and course of nature*, published in 8vo, 1736.

(3.) BUTLER, Samuel, a celebrated poet of the last century, was the son of a reputable Worcestershire farmer, and born in 1612. He passed some time at Cambridge, but was never matriculated. Returning to his native country, he lived some years as a clerk to a justice of peace; where he found time to apply himself to history, poetry, and painting. Being recommended to Elizabeth countess of Kent, he enjoyed in her house, not only the use of all kinds of books, but the conversation of the great Mr Selden, who often employed Butler to write letters, and translate for him. He lived also some time with Sir Samuel Luke, a gentleman of an ancient family in Bedfordshire, and a famous commander under Oliver Cromwell: and he is supposed at this time to have wrote, or at least to have planned, his celebrated *Hudibras*; and under that character to have ridiculed the knight. The poem itself furnishes this key; where, in the first canto, Hudibras says,

"'Tis sung, there is a valiant mamaluke
"In foreign land yclep'd — — —
"To whom we oft have been compar'd
"For person, parts, address, and beard."

After the restoration, Mr Butler was made secretary to the earl of Carbury, lord president of Wales, who appointed him steward of Ludlow castle, when the court was revived there. No one was a more generous friend to him than the earl of Dorset, to whom it was owing that the court tasted his *Hudibras*. He had promises of a good place from the earl of Clarendon, but they were never accomplished; though the king was so much pleased with the poem, as often to quote it in conversation. It is indeed said, that Charles ordered him the sum of 3000l. but the sum being expressed in figures, somebody through whole hands it passed, by cutting off a cypher, reduced it to 300l. which, though it passed the offices without fees, proved not sufficient to pay what he then owed; so that Butler was not a shilling

the better for the king's bounty. He died in 1680: and though he met with many diſappointments, was never reduced to any thing like want, nor did he die in debt. Mr Granger obſerves, that Butler "ſtands without rival in burleſque poetry. His Hudibras (ſays he) is, in its kind, almoſt as great an effort of genius, as the Paradiſe Loſt itſelf. It abounds with uncommon learning, new rhimes, and original thoughts. Its images are truly and naturally ridiculous. There are many ſtrokes of temporary ſatire, and ſome characters and alluſions which cannot be diſcovered at this diſtance of time."

(4.) * BUTLER. *n. ſ.* [*bouteiller*, Fr. *boteler*, or *botiller*, old Engliſh, from *bottle*; he that is employed in the care of bottling liquors.] A ſervant in a family employed in furniſhing the table.—*Butlers* forget to bring up their beer time enough. *Swift.*

(5.) BUTLER was alſo the name anciently given to an officer in the court of France, ſimilar to that of the ci-devant grand echanſon, or great cupbearer; now aboliſhed with the other appendages of royalty.

(6.) BUTLERS, BUTICULARI, among the Normans, denote wine-taſters, appointed to examine liquors, and ſee that they be right and legal.

(1.) * BUTLERAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *butler*.] The duty upon wines imported, claimed by the king's butler.—Thoſe ordinary finances are caſual or uncertain, as be the eſcheats, the cuſtoms, *butlerage*, and impoſt. *Bacon.*

(2.) BUTLERAGE is a duty of 2s. for every ton of wine imported by merchants ſtrangers; being a compoſition in lieu of the liberties and freedoms granted to them by king John and Edward I. by a charter called *charta mercatoria*. Butlerage was originally the only cuſtom that was payable upon the importation of wines, and was taken by virtue of the regal prerogative, for the proper uſe of the crown. But for many years paſt, parliament having granted ſubſidies to the kings of England, and the duty of butlerage not repealed, but confirmed, they have granted it away to ſome nobleman, who, by virtue of ſuch grant, is to enjoy the full benefit thereof, and may cauſe it to be collected in the ſame manner that the kings themſelves were formerly wont to do.

BUTLER'S BRIDGE, a town of Ireland, in Cavan.

BUTLER'S COURT, near Bodington, Glouceſter.

* BUTLERSHIP. *n. ſ.* [from *butler*.] The office of a butler.

BUTLER'S STONE, a medicinal preparation, of which the ancient chemiſts relate wonders. See *Boyle's Works Abr.* vol. i. p. 50. The inventor, from whom it takes its name, was a Scotſman, in great favour with king James I. and is ſaid to have done wonders with it, not only in the ſpeedy cure of the moſt dangerous diſtempers, but in the making of gold out of lead and quickſilver. The preparation of this ſtone is given by Morley. *Collect. Chym. Leyd. cap.* 375.

(1, 2.) BUTLEY, 3 villages; 1. in Cheſh. near Preſtbury: 2. in Somerſetſh. between Bruton and Bridgewater: and,

(3.) BUTLEY-ABLEY, 4 m. from Oxford, Suffolk.

(1.) * BUTMENT. *n. ſ.* [*aboutement*, Fr.] That * of the arch which joiſts it to the upright pier. —The ſupporters or *butments* of the ſaid arch cannot ſuffer ſo much violence, as in the precedent flat poſture. *Wotton.*

(2.) BUTMENTS of arches are the ſame with buttreſſes. They anſwer to what the Romans call *ſublicas*, the French *culees* and *butees*.

(3.) BUTMENTS, or ABUTMENTS, of a bridge, denote the two maſſives at the end of a bridge, whereby the two extreme arches are ſuſtained and joined with the ſhore on either ſide.

BUTO. See BUTUS.

BUTOMUS, the FLOWERING RUSH, or WATER GLADIOLE: a genus of the hexagynia order in the enneandria claſs of plants; ranking, in the natural method, under the 5th order, Tripetaloideæ. There is no calyx, but it has ſix petals, and as many monoſpermous capſules. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

BUTOMUS UMBELLATUS; of which there are two varieties, the one with a white, the other with a roſe-coloured, flower. Though common plants, they are very pretty, and are worth propagating in a garden where there is conveniency for an artificial bog, or where there are ponds of ſtanding water, as is many times the caſe. Where theſe conveniences are wanting, they may be planted in ciſterns, which ſhould be kept filled with water, with about a foot thickneſs of earth in the bottom; and in this earth the roots ſhould be planted, or the ſeed ſown as ſoon as they are ripe.

BUTORIUS, in zoology, a name given by ſome to the bittern. See ARDEA, N. 10.

BUTRAGO, a town of Spain in New Caſtile.

(1.) BUTRINTO, a lake of Epirus.

(2.) BUTRINTO, anciently called BUTHROTUM, a port town of Epirus, or Canina, in Turky in Europe, ſituated oppoſite to the iſland of Corfu, on the lake, (N. 1.) at the entrance of the gulph of Venice. It is 22 m. S. of Chimera. Lon. 21. 9. E. Lat. 39. 49. N.

BUTRO, a ſynonime of the Biſon. See BOS, N° IV. § i.

BUTSBURY, a town in Eſſex, near Ingratſtone.

* BUTSHAFT. *n. ſ.* [from *but* and *ſhaft*.] An arrow.—

The blind boy's *butſhaft*. *Shak.*

(1.) * BUTT. *n. ſ.* [*but*, Fr.] 1. The place at which the mark to be ſhot at is placed.—

He calls on Bacchus and propounds the prize;
The groom his fellow groom at *butts* defies,
And bends his bow, and levels with his eyes.
Dryd.

2. The point at which the endeavour is directed.—

Be not afraid though you do ſee me weapon'd;
Here is my journey's end; here is my *butt*,
The very ſea-mark of my journey's end. *Shak.*

3. The object of aim; the thing againſt which cenſure or attack is directed.—The papiſts were the *butt* and common-place, and the *butt* againſt whom all the arrows were directed. *Clarendon.* 4. A man upon whom the company breaks their jeſts.—I plied him a ſentence or two at my *butt*, which I thought very ſmart, when my ill genius ſuggeſted to him ſuch a reply as got all the laughter on his ſide. *Spectator.* 5. A blow given by a horned animal. 6. A ſtroke given in fencing.—

If

If diſputes ariſe
Among the champions for the prize;
To prove who gave the fairer *butt*,
John ſhews the chalk on Robert's coat. *Prior.*

(2.) * BUTT. *n. ſ.* [*butt*, Saxon.] A veſſel; a barrel containing 126 gallons of wine; a butt contains 128 gallons of beer; and from 1500 to 2,200 weight is a butt of currans.—I eſcaped upon a *butt* of ſack, which the ſailors heaved over-board. *Shakeſpeare.*

(3.) BUTT of wine (§ 2.) is alſo called PIPE.

(4.) BUTT, or BUTT END. See BUT, § 3. Butt ends in great ſhips are moſt carefully bolted; for if any one of them ſhould ſpring or give way, the leak would be very dangerous and difficult to ſtop.

(5.) BUTTS, in archery. See § 1—3. *def.* 1. and ARCHERY, § 5.

6.) BUTTS, in huſbandry, are the ſhort pieces of land in arable ridges and furrows.

* *To* BUTT. *v. a.* [*botten*, Dutch.] To ſtrike with the hand.—

Come, leave your tears: a brief farewel: the beaſt
With many heads *butts* me away. *Shakeſp.*
Nor wars are ſeen,
Unleſs upon the green,
Two harmleſs lambs are *butting* one the other. *Wotton.*
A ſnow-white ſteer, before thy alter led,
Butts with his threatening brows, and bellowing ſtands. *Dryden's Æneid.*

—A ram will *butt* with his head though he be brought up tame, and never ſaw that manner of fighting. *Ray.*

BUTTELAND, a village in Northumberland, near Bellingham.

BUTT END. See BUT END, and BUTT, § 4.

1.) * BUTTER. *n. ſ.* [*buttere*, Sax. *butyrum*, Lat.] 1. An unctuous ſubſtance made by agitating the cream of milk, till the oil ſeparates from the whey.—And he took *butter* and milk, and the calf which he had dreſſed, and ſet before them. Gen. xviii. 8. 2. *Butter of Antimony.* A chymical preparation made by uniting the acid ſpirits of ſublimate corroſive with regulus of antimony. It is a great cauſtick. *Harris.* 3. *Butter of tin*, is made with tin and ſublimate corroſive. This preparation continually emits fumes. *Harris.*

(2.) BUTTER, in chemiſtry, is a name given to ſeveral preparations, on account of their conſiſtence reſembling that of butter; as butter of antimony, &c. See § 1. *def.* 2, 3, and CHEMISTRY, INDEX.

(3.) BUTTER, ANCIENT USES OF. Butter appears to have been long unknown to the ancient Greeks. Their poets make no mention of it, though they frequently ſpeak of milk and cheeſe. The Romans uſed butter no otherwiſe than as a medicine, never as food. The ancient Chriſtians of Egypt burnt butter in their lamps inſtead of oil; and in the Roman churches, it was anciently allowed, during Chriſtmas time, to burn butter inſtead of oil, on account of the great conſumption of it otherwiſe.

4. BUTTER, FIRST STATE AND FORMATION OF. Butter is the fat, oily, and inflammable part of the milk. This kind of oil is naturally diſtributed through all the ſubſtance of the milk in very ſmall particles, which are interpoſed betwixt the caſeous and ſerous parts, amongſt which it is ſuſpended by a ſlight adheſion, but without being diſſolved. It is in the ſame ſtate in which oil is in emulſions: hence the ſame whiteneſs of milk and emulſions; and hence, by reſt, the oily parts ſeparate from both theſe liquors to the ſurface, and form a cream. See EMULSION. When butter is in the ſtate of cream, its proper oily parts are not yet ſufficiently united together to form an homogeneous maſs. They are ſtill half ſeparated by the interpoſition of a pretty large quantity of ſerous and caſeous particles. The butter is completely formed by preſſing out theſe heterogeneous parts by means of continued percuſſion. It then becomes an uniform maſs.

(5.) BUTTER, GENERAL PROPERTIES, &c. OF. Freſh butter which has undergone no change, has ſcarcely any ſmell; its taſte is mild and agreeable, it melts with a weak heat, and none of its principles are diſengaged by the heat of boiling water. Theſe properties prove, that the oily part of butter is of the nature of the fat, fixed, and mild oils obtained from many vegetable ſubſtances by expreſſion. See OILS. The half fluid conſiſtence of butter, as of moſt other concrete oily matters, is thought to be owing to a conſiderable quantity of acid united with the oily part; which acid is ſo well combined, that it is not perceptible while the butter is freſh and has undergone no change; but when it grows old, and undergoes ſome kind of fermentation, then the acid is diſengaged more and more; and this is the cauſe that butter, like oils of the ſame kind, becomes rancid by age. Butter is conſtantly uſed in food, from its agreeable taſte; but to be wholeſome, it muſt be very freſh, free from rancidity, and not fried or burnt; otherwiſe its acrid and even cauſtic acid, being diſengaged, diſorders digeſtion, renders it difficult and painful, excites acrid empyreumatic belchings, and introduces much acrimony into the blood. Some perſons have ſtomachs ſo delicate, that they are even affected with theſe inconveniences by freſh butter and milk. This obſervation is alſo applicable to oil, fat, chocolate, and in general to all oleaginous matters.

(6.) BUTTER, METHODS OF MAKING. When it has been churned, open the churn, and with both hands gather it well together, take it out of the butter-milk, and lay it into a very clean bowel, or earthen pan; and if the butter be deſigned to be uſed ſweet, fill the pan with clear water, and work the butter in it to and fro, till it is brought to a firm conſiſtence of itſelf, without any moiſture. When this has been done, it muſt be ſcotched and ſliced over with the point of a knife, every way as thick as poſſible, in order to fetch out the ſmalleſt hair, mote, bit of rag, ſtrainer, or any thing that may have happened to fallen into it. Then ſpread it thin in a bowel, and work it well together, with a proper quantity of ſalt, and make it up into diſhes, pounds, half pounds, &c. In the Georgical Eſſays vol. V. p. 209. we have the following method of making well-taſted butter, from the milk of cows fed on turnips: "Let the bowels, either lead or wood, be kept conſtantly clean, and well ſcalded with boiling water before uſing. When the milk is brought into the dairy,

to every 8 quarts mix one quart of boiling water; then put up the milk into the bowels to ſtand for cream." The following directions concerning the making and management of butter, including the Epping method, are extracted from the 3d volume of the Bath Society Papers. In general it is to be obſerved, that the greater the quantity made from a few cows, the greater will be the farmer's profit; therefore he ſhould never keep any but what are eſteemed good milkers. A bad cow will be equally expenſive in keeping, and will not perhaps (by the butter and cheeſe that is made from her) bring in more than from L.3 to L.6 a-year; whereas a good one will bring from L.7 to L.10 per annum: therefore it is obvious that bad cows ſhould be parted with, and good ones purchaſed in their room. When ſuch are obtained, a good ſervant ſhould be employed to milk them; as, through the neglect and miſmanagement of ſervants, it frequently happens that the beſt cows are ſpoiled. No farmer ſhould truſt entirely to ſervants, but ſhould himſelf often ſee that the cows are milked clean; for if any milk is ſuffered to remain in the udder, the cows will daily give leſs, till at length ſhe will become dry before the proper time, and the next ſeaſon ſhe will ſcarce give milk ſufficient to pay for keeping her. It ſometimes happens that ſome of a cow's teats may be ſcratched or wounded ſo as to produce foul or corrupted milk; when this is the caſe, we ſhould by no means mixt it with the ſweet milk, but give it to the pigs; and that which is conveyed to the dairy-houſe ſhould remain in the pail till it is nearly cool, before it be ſtrained, that is, if the weather be warm; but in froſty weather it ſhould be immediately ſtrained, and a ſmall quantity of boiling water may be mixed with it, which will cauſe it to produce cream in abundance, and the more ſo if the pans or vats have a large ſurface. During the hot ſummer months, it is proper to riſe with or before the ſun, that the cream may be ſkimmed from the milk ere the dairy becomes warm; nor ſhould the milk at that ſeaſon ſtand longer in the vats, &c. than 24 hours, nor be ſkimmed in the evening till after ſun-ſet. In winter milk may remain unſkimmed for 36 or 48 hours; the cream ſhould be depoſited in a deep pan, which ſhould be kept during the ſummer in the cooleſt part of the dairy; or in a cool cellar where a free air is admitted, which is ſtill better. Where people have not an opportunity of churning every other day, they ſhould ſhift the cream daily into clean pans, which will keep it cool, but they ſhould never fail to churn at leaſt twice in the week in hot weather; and this work ſhould be done in a morning before the ſun appears, taking care to ſet the churn where there is a great draught of air. If a pump churn be to be uſed, it may be plunged a foot deep into a tub of cold water, and ſhould remain there during the whole time of churning, which will very much harden the butter. A ſtrong rancid flavour will be given to butter, if we churn ſo near the fire as to heat the wood in winter. After the butter is churned, it ſhould be immediately waſhed in many different waters till it is perfectly cleanſed from the milk; but here it muſt be remarked, that a warm water will ſoften it, and make it appear greaſy, ſo that it will be impoſſible to obtain the beſt price for it. The cheeſemongers uſe two pieces of wood for their butter; and if thoſe who have very hot hand were to have ſuch, they might work the butter ſo as to make it more ſaleable. The Epping butter is made up into long rolls, weighing a pound each; in the county of Somerſet, they diſh it in half pounds for ſale; but it muſt not forget to rub ſalt round the inſide of the diſh, or it will be difficult to work it ſo as to make it appear handſome. Butter will require and endure more working in winter than in ſummer; but it muſt be remarked, that no perſon whoſe hand is warm by nature makes good butter. Thoſe who uſe a pump churn muſt endeavour to keep a regular ſtroke; nor ſhould they admit any perſon to aſſiſt them, except they keep nearly the ſame time; for if they churn more ſlowly, the butter will in winter *go back*, as it is called; and if they churn more quick and violent in the ſummer, it will cauſe a fermentation, by which means the butter will imbibe a very diſagreeable flavour. Where people keep many cows, a barrel churn is to be preferred; but if this be not kept very clean, the bad effects will be diſcovered in the butter; nor muſt we forget to ſhift the ſituation of the churn where we uſe it, as the ſeaſons alter, ſo as to fix it in a warm place in winter, and where there is a free air in ſummer. In many parts of this kingdom they colour their butter in winter, but this adds nothing to its goodneſs; and it rarely happens that the farmers in or near Epping uſe any colour, but when they do, it is very innocent. They procure ſome ſound carrots, whoſe juice they expreſs through a ſieve, and mix with the cream when it enters the churn, which makes it appear like May butter: nor do they at any time uſe much ſalt, though a little is abſolutely neceſſary.—As they make in that country very little cheeſe, ſo very little whey butter is made; nor indeed ſhould any perſon make it, except for preſent uſe, as it will not keep more than two days: and the whey will turn to better account to fatten pigs with. The foregoing rules will ſuffice for making good butter in any country; but as ſome people are partial to the weſt country method, it muſt alſo be deſcribed as briefly as poſſible. 1. They depoſite their milk in earthen pans in their dairy-houſe, and (after they have ſtood 12 hours in ſummer, and double that ſpace in the winter) remove them to ſtoves made for that purpoſe, which ſtoves are filled with hot embers; or elſe they remain till bubbles riſe, and the cream of a yellow colour, it is then deemed heated enough: this they call *ſcalded cream*; it is afterwards removed ſteadily to the dairy, where it ſtands 12 hours more, and it is then ſkimmed from the milk and put into a tub or churn; if it be put into a tub, it is beat well with the hand, and then they obtain butter; but a cleanlier way is to make uſe of a churn. Some ſcald it over the fire, but then the ſmoke is apt to affect it; and in that caſe, if the pans touch the fire, they will crack eaſily, and the milk and cream will be waſted.

(7.) BUTTER, METHOD OF MANAGING, &c. The Cambridgeſhire ſalt butter is held in the higheſt eſteem, and is made nearly after the ſame method as the Epping; and by waſhing and work-

ng the ſalt from it the cheeſemongers in London often ſell it at a high price for freſh butter. They depoſite it when made into wooden tubs or firkins, which they expoſe to the air for 2 or 3 weeks, and often waſh them; but a readier way is to cover them with unſlacked lime, or a large quantity of ſalt and water well boiled will do: with this they muſt be ſcrubbed ſeveral times, and afterwards thrown into cold water, where they ſhould remain 3 or 4 days, or till they are wanted; then they ſhould be ſcrubbed as before, and well rinſed with cold water; but before they receive the butter, care muſt be take to rub every part of the firkin with ſalt: then, if the butter be properly made, and perfectly ſweet, it may be gently preſſed into the firkin; but it muſt be well ſalted when it is made up, and the ſalt ſhould be equally diſtributed through the whole maſs, and a good handful of ſalt muſt be ſpread on the top of the firkin before it is heated, after which the head ſhould be immediately put on. They purſue nearly the ſame method in Suffolk and Yorkſhire; nor is the butter that is made in theſe counties much inferior to that made in Cambridgeſhire; indeed it is often ſold in London for Cambridge butter: and no people make more butter from their cows than the Yorkſhire farmers do, which is certainly owing to the care they take of their cows in the winter; as at that ſeaſon they houſe them all, feed them with good hay, and never ſuffer them to go out, (except to water,) but when the weather is very ſerene; and when their cows calve, they give them comfortable malt meſhes for 2 or 3 days after; but theſe cows never anſwer if they are removed to other counties, except the ſame care and attendance be given them, and then none anſwer better. Land whereon cows feed very often affects the butter. If wild garlic, charlock, or May-weed, be found in a paſture ground, cows ſhould not feed therein till after they have been mown, when ſuch pernicious plants will appear no more till the following ſpring; but thoſe cows that give milk muſt not partake of the hay made therefrom, as that will alſo diffuſe its bad qualities. Great part of the Epping butter is made from cows that feed during the ſummer months in Epping foreſt, where the leaves and ſhrubby plants contribute greatly to the flavour of the butter. The mountains of Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, and the moors, commons, and heaths in England, produce excellent butter where it is properly managed; and though not equal in quantity, yet far ſuperior in quality to that which is produced from the richeſt meadows: and the land is often blamed when the butter is bad through miſmanagement, ſluttiſhneſs, or inattention. Turnips and rape affect milk and butter, but brewers grains are ſweet and wholeſome food, and will make cows give abundance of milk; yet the cream thereon will be thin, except good hay be given at the ſame time, after every mail of grains. Coleworts and cabbages are alſo excellent food; and if theſe and ſuways were cultivated for this purpoſe, the farmers in general would find their account in it. Cows ſhould never be ſuffered to drink improper water; ſtagnated pools, water wherein frogs ſpawn, common ſewers, and ponds that receive the drainings of ſtables, are improper.

(8.) BUTTER, SHOWER OF. Naturaliſts ſpeak of ſhowers and dews of a butyraceous ſubſtance. In 1695, there fell in Ireland, during the winter and following ſpring, a thick yellow dew, which had the medicinal properties of butter.

(9.) BUTTER, TRADE IN. The trade in butter is very conſiderable. Some compute 50,000 tons annually conſumed in London. It is chiefly made within 40 miles round the city: 50,000 firkins are ſaid to be ſent yearly from Cambridge and Suffolk alone; each firkin containing 56 lbs. Utoxeter in Staffordſhire is a market famous for good butter, inſomuch that the London merchants have eſtabliſhed a factory there for that article. It is bought by the pot, of a long cylindrical form, weighing 14 lb. But no butter is eſteemed equal to that which is made in Eſſex, well known by the name of *Epping butter*, and which, in almoſt every ſeaſon of the year, yields at London from 1 ſh. to 14 d. per pound averdupoiſe.

(10.) BUTTER, TRICKS OF DEALERS IN. Many abuſes are committed in the packing and ſalting of butter, to increaſe its bulk and weight, againſt which we have a ſtatute expreſs. Pots are frequently laid with good butter for a little depth at the top, and with bad at the bottom; ſometimes the butter is ſet in rolls, only touching at top, and ſtanding hollow at bottom. To prevent theſe cheats, the factors at Utoxeter keep a ſurveyor, who, in caſe of ſuſpicion, tries the pots with an iron inſtrument called a *butter bore*, made like a cheeſe-taſter, to be ſtruck in obliquely to the bottom.

* *To* BUTTER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſmear, or oil with butter.—'Twas her brother, that, in pure kindneſs to his horſe, *buttered* his hay. *Shakeſp.*—Words *butter* no parſnips. *L'Eſtr.* 2. To encreaſe the ſtakes every throw, or every game: a cant term among gameſters.—It is a fine ſimile in one of Mr Congreve's prologues, which compares a writer to a *buttering* gameſter, that ſtakes all his winning upon one caſt; ſo that if he loſes the laſt throw, he is ſure to be undone. *Addiſ.*

* BUTTERBUMP. *n. ſ.* A fowl: the ſame with *bittourn*.

(1.) * BUTTERBUR. *n. ſ.* [*petaſites*, Lat.] A plant uſed in medicine, and grows wild in great plenty by the ſides of ditches. *Miller.*

(2.) BUTTER-BUR, in botany. See TUSSILAGO.

BUTTERBY, a town near Brampeth, Durham.

BUTTER-CRAMB, near New Malton, Yorkſh.

BUTTER-FISH, a ſmall fiſh, common in Cornwal, ſhaped ſomewhat like an eel, and diſtinguiſhed by two rows of black ſpots along its back, and called GUNELLUS.

(1.) * BUTTERFLOWER. *n. ſ.* A yellow flower, with which the fields abound in the month of May.—

Let weeds, inſtead of *butterflow'rs*, appear,
And meads, inſtead of daiſies, hemlock bear.
Gay.

(2.) BUTTER-FLOWER is a ſpecies of crow-foot. See RANUNCULUS.

(1.) BUTTERFLIES, METHOD OF MAKING PICTURES OF. To thoſe, whoſe ſenſibilities are ſo callous,

callous, that they feel nothing for the tortures of the inſect tribe, or who are ſo thoughtleſs, as not to reflect, that,

——"Ev'n the poor worm they tread on
In corp'real anguiſh feels a pain as great,
As giants when they die,"

Mr Edwards, in his *Hiſtory of Birds*, vol. ii, p. 122, gives the following directions, for making pictures of butterflies. "Take butterflies or field moths, either thoſe catched abroad, or ſuch as are taken in caterpillars and nurſed in the houſe till they be flies; clip off their wings very cloſe to their bodies, and lay them on clean paper, in the form of a butterfly when flying; then have ready prepared gum arabic that hath been ſome time diſſolved in water, and is pretty thick; if you put a drop of ox-gall into a ſpoonful of this, it will be better for the uſe; temper them well with your finger, and ſpread a little of it on a piece of thin white paper, big enough to take both ſides of your fly; when it begins to be clammy under your finger, the paper is in proper order to take the feathers from the wings of the fly, then lay the gummed ſide on the wings, and it will take them up; then double your paper ſo as to have all the wings between the paper; then lay it on a table, preſſing it cloſe with your fingers; and you may rub it gently with ſome ſmooth hard thing; then open the paper and take out the wings, which will come forth tranſparent: the down of the upper and under ſide of the wings, ſticking to the gummed paper, form a juſt likeneſs of both ſides of the wings in their natural ſhapes and colours. The nicety of taking off flies depends on a juſt degree of moiſture of the gum'd paper: for if it be too wet, all will be blotted and confuſed; and if too dry, your paper will ſtick ſo faſt together, that it will be torn in ſeparation. When you have opened your gum'd papers, and they are dry, you muſt draw the bodies from the natural ones, and paint them in water colours: you muſt take paper that will bear ink very well for this uſe; for ſinking paper will ſeparate with the reſt, and ſpoil all."—With a little ſkill in drawing, and half the attention required by Mr Edward, any young perſon may make pictures of butterflies, equally beautiful, by a cloſe imitation of nature or of good prints. Thus barbarity will be avoided and real genius exerted.

(2.) BUTTERFLIES, METHOD OF PRESERVING. See INSECTS.

(3.) * BUTTERFLY. *n. ſ.* [*butterflege*, Saxon.] A beautiful inſect, ſo named becauſe it appears in the beginning of the ſeaſon for butter.—

Eftſoons that damſel, by her heav'nly might,
She turned into a winged *butterfly*,
In the wide air to make her wand'ring flight.
Spenſer.

Tell old tales, and laugh
At gilded *buttterflies*: and hear poor rogues
Talk of court news. *Shakeſpeare.*

And ſo befel, that as he caſt his eye
Among the colworts on a *butterfly*,
He ſaw falſe Reynard. *Dryden.*

—That which ſeems to be a powder upon the wings of a *butterfly*, is an innumerable company of extreme ſmall feathers, not to be diſcerned but a microſcope. *Grew.*

BUTTERFLY. See PAPILIO.

BUTTERFLY-FISH, a name given by ſome to the BLENNUS, or BLENNIUS; from a ſpot in the fin, which reſembles thoſe in the wings of ſome butterflies.

BUTTERFLY-SHELL, in natural hiſtory. See VOLUTA.

BUTTER-HAUGH, a village in Northumberland, near the ſource of the Tyne.

* BUTTERIS. *n. ſ.* An inſtrument of ſteel ſet in a wooden handle, uſed in paring the foot, or cutting the hoof of a horſe. *Farrier's Dictionary.*

BUTTERLEY, two Engliſh villages: viz. 1. in Derbyſhire, near Codnor Caſtle: 2. in Devonſh. near Collumpton

BUTTERMERE WATER, a lake of Cumberland, near the ſource of the Cocker.

(1.) * BUTTERMILK. *n. ſ.* [from *butter* and *milk*.] The whey that is ſeparated from the cream when butter is made.—A young man, fallen into an ulcerous conſumption, devoted himſelf to *buttermilk*, by which ſole diet he recovered. *Harvey.*—The ſcurvy of mariners is cured by acids; as fruits, lemons, oranges, *buttermilk*; and alkaline ſpirits hurt them. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) BUTTER-MILK is more accurately defined, the milk which remains after the butter is obtained by churning. Butter-milk is eſteemed an excellent food, in the ſpring eſpecially, and is particularly recommended in hectic fevers. Some make curds of butter-milk, by pouring into it a quantity of new milk hot.

BUTTER-NUT, a fruit in New England whoſe kernel yields a great quantity of ſweet oil.

BUTTER OF ANTIMONY, &c. See BUTTER, § 1, *def.* 2. and CHEMISTRY, *Index.*

BUTTER OF STONE, a kind of mineral drug found on the higheſt mountains, and hardeſt rocks of Siberia, being drawn by the heat of the ſun, in tranſudation, from the dry ſubſtance of the ſtone themſelves, and adhering to the ſurface there, like a ſort of calx, which, having received its final coction, is ſcraped off by the inhabitants under the name of *kamine maſſa*. The Ruſſians aſcribe many virtues to it. It is much uſed for the dyſentery and venereal diſeaſes; but its operation is ſo violent, however corrected by other ingredients, that none but the Ruſſians dare uſe it.

* BUTTERPRINT. *n. ſ.* [from *butter* and *print*.] A piece of carved wood, uſed to mark butter.—A *butterprint*, in which were engraven figures of all ſorts and ſizes, applied to the lump of butter, left on it the figure. *Locke.*

BUTTERSIDE, a town near Aſkrig, Yorkſh.

BUTTERSTONE LOCH, a lake in Perthſhire.

BUTTERSWICK, a town near Newſom, York.

BUTTERTON, two ſmall towns; viz. 1. S. E. of Leek: 2. S. W. of Stafford.

* BUTTERTOOTH. *n. ſ.* [from *butter* and *tooth*.] The great broad foreteeth.

(1—3.) BUTTERWICK; 1. in Durham, between Durham and Stockton: 2. in Herefordſh. near St Albans: 3. in Lincolnſh. N. E. of Boſton.

(4.) BUTTERWICK, EAST, } 2 Engliſh villages
(5.) BUTTERWICK, WEST, } E. of Axholm.

BUTTERWIKE, in Dorſetſh. 1 m. S. of Poole.

* BUTTERWOMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *butter* and *woman*.] A woman that ſells butter.—Tongue, I muſt put you into a *butterwoman's* mouth, and bar

buy myſelf another of Bajazet's mute, if you prattle me into theſe perils. *Shakeſpeare.*

(1.) * BUTTERWORT. *n. ſ.* A plant: the ſame with *ſanicle.*

(2.) BUTTERWORT, in botany. See PINGUICULA.

(1.) * BUTTERY. *adj.* [from *butter.*] Having the appearance or qualities of butter.—Nothing more convertible into hot cholerick humours than its *buttery* parts. *Harvey.*—The beſt oils, thickened by cold, have a white colour; and milk itſelf has its whiteneſs from the caſeous fibres, and its *buttery* oil. *Floyer.*

(2.) * BUTTERY. *n. ſ.* [from *butter;* or, according to *Skinner,* from *bouter,* Fr. to place or lay up.] The room where proviſions are laid up.—

Go, ſirrah, take them to the *buttery,*
And give them friendly welcome every one.
Shakeſpeare.

—All that need a cool and freſh temper, as cellars, pantries, and *butteries,* to the north. *Wotton.*—

My guts ne'er ſuffer'd from a college-cook,
My name ne'er enter'd in a *buttery* book.
Bramſton.

(3.) BUTTERY, ROYAL. The officers in the king's buttery, are a gentleman yeoman, and 3 grooms of the buttery.

BUTTEVANT, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

BUTTLESDON, a village in Warkworth, Northumberland.

(1.) * BUTTOCK. *n. ſ.* [ſuppoſed, by *Skinner,* to come from *aboutir,* Fr. inſerted by *Junius* without etymology.] The rump; the part near the tail. —It is like a barber's chair that fits all *buttocks. Shakeſp.*—Such as were not able to ſtay themſelves, would be holden up by others of more ſtrength, riding behind them upon the *buttocks* of the horſe. *Locke.*—The tail of a fox was never made for the *buttocks* of an ape. *L'Eſtrange.*

(2.) BUTTOCK OF A SHIP, is that part of her which is her breadth right aſtern, from the tack upwards; and a ſhip is ſaid to have a broad or a narrow buttock, according as ſhe is built broad or narrow at the tranſum.

BUTTOLPH, a town near Bramber, Suſſex.

(1.) * BUTTON. *n. ſ.* [*bottwn,* Welch; *bouton,* Fr.] 1. A catch, or ſmall ball, by which the dreſs of man is faſtened.—

Pray you, undo this *button.* *Shakeſp.*

I mention thoſe ornaments, becauſe of the ſimplicity of the ſhape, want of ornaments, *buttons,* loops, gold and ſilver lace, they muſt have been cheaper than ours. *Arbuthnot.* 2. Any knob or ball faſtened to a ſmaller body.—We faſtened to the marble certain wires, and a *button. Boyle.*—

Fair from its humble bed I rear'd this flow'r,
Suckled and chear'd, with air, and ſun and ſhow'r;
Soft on the paper ruff its leaves I ſpread,
Bright with the gilded *button* tipt its head. *Pope.*

The bud of a plant.—

The canker galls the infants of the ſpring,
Too oft before their *buttons* be diſclos'd. *Shak.*

(II.) * BUTTON. *n. ſ.* [*echinus marinus.*] The ſea urchin, which is a kind of crabfiſh that has prickles inſtead of feet. *Ainſworth.*

(III.) BUTTON, in botany, (§ I. *def.* 3.) is chiefly uſed in ſpeaking of vines and roſes.

(IV.) BUTTON, in building, denotes a ſlight faſtening, for a door or window, made to turn on a nail.

(V.) BUTTON, in chemiſtry, ſignifies the metal which is collected in a roundiſh maſs at the bottom of a crucible after fuſion, or which remains in the cupels after cupellation; more generally called a BEAD.

(VI.) BUTTON, in dreſs, an article whoſe form and uſe are too well known to need deſcription. Buttons are made of various materials, as mohair, ſilk, horſe-hair, metal, &c.

(1.) BUTTONS, COMMON, METHOD OF MAKING. Common buttons are generally made of mohair; ſome indeed are made of ſilk, and others of thread; but the latter are of a very inferior ſort. To make a button, the mohair muſt be previouſly wound on a bobbin; and the mould fixed to a board by means of a bodkin thruſt through the hole in the middle of it. This being done, the workman wraps the mohair round the mould in 3, 4, or 6 columns, according to the pattern. See farther, § 5.

(2.) BUTTONS, GOLD TWIST. The mould of theſe buttons is firſt covered in the ſame manner with that of common buttons. This being done, the whole is covered with a thin plate of gold or ſilver, and then wrought over of different forms, with purple and gimp. The former is a kind of thread compoſed of ſilk and gold wire twiſted together; and the latter, capillary tubes of gold or ſilver, about the tenth of an inch long. Theſe are joined together by means of a fine needle, filled with ſilk, thruſt through their apertures, in the ſame manner as beads or bugles.

(3.) BUTTONS, HORSE-HAIR. The moulds of horſe-hair buttons are covered with a kind of ſtuff compoſed of ſilk and hair; the warp being belladine ſilk, and the ſhoot horſe-hair. This ſtuff is wove with two ſelvedges, in the ſame manner and in the ſame loom as ribbands. It is then cut into ſquare pieces proportional to the ſize of the button, wrapped round the moulds, and their ſelvedges ſtitched together, which form the under part of the button. See farther, § 5.

(4.) BUTTONS, METAL, METHOD OF MAKING. The metal with which the moulds are intended to be covered is firſt caſt into ſmall ingots, and then flatted into thin plates or leaves, of the thickneſs intended, at the flatting mills; after which it is cut into ſmall round pieces proportionable to the ſize of the mould they are intended to cover, by means of proper punches on a block of wood covered with a thick plate of lead. Each piece of metal thus cut out of the plate is reduced into the form of a button, by beating it ſucceſſively in ſeveral cavities, or concave moulds, of a ſpherical form, with a convex puncheon of iron, always beginning with the ſhalloweſt cavity or mould, and proceeding to the deeper, till the plate has acquired the intended form: and the better to manage ſo thin a plate, they form 10, 12, and ſometimes 24, to the cavities or concave moulds at once; often nealing the metal during the operation, to make it more ductile. The plate is generally called by workmen the *cap of the button.* The form being thus given to the plates or caps, they ſtrike the intended impreſſion on the convex ſide, by means of a ſimilar iron puncheon, in a kind of mould en-

graven *en creux*, either by the hammer or the preſs uſed in coining. The cavity or mould, wherein the impreſſion is to be made, is of a diameter and depth ſuitable to the ſort of button intended to be ſtruck in it; each kind requiring a particular mould. Between the puncheon and the plate is placed a thin piece of lead, called by workmen a *bob*, which greatly contributes to the taking off all the ſtrokes of the engraving; the lead, by reaſon of its ſoftneſs, eaſily giving way to the parts that have relievo, and as eaſily inſinuating itſelf into the traces or indentures. The plate thus prepared makes the cap or ſhell of the button. The lower part is formed of another plate, in the ſame manner, but much flatter, and without any impreſſion. To the laſt or under plate is ſoldered a ſmall eye made of wire, by which the button is to be faſtened. The two plates being thus finiſhed, they are ſoldered together with ſoft ſolder, and then turned in a lathe. Generally indeed they uſe a wooden mould, inſtead of the under plate; and in order to faſten it, they paſs a thread or gut acroſs, through the middle of the mould, and fill the cavity between the mould and the cap with cement, in order to render the button firm and ſolid; for the cement entering all the cavities formed by the relievo of the other ſide, ſuſtains it, prevents its flattening, and preſerves its boſſe.

(5.) BUTTONS, METHOD OF CLEANSING. Buttons, made of ſilk, mohair, &c. are not finiſhed when they come from the maker's hands; the ſuperfluous hairs and hubs of ſilk muſt be taken off, and the buttons rendered gloſſy and beautiful before they can be ſold. This is done in the following manner: A quantity of buttons are put into a kind of iron ſieve, called by workmen a *ſingeing box*. Then a little ſpirit of wine being poured into a ſhallow iron diſh, and ſet on fire, the workman moves and ſhakes the ſingeing box, containing the buttons, briſkly over the flame of the ſpirit, by which the ſuperfluous hairs, hubs of ſilk, &c. are burnt off, without damaging the buttons. Great care, however, muſt be taken that the buttons in the ſingeing box be kept continually in motion; for if they are ſuffered to reſt over the flame, they will immediately burn. When all theſe looſe hairs, &c. are burnt off by the flame of the ſpirit, the buttons are taken out of the ſingeing box, and put, with a proper quantity of the crumbs of bread, into a leather bag, about 3 feet long, and of a conical ſhape; the mouth or ſmaller end of which being tied up, the workman takes one of the ends in one hand and the other in the other, and ſhakes the hand briſkly with a particular jerk. This operation cleanſes the buttons, renders them very gloſſy, and fit for ſale.

(VII.) BUTTON, in fencing, ſignifies the tip of a foil, made roundiſh, and uſually covered with leather, to prevent contuſions or wounds.

(VIII.) BUTTON, in the manege. Button of the reins of a bridle, is a ring of leather, with the reins paſſed through it, which runs all along the length of the reins. To put a horſe under the button, is when a horſe is ſtopped without a rider upon his back, the reins being laid on his neck, and the button lowered ſo far down that the reins bring in the horſe's head, and fix it to the true poſture or carriage. Not only the horſes managed in the hand muſt be put under the button; but the ſame method muſt be taken with ſuch horſes as are bred between two pillars, before they are backed.

(IX.) BUTTON OF A LOCK denotes a round head ſerving to move the bolt.

* *To* BUTTON. *v. a.* [from the noun] 1. To dreſs; to clothe.—One whoſe hard heart is button'd up with ſteel. *Shakeſp.*—He gave his body, arm, and breaſt, to his ordinary ſervant, to button and dreſs him. *Wotton.* 2. To faſten with buttons; as, he *buttons* his coat.

BUTTON-ANTENNÆ, a name given by naturaliſts to thoſe horns or feelers of butterflies, which are terminated at the top by a ſort of button. The French naturaliſts, from Reaumur, call them *antennes a boutons*.

* BUTTONHOLE. *n. ſ.* [from *button* and *hole*] The loop in which the button of the cloaths is caught.—

Let me take you a *buttonhole* lower. *Shakeſp.*
I'll pleaſe the maids of honour, if I can:
Without black velvet breeches, what is man?
I will my ſkill in *buttonholes* diſplay,
And brag, how oft I ſhift me ev'ry day. *Bramſton.*

BUTTON-MAKER, *n. ſ.* one who manufactures buttons. We have been credibly informed that the greateſt perſonage in the nation has lately muſed himſelf with button-making; and that many of the moſt beautiful patterns manufactured at Birmingham have often been of His Majeſty's invention. It would have been happy for mankind in all ages and nations, if monarchs had always muſed themſelves with making improvements in the mechanic arts, inſtead of cultivating the art of war.

BUTTON-MAKING, *n. ſ.* the art of making buttons. See BUTTON, § VI, 1—5.

BUTTON'S BAY, the N. part of Hudſon's Bay in North America, whereby Sir Thomas Button attempted to find out a N. W. paſſage to the East Indies. It lies between 80° and 100° W. Lat. and between 60° and 66° Lat. N.

BUTTON-STONE, in natural hiſtory, a ſort of figured ſtone, ſo denominated from its reſemblance the button of a garment. Dr Hook gives the figure of 3 ſorts of button-ſtones, which ſeem to have been nothing elſe but the filling up of the holes of ſhells. They are all very hard flints; and have this in common, that they conſiſt of two bodies, which ſeem to have been the filling up of the two holes or vents in the ſhell. Dr Plot deſcribes a ſpecies finely ſtriated from the top, after the manner of ſome hair buttons. This name is alſo given to a peculiar ſpecies of ſlate found in the mountains of Bareith, in a mountain called *Tuchet*, which is extremely different from the common ſorts of ſlate, in that it runs with great eaſe into glaſs in 5 or 6 hours, without the addition of any ſalt or other foreign ſubſtance, to promote the vitrification. It contains in itſelf all the principles of glaſs, and really has mixed in its ſubſtance all things neceſſary to be added to promote the fuſion of other ſtony bodies. The Swedes and Germans make buttons of the glaſs produced from it. This is very black and ſhining, and it has been named *button-ſtone*. They make ſeveral other things alſo of this glaſs, as the handles of knives and

like, and ſend a large quantity of it unwrought in round cakes as it cools from the fuſion into Holland.

BUTTON-TREE, in botany. See CONOCARPUS.

BUTTON-WEED. See SPERMACOCE.

BUTTON-WOOD. See CEPHALANTHUS.

(1.) * BUTTRESS. *n. ſ.* [from *aboutir*, Fr.] 1. A prop; a wall built to ſupport another wall; and ſtanding out.—

No jutting frize,
Buttreſs, nor coigne of vantage, but this bird,
Hath made his pendant bed, and procreant cradle. *Shakeſp.*

—Fruit trees, ſet upon a wall againſt the ſun, between elbows or *buttreſſes* of ſtone, ripen more than upon a plain wall. *Bacon.*—

But we inhabit a weak city here,
Which *buttreſſes* and props but ſcarcely bear. *Dryden.*

1. A prop; a ſupport.—It will concern us to examine the force of this plea, which our adverſaries are ſtill ſetting up againſt us, as the ground pillar, and *buttreſs* of the good old cauſe of nonconformity. *South.*

(2.) BUTTRESS is a kind of butment built archwiſe, or a maſs of ſtone or brick, ſerving to prop or ſupport the ſides of a building, wall, &c. on the outſide, where it is either very high, or has any conſiderable load to ſuſtain on the other ſide, as a bank of earth, &c.—Buttreſſes are uſed againſt the angles of ſteeples and other buildings of ſtone, &c. on the outſide, and along the walls of ſuch buildings as have great and heavy roofs, which would be ſubject to thruſt the walls out, unleſs very thick, if no buttreſſes were placed againſt them. They are alſo placed for a butment againſt the feet of ſome arches, that are turned acroſs great halls in old palaces, abbeys, &c.

(3.) BUTTRESS, in farriery. See BUTTERIS.

* *To* BUTTRESS. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To prop; to ſupport.

BUTT's ASH, a village in the New Foreſt, Hampſhire.

BUTUA. See BATUA and BUDOA.

BUTUS, or BUTO, in ancient geography, a town of Lower Egypt, on the W. ſide of the branch of the Nile, called *Thermuthiacus*; towards the mouth called *Oſtium Sebennyticum*. In this town ſtood an oracle of Latona. Ptolemy places Butus in the Nomos Phthenotes. It had temples of Apollo and Diana, but the largeſt was that of Latona, where the oracle ſtood.

* BUTWINK. *n. ſ.* The name of a bird. *Diſt.*

* BUTYRACEOUS. *adj.* [*butyrum*, Lat. butter.] Having the qualities of butter.—Chyle has the ſame principles as milk; a viſcidity from the ſeous parts, and an oilineſs from the *butyraceous* parts. *Floyer.*

* BUTYROUS. *adj.* [*butyrum*, Lat.] Having the properties of butter.—Its oily red part is from the *butyrous* parts of chyle. *Floyer.*

BUTZAW, a town of lower Saxony, in Germany; ſeated on the river Varnow, on the road from Schwerin to Roſtock. Lon. 23. 12. E. Lat. 53. 50. N.

BUTZBACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, where the Auſtrians were encamped in July 1796.

BUVETTE, or BEUVETTE, in the ci-devant French laws, an eſtabliſhed part in every court, where the lawyers and counſellors uſed to retire, warm themſelves, and take a glaſs of wine, at the king's charge. There was alſo one for each court of parliament, for the members of that body.

BUXBAUMIA, in botany, a genus of the order muſci, belonging to the Cryptogamia claſs of plants: ranking under the ſame order, *muſci*, or moſſes, in the natural method.

BUXBURN, a rapid ſtream of Aberdeenſhire, which runs through the pariſh of Newhills.

BUXEL, a river of Tranſylvania, which runs through Burzland.

BUXENTUM, or PYXUS, a town of Lucania, firſt built by the people of Meſſana, but afterwards deſerted. A Roman colony was ſent thither, and when found ſtill thin of inhabitants, a new colony was ſent by a decree of the ſenate. Its name is from *buxus*, the box tree, growing plentifully there. Strabo ſays, the name *Pyxus* includes a promontory, port, and river, under one. It is now called POLICASTRO. Lon. 15. 40. E. Lat. 40. 20. N.

BUXEOUS, *adj.* made of boxwood. *Scott.*

BUXHALL, a village in Suffolk between Bildeſton and Wulpet.

BUXIFEROUS, *adj.* bearing box. *Aſh.*

BUXION, *n. ſ. obſ.* a bud. *Chaucer.*

To BUXIONEN. *v. n. obſ.* To bud. *Chaucer.*

BUXLOW, a town near Dunwick, Suffolk.

* BUXOM. *adj.* [*bucſum*, Sax. from *bugan*, to bend. It originally ſignified *obedient*, as *John de Treviſa*, a clergyman, tells his patron, that he is *obedient and* buxom *to all his commands*. In an old form of marriage uſed before the reformation, the bride promiſed to be *obedient and* buxom *in bed and at board*; from which expreſſion, not well underſtood, its preſent meaning ſeems to be derived.] 1. Obedient; obſequious.—He did tread down, and diſgrace all the Engliſh, and ſet up and countenance the Iriſh; thinking thereby to make them more tractable and *buxom* to his government. *Spenſer.*—

He, with broad ſails,
Winnow'd the *buxom* air. *Milton.*

2. Gay; lively; briſk.—

I'm born
Again a freſh child of the *buxom* morn,
Heir of the ſun's firſt beams. *Craſhaw.*

Zephyr, with Aurora playing,
As he met her once a maying,
Fill'd her with thee, a daughter fair,
So *buxom*, blithe, and debonnair. *Milton.*

Sturdy ſwains,
In clean array, for ruſtick dance prepare,
Mixt with the *buxom* damſels hand in hand. *Philips.*

3. Wanton; jolly.—

Almighty Jove deſcends, and pours
Into his *buxom* bride his fruitful ſhow'rs. *Dryd.*
She feign'd the rites of Bacchus! cry'd aloud,
And to the *buxom* god the virgin vow'd. *Dryd.*

* BUXOMLY. *adv.* [from *buxom*.] Wantonly; amorouſly.

* BUXOMNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *buxom*.] Wantonneſs; amorouſneſs.

BUXTEAD, or BUCKSTEAD, a village in Suſſex, 10 m. from E. Grinſtead. It has a fair July 28.

(1.) BUXTON, a town in the peak of Derby, celebrated for its medicinal waters. (See N. 4.) From the great reſort of company to the waters, this place has grown into a large irregular town, which is daily increaſing. The houſes are chiefly, or rather ſolely, built for the reception of invalids; and many of them are not only commodious, but elegant. The duke of Devonſhire has lately erected a moſt magnificent building in the form of a creſcent, with piazzas, under which the company walk in wet or cold weather. It is divided into different ſhops, &c. with a public coffee-room, and a very elegant room for aſſemblies and concerts; and has 29 windows in length on each floor beſides 5 at each end. There are ſtables on the back of this building of an octagonal form on the outſide and circular within the yard, where there is a riding-houſe. The principal trade of Buxton is the cotton manufacture. It lies in an open healthy country, 23 m. from Mancheſter, 22 N. W. of Derby, and 160 N. N. W. of London. Lon. 1. 52. W. Lat. 53. 22. N.

(2.) BUXTON, a village in Norfolkſhire, S. E. of Alefham.

(3.) BUXTON, Jedidiah, a prodigy with reſpect to ſkill in numbers. His father, William Buxton, was ſchoolmaſter of the pariſh where he was born in 1704: yet Jedidiah's education was ſo much neglected, that he was never taught to write; and with reſpect to any other knowledge but that of numbers, ſeemed always as ignorant as a boy of ten years of age. How he came firſt to know the relative proportions of numbers, and their progreſſive denominations, he did not remember; but to this he applied the whole force of his mind, and upon this his attention was conſtantly fixed, ſo that he frequently took no cognizance of external objects, and when he did it, it was only with reſpect to their numbers. If any ſpace of time was mentioned, he would ſoon after ſay it was ſo many minutes; and if any diſtance of way, he would aſſign the number of hairs breadths, without any queſtion being aſked, or any calculation expected by the company. When he once underſtood a queſtion, he began to work with amazing facility, after his own method, without the uſe of a pen, pencil, or chalk, or even underſtanding the common rules of arithmetic as taught in the ſchools. He would ſtride over a piece of land or a field, and tell the contents of it almoſt as exact as if one had meaſured it by the chain. In this manner he meaſured the whole lordſhip of Elmton, of ſome thouſand acres, belonging to Sir John Rhodes, and brought him the contents, not only in acres, roods, and perches, but even in ſquare inches. After this, for his own amuſement, he reduced them into ſquare hair-breadths, computing 48 to each ſide of the inch. His memory was ſo great, that while reſolving a queſtion, he could leave off, and reſume the operation again where he left off the next morning, or at a week, a month, or at ſeveral months, and proceed regularly till it was compleated. His memory would doubtleſs have been equally retentive with reſpect to other objects, if he had attended to other objects with equal diligence; but his perpetual application to figures prevented the ſmalleſt acquiſition of any other knowledge. He was ſometimes aſked, on his return from church, whether he remembered the text or any part of the ſermon, but it never appeared that he brought away one ſentence; his mind, upon a cloſer examination, being found to have been buſied, even during divine ſervice, in his favourite operation, either dividing ſome time, or ſome ſpace, into the ſmalleſt known parts, or reſolving ſome queſtion that had been given him as a teſt of his abilities. As this extraordinary perſon lived in laborious poverty, his life was uniform and obſcure. Time, with reſpect to him, changed nothing but his age; nor did the ſeaſons vary his employment, except that, in winter he uſed a flail, and in ſummer a ſcythe. In 1754, he came to London, where he was introduced to the Royal Society, who, in order to prove his abilities, aſked him ſeveral queſtions in arithmetic, and he gave them ſuch ſatisfaction, that they diſmiſſed him with a handſome gratuity. In this viſit to the metropolis, the only object of his curioſity, except figures, was to ſee the king and royal family; but they being at Kenſington, Jedidiah was diſappointed. During his reſidence in London, he was taken to ſee King Richard III. performed at Drury Lane playhouſe; and it was expected, either that the novelty and the ſplendor of the ſhow would have fixed him in aſtoniſhment, or kept his imagination in a continual hurry, or that his paſſions would, in ſome degree, have been touched by the power of action, if he had not perfectly underſtood the dialogue. But Jedidiah's mind was employed in the playhouſe juſt as it was employed in every other place. During the dance, he fixed his attention upon the number of ſteps; he declared, after a fine piece of muſic, that the innumerable ſounds produced by the inſtruments had perplexed him beyond meaſure; and he attended even to Mr Garrick, only to count the words that he uttered, to which he ſaid he perfectly ſucceeded. Jedidiah returned to the place of his birth, where, if his enjoyments were few, his wiſhes did not ſeem to be greater. He applied to his labour with cheerfulneſs; he regretted nothing that he left behind him in London; and it continued to be his opinion, that a ſlice of ruſty bacon afforded the moſt delicious repaſt.

(4.) BUXTON WELLS are generally ranked among the wonders of the peak of Derby. It has been always believed by our antiquaries, that the Romans were acquainted with theſe waters, and had frequented them much, as there is a military way ſtill viſible, called the *Bath-gate*, that leads, from Burgh to Buxton. This was verified about 60 years ago, when Sir Thomas Delves of Cheſhire, in memory of a cure he received here, cauſed an arch to be erected; in digging the foundations for which, they came to the remains of a ſolid and magnificent Roman ſtructure; and in other places of the neighbourhood, very capacious leaden veſſels, and other utenſils, of ſtone workmanſhip, have been diſcovered. Theſe waters have always been reckoned inferior to thoſe in Somerſetſhire; but ſeem never to have been totally diſuſed. They are mentioned by Camden

as well known above 200 years ago. They were brought into great credit by Dr Jones, in 1572, and by George earl of Shrewſbury, who erected a building over the bath, then compoſed of 9 ſprings. This building was afterwards pulled down, and a more commodious one erected at the expence of the earl of Devonſhire. In doing this, however, the ancient regiſter of cures drawn up by the bath-warden, or phyſician attending the baths, and ſubſcribed by the hands of the patients, was loſt. The warm waters of Buxton are, the bath, conſiſting of 9 ſprings, St Ann's well, and St Peter's or Bingham well. St Ann's well riſes at the diſtance of ſomewhat more than 32 yards N. E. from the bath. It is chiefly ſupplied from a ſpring on the N. ſide out of a rock of black limeſtone or baſtard marble. It formerly roſe into a ſtone baſon, ſhut up within an ancient Roman brick wall, a yard ſquare within, a yard high on 3 ſides, and open on the 4th. But, in 1709, Sir Thomas Delves erected an arch over it, which is 12 feet long, and as many broad, ſet round with ſtone ſteps on the inſide. In the midſt of this dome the water ſprings up into a ſtone baſon two feet ſquare. St Peter's or Bingham well riſes about 20 yards S. E. of St Ann's. It is alſo called *Leigh's well*, from a memorable cure received from it by a gentleman of that name. It riſes out of a black limeſtone, in a very dry ground; and is not ſo warm as St Ann's well. The hot water reſembles that of Briſtol. It has a ſweet and pleaſant taſte. It contains the calcareous earth, together with a ſmall quantity of ſea ſalt, and an inconſiderable portion of a purging ſalt; but no iron can be diſcovered in it. This water taken inwardly is eſteemed good in the diabetes, bloody urine, bilious cholic, loſs of appetite, coldneſs of the ſtomach, inward bleedings, atrophy, contractions of the veſſels and limbs, eſpecially from age, cramps and convulſions; dry aſthma without fever, and in barrenneſs. Inwardly and outwardly, it is ſaid to be good in rheumatic and ſcorbutic complaints, the gout, inflammation of the liver and kidneys, conſumptions of the lungs, old ſtrains, hard callous tumors, withered and contracted limbs, the itch, ſcabs, nodes, chalky ſwellings, ring worms, and ſimilar complaints.—Beſides the hot water, there is alſo a cold chalybeate water, with a rough irony taſte: It reſembles the Tunbridge water in virtues. Mr Barclay ſays, in his *Complete Eng. Diſt.* the chief wonder of theſe waters is now loſt, this cold ſpring being now blended with the hot ones. For compoſing artificial Buxton water, or impregnating the original water with a greater quantity of its own or other gaſes, ſee WATERS, MEDICINAL.

BUXUS, the BOX-TREE: A genus of the tetrandria order, belonging to the monœcia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 38th order, Tricoccæ. The male calyx is tripbyllous; the germen an embryo, or imperfect rudiment. The female calx is tetraphyllous: there are 3 petals, and as many ſtyles: the capſule is three-beaked and trilocular, with 3 ſeeds. There are 3 ſpecies; viz.

1. BUXUS ANGUSTIFOLIA, the narrow-leaved box:

2. BUXUS ARBORESCENS, with oval leaves. Theſe two ſpecies grow in great plenty upon Box-hill near Dorking in Surry. Here were formerly large trees of that kind; but now they are few in number. There are 2 or 3 varieties of the 2d ſort which are propagated in gardens; one with yellow, and the other with white ſtriped leaves. Another hath the tips of the leaves only marked with yellow, and is called *tipped box*. Both theſe ſpecies may be raiſed from ſeeds, or propagated by cuttings, planted in Autumn in a ſhady border. The beſt ſeaſon for removing theſe trees is in October; though if care be uſed to take them up with a ball of earth, they may be tranſplanted almoſt at any time except the middle of ſummer. The arboreſcens, or large box-tree is proper to intermix in clumps of evergreens, &c. where it adds to the variety of ſuch plantations: they are a very great ornament to cold and barren ſoils where few other things will grow. Boxwood is extremely hard and ſmooth, and therefore well adapted to the uſe of the turner. Combs, mathematical inſtruments, knife-handles, and button moulds, are made of it. It may properly enough be ſubſtituted in default of ebony, the yellow alburnum of which it perfectly reſembles. In the *Ephemerides of the Curious* there is the following account of the efficacy of boxwood in making the hair grow. "A young woman of Gunberg in Lower Sileſia, having had a malignant dyſentery, which occaſioned the falling off of all her hair, was adviſed by a perſon, ſome time after her recovery, (as her hair was not likely to grow again of itſelf, her head being then as bare as the hand,) to waſh it all over with a decoction of boxwood; which ſhe readily did, without the addition of any other drug. Hair of a cheſnut colour grew on her head, as ſhe was told it would do; but having uſed no precaution to ſecure her neck and face from the lotion, they became covered with red hair to ſuch a degree, that ſhe ſeemed little different from an ape or a monkey." This decoction has been recommended by ſome as a powerful ſudorific, preferable even to guiacum; but the taſte readily diſcovers that it wants the qualities of that wood. Neither the wood nor the leaves of the box-tree at preſent are uſed for any other medicinal purpoſe than the diſtillation of an empyreumatic oil; and an oil of nearly the ſame quality is obtained from almoſt every other wood.

3. BUXUS SUFFRUTICOSA, dwarf or Dutch box, commonly uſed for bordering flower-beds. It is increaſed by parting the roots, or planting the ſlips; but as it makes a great increaſe of itſelf, and eaſily parts, it is hardly worth while to plant the ſlips that have no roots. For borders to flower plots, it far excels any other plant; being ſubject to no injuries from cold or heat. It is of long duration; is eaſily kept handſome; and, by the firmneſs of its rooting, keeps the mould in the borders from waſhing into the gravel walks more effectually than any plant whatever.

BUY, BUIS, or BUYS, a town of France, on the Oreze, in the department of Drome, 30 m. S. of Die. See BUIS, (N. 2.) Lon. 5. 20. E. Lat. 44. 25. N.

(1.) * *To* BUY. *v. a.* preter. I *bought*; I have *bought*. [*bicgean*, Sax.] 1. To purchaſe; to acquire by paying a price; to obtain for money, or ſome-

thing equivalent; to procure by ſale, not gift or theft.—They muſt *buy* up no corn growing within twelve miles of Geneva, that ſo the filling of their magazines may not prejudice there market. *Addiſon.* 2. To procure ſome advantage by ſomething that deſerves it, or at ſome price.—

I have *bought*
Golden opinions from all ſorts of people.
Shakeſpeare.

Pent to linger
But with a grain a day, I would not *buy*
Their mercy at the price of one fair word.
Shakeſpeare.

Pleaſure with praiſe, and danger they would *buy*,
And with a foe that would not only fly.
Denham.

3. To regulate by money; in this ſenſe it has particles annexed.—

You, and all the kings of chriſtendom,
Are led ſo groſsly by this meddling prieſt,
Dreading the curſe that money may *buy out*.
Shakeſpeare.

—What pitiful things are power, rhetorick, or riches, when they would terrify, diſſuade or *buy off* conſcience? *South.*

(2.) * *To* BUY. *v. n.* To treat about a purchaſe.—I will *buy* with you, ſell with you, talk with you, walk with you, and ſo following. *Shakeſp.*

* BUYER. *n. ſ.* [from *To buy.*] He that buys; a purchaſer.—When a piece of art is ſet before us, let the firſt caution be, not to aſk who made it, leſt the fame of the author do captivate the fancy of the *buyer*. *Wotton.*

(1.) BUYING, the act of making a purchaſe, or of acquiring the property of a thing for a certain price. Buying differs from borrowing or hiring, as in the former the property of the thing is alienated for perpetuity, which in the latter is not. By the civil law, perſons are allowed to buy hope, *ſpem precio emere*, that is, to purchaſe the event or expectation of any thing; *E. gr.* The fiſh or birds a perſon ſhall catch, or the money he ſhall win in gaming. There are different ſpecies of buying in uſe among traders: as, 1. on one's own account, 2. on commiſſion, 3. for ready money, 4. on credit, and 5. on delivery, all of which are intelligible by the moſt illiterate.

(2.) BUYING THE REFUSAL is giving money for the right or liberty of purchaſing a thing at a fixed price, in a certain time to come; chiefly uſed in dealing for ſhares in ſtock. This is alſo called by a cant name, *buying the bear.*

(3.) BUYING THE SMALL-POX is an appellation given to a method of procuring that diſeaſe by an operation ſimilar to INOCULATION; frequent in South Wales, where it has obtained time out of mind. It is performed either by rubbing ſome of the *pus* taken out of a puſtule of a variolous perſon on the ſkin, or by making a puncture in the ſkin with a pin dipped in ſuch pus.

BUYS. See BUIS, N. 1. and 2. and BUY.

(1.) BUZ, the ſon of Nahor by Milcah, progenitor of the BUZITES, an anceſtor of Elihu, the youngeſt and moſt judicious of Job's friends.

(2.) BUZ, in ichthyology, the name of a fiſh more commonly known by that of ALBULA, and caught in the German lakes.

BUZANCOIS, a ſmall town of France, in the department of Indre, and ci-devant province of Berry. Lon. 1. 29. E. Lat. 46. 38. N.

BUZANCY, a town of France, in the department of Ardennes. Lon. 5. 5. E. Lat. 49. 23. N.

BUZBACH, a town of Germany, in Wetteravia and the county of Holmes, on the confines of Hanau. Lon. 10. 51. E. Lat. 50. 22. N.

BUZET, a ſmall town of France, in the department of Upper Garonne, and ci-devant province of Languedoc, ſeated on the river Tarne. Lon. 1. 45. E. Lat. 43. 47. N.

BUZIDAN, in the materia medica of the ancients, a name given by Avicenna, and others, to a wood produced in Africa, which had the ſame virtues with the ben root.

(1.) BUZITES, a tribe of Arabs, the deſcendants of BUZ, who inhabited a diſtrict of Arabia Deſerta, and were at laſt enſlaved by Nebuchadnezzar.

(2.) BUZITES. See BUSITIS.

BUZO, in old records, the ſhaft of an arrow, before it is feathered.

* BUZZ. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A hum; a whiſper; a talk.—The hive of a city or kingdom is in the beſt condition when there is leaſt noiſe or *buzz* in it. *Bacon.*—Where I found the whole outward room in a *buzz* of politicks. *Addiſon.*

(1.) * *To* BUZZ. *v. a.* To whiſper; to ſpread ſecretly.—

Where doth the world thruſt forth a vanity,
That is not quickly *buzz'd* into his ears? *Shakeſp.*
I will *buzz* abroad ſuch prophecies,
That Edward ſhall be fearful of his life. *Shakeſp.*
Did you not hear
A *buzzing* of a ſeparation
Between the king and Catherine? *Shakeſp.*

—They might *buzz* and whiſper at one another, and, tacitly withdrawing from the preſence of the apoſtles, they then lift their voices, and noiſe it about the city. *Bentley.*

(2.) * *To* BUZZ. *v. n.* [*bizzen*, Teut. to grow. *Junius.*] 1. To hum; to make a noiſe like bees, flies, or waſps.—

And all the chamber filled was with flies,
Which *buzzed* about, and made ſuch ſound,
That they encumber'd all men's ears and eyes
Like many ſwarms of bees aſſembled round.
Spenſer.

There be more waſps, that *buzz* about his noſe,
Will make this ſting the ſooner. *Shak.*

For ſtill the flowers ready ſtand,
One *bizzes* round about,
One lights, one taſtes, gets in, gets out. *Suckling.*

What though no bees around your cradle flew,
Nor on your lips diſtill'd their golden dew;
Yet have we oft diſcover'd, in their ſtead,
A ſwarm of drones that *buzz'd* about your head. *Pope.*

—We join, like flies and waſps, in *buzzing* about wit. *Swift.* 2. To whiſper; to prate to.—

There is ſuch confuſion in my pow'rs,
As after ſome oration fairly ſpoke
By a beloved prince, there doth appear
Among the *buzzing* multitude. *Shak.*

3. To ſound heavy and low.—Herewith arose a *buzzing*

zing noiſe among them, as if it had been the ſtling ſound of the ſea afar off. *Hayward.*

(1.) * BUZZARD. *n. ſ.* [*buſard*, Fr.] 1. A degenerate or mean ſpecies of hawk.—

More pity that the eagle ſhould be mawl'd,
While kites and *buzzards* prey at liberty. *Shakeſ.*

The noble *buzzard* ever pleas'd me beſt;
Of ſmall renown, 'tis true: for, not to lie,
We call him but a hawk by courteſy. *Dryden.*

A blockhead; a dunce.—Thoſe blind *buzzards*, who, in late years, of wilful maliciouſneſs, uld neither learn themſelves, nor could teach ers any thing at all. *Aſcham.*

(2.) BUZZARD, in ornithology, the name of ſeral ſpecies of the hawk kind. See FALCO.

BUZZARD DIKES, a place in Perthſhire, about r 8 m. S. E. of Dunkeld, where the ancient kdonians entrenched themſelves during the Ro- n invaſion under Agricola. "The buzzard e or vallum, (ſays Mr Ritchie,) is ſtill in many ces 8 or 10 feet high." *Stat. Acc. Vol.* IX. *p.* 262.

* BUZZER. *n. ſ.* [from *buzz.*] A ſecret uſperer.—

Her brother is in ſecret come from France,
And wants not *buzzers* to infeſt his ear
With petulant ſpeeches of his father's death.
Shakeſpeare.

(1.) * BY. *prep.* [*bi*, *big*, Saxon.] 1. It notes agent.—The Moor is with child *by* you, Launlot. *Shakeſ.*—The grammar of a language is metimes to be carefully ſtudied *by* a gown-man. *cie.*—

Death's what the guilty fear, the pious crave,
Sought *by* the wretch, and vanquiſhed *by* the brave. *Garth.*

It notes the inſtrument, and is commonly uſed ter a verb neuter, where *with* would be put af- r an active; as, he killed her *with* a ſword; ſhe ed *by* a ſword.—

But *by* Pelides' arms when Hector fell,
He choſe Æneas, and he choſe as well. *Dryden.*

It notes the cauſe of any effect.—

I view, *by* no preſumption led,
Your revels of the night. *Parnel.*

By woe the ſoul to daring action ſteals,
By woe in plaintleſs patience it excels. *Savage.*

It notes the means by which any thing is perrmed, or obtained.—You muſt think, if we give u any thing, we hope to gain *by* you. *Shakeſ.*—

Happier I had it ſuffic'd him to have known
Good *by* itſelf, and evil not at all. *Par. Loſt.*

-The heart knows that *by* itſelf, which nothing the world beſides can give it any knowledge of. *ath.*—We obtain the knowledge of a multitude propoſitions *by* ſenſation and reflection. *Watt's gick.* 5. It ſhews the manner of an action.—

I have no patience; ſhe conſumes the time
In idle talk, and own her falſe belief:
Seize her *by* force, and bear her hence unheard.
Dryden.

-This ſight had more weight with him, as *by* ood luck not above two of that venerable body iere fallen aſleep. *Addiſon.*—

By chance, within a neighbouring brook,
He ſaw his branching horns, and alter'd look.
Addiſon.

6. It has a ſignification, noting the method in which any ſucceſſive action is performed with regard to time or quantity.—The beſt for you, is to re-examine the cauſe, and to try it even point *by* point, argument *by* argument, with all the exactneſs you can. *Hooker.*—We are not to ſtay all together, but to come by him where he ſtands, *by* ones, *by* twos, and *by* threes. *Shakeſpeare.*—He calleth them forth *by* one, and *by* one, by the name, as he pleaſeth, though ſeldom the order be inverted. *Bacon.*—The captains were obliged to break that piece of ordnance, and ſo *by* pieces to carry it away, that the enemy ſhould not get ſo great a ſpoil. *Knolles.*—Common prudence would direct me to take them all out, and examine them one *by* one. *Boyle.*—Others will ſoon take pattern and encouragement by your building; and ſo houſe *by* houſe, ſtreet *by* ſtreet, there will at laſt be finiſhed a magnificent city. *Spratt.*—

Explor'd her, limb *by* limb, and fear'd to find
So rude a gripe had left a vivid mark behind.
Dryden.

Thus year *by* year they paſs, and day *by* day,
Till once 'twas on the morn of chearful May,
The young Æmilia—— *Dryden.*

I'll gaze for ever on thy godlike father,
Tranſplanting one *by* one into my life,
His bright perfections, till I ſhine like him.
Addiſon.

—Let the blows be *by* pauſes laid on. *Locke.* 7. It notes the quantity had at one time.—Bullion will ſell *by* the ounce for 6 ſh. and 5 d. unclipped money. *Locke.*—What we take daily *by* pounds, is at leaſt of as much importance as what we take ſeldom, and only *by* grains and ſpoonfuls. *Arbuthnot.*—

The North, *by* myriads, pours her mighty ſons;
Great nurſe of Goths, of Alans, and of Huns.
Pope.

8. At, or in; noting place: it is now perhaps only uſed before the words *ſea*, or *water*, and *land*. This ſeems a remnant of a meaning now little known. *By* once † expreſſed ſituation; as, *by weſt*, weſtward.—We ſee the great effects of battles *by* ſea; the battle of Actium decided the empire of the world. *Bacon.*—

Arms, and the man, I ſing, who, fore'd by fate,
Expell'd, and exil'd, left the Trojan ſhore;
Long labours both *by* ſea and land he bore. *Dryd.*

I would have fought *by* land, where I was ſtronger:
You hinder'd it; yet, when I fought at ſea,
Forſook me fighting. *Dryden.*

By land, *by* water, they renew their charge. *Pope.*

9. According to; noting permiſſion.—It is lawful, both *by* the laws of nature and nations, and *by* the law divine, which is the perfection of the other two. *Bacon's Holy War.* 10. According to; noting proof.—The preſent, or like, ſyſtem of the world cannot poſſibly have been eternal, *by* the firſt propoſition; and, without God, it could not naturally, nor fortuitouſly, emerge out of chaos, *by* the third propoſition. *Bentley.*—The faculty, or deſire, being infinite, *by* the preceding propoſition, may contain or receive both theſe. *Cheyne.*

11.

† *We know not why Dr Johnſon has inſerted the word* once *here.* BY *certainly* ſtill *expreſſes* ſituation, *and in this ſenſe is applied to diſtinguiſh various points in the compaſs; as* W. by N.—N. E. by E. &c.

11. After; according to; noting imitation or conformity.—The goſpel gives us ſuch laws, as every man, that underſtands himſelf, would chuſe to live *by*. *Tillotſon.*—In the diviſions I have made, I have endeavoured, the beſt I could, to govern myſelf *by* the diverſity of matter. *Locke.*—This ſhip, by good luck, fell into their hands at laſt, and ſerved as a model to build others *by*. *Arbuthnot.* 12. From; noting ground of judgment, or compariſon.—

Thus, *by* the muſick, we may know,
When noble wits a hunting go,
Through groves that on Parnaſſus grow. *Waller.*

—*By* what he has done, before the war in which he was engaged, we may expect what he will do after a peace. *Dryden.*—

The ſon of Hercules he juſtly ſeems,
By his broad ſhoulders and gigantick limbs. *Dryd.*
Who's that ſtranger? *By* his warlike port,
His fierce demeanour, and erected look,
He's of no vulgar note. *Dryden.*
Judge the event
By what has paſs'd. *Dryden.*

—The puniſhment is not to be meaſured *by* the greatneſs or ſmallneſs of the matter, but *by* the the oppoſition it carries and ſtands in, to that reſpect and ſubmiſſion that is due to the father. *Locke.*—*By* your deſcription of the town, I imagine it to lie under ſome great enchantment. *Pope.*—*By* what I have always heard and read, I take the ſtrength of a nation—. *Swift.* 13. It notes the ſum of the difference between two things compared.—

Meantime ſhe ſtands provided of a Laius,
More young and vigorous too *by* twenty ſprings. *Dryden.*
Her brother Rivers,
Ere this, lies ſhorter *by* the head at Pomfret. *Rowe.*

—By giving the denomination to leſs quantities of ſilver *by* one 20th, you take from their due. *Locke.* 14. It notes co-operation.—*By* her he had two children at one birth. *Shakeſpeare.* 15. For; noting continuance of time. This ſenſe is not now in uſe.—Ferdinand and Iſabella recovered the kingdom of Granada from the Moors; having been in poſſeſſion thereof *by* the ſpace of 700 years. *Bacon.* 16. As ſoon as; not later than; noting time.—

By this, the ſons of Conſtantine which fled,
Ambriſe and Uther, did ripe years attain. *Fairy Queen.*
Hector, *by* the fifth hour of the ſun,
Will, with a trumpet, 'twixt our tents and Troy,
To-morrow morning call ſome knight to arms. *Shakeſpeare.*
He err'd not; for, *by* this, the heav'nly bands
Down from a ſky of jaſper lighted now
In paradiſe. *Milton.*
Theſe have their courſe to finiſh round the earth
By morrow ev'ning. *Milton's Paradiſe Loſt.*
The angelick guards aſcending, mute and ſad
For man: for of his ſtate *by* this they knew. *Paradiſe Loſt.*

—*By* that time a ſiege is carried on two or three days, I am altogether loſt and bewildered in it. *Addiſon.*—*By* this time, the very foundation was removed. *Swift.*—*By* the beginning of the fourth century from the building of Rome, the tribunes proceed ſo far, as to accuſe and fine the conſuls. *Swift.* 17. Beſide; noting paſſage.—Many beautiful places ſtanding along the ſea-ſhore, make the town appear longer than it is, to thoſe that ſail *by* it. *Addiſon.* 18. Beſide; near to; in preſence: noting proximity of place.—So thou may'ſt ſay, the king lies *by* a beggar, if a beggar dwell near him; or the church ſtands *by* thy tabour, if thy tabour ſtand *by* the church. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Here he comes himſelf;
If he be worth any man's good voice,
That good man ſit down *by* him. *Ben Jonſon.*
A ſpacious plain, whereon
Were tents of various hue: *by* ſome, were herds
Of cattle grazing. *Milton.*
Stay *by* me; thou art reſolute and faithful;
I have employment worthy of thy arm. *Dryden.*

19. Before *himſelf*, *herſelf*, or *themſelves*, it notes the abſence of all others.—Sitting in ſome place, *by himſelf*, let him tranſlate into Engliſh his former leſſon. *Aſcham.*—Soliman reſolved to aſſault the breach, after he had, *by himſelf*, in a melancholy mood, walked up and down in his tent. *Knolles's Hiſtory of the Turks.*—I know not whether he will annex his diſcourſe to his appendix, or publiſh it *by itſelf*, or at all. *Boyle.*—He will imagine, that the king, and his miniſters, ſat down and made them *by themſelves*, and then ſent them to their allies, to ſign. *Swift.*—

More pleas'd to keep it, till their friends could come,
Then eat the ſweeteſt *by themſelves* at home. *Pope.*

20. At hand.—He kept then ſome of the ſpirit for him, to verify what he believes. *Boyle.*—The merchant is not forced to keep ſo much money by him, as in other places, where they have not ſuch a ſupply. *Locke.* 21. It is the ſolemn form of ſwearing.—

His godhead I invoke, *by* him I ſwear. *Dryden.*

22. It is uſed in forms of adjuring, or obteſting.—

Which, O! avert *by* yon etherial light,
Which I have loſt for this eternal night;
Or if, by dearer ties, you may be won,
By your dead ſire, and *by* your living ſon. *Dryden.*
Now *by* your joys on earth, your hopes in heav'n,
O ſpare this great, this good, this aged king! *Dryden.*
O cruel youth!
By all the pain that wrings my tortur'd ſoul!
By all the dear deceitful hopes you gave me,
O, ceaſe! at leaſt, once more delude my ſorrows. *Smith.*

23. It ſignifies ſpecification and particularity.—

Upbraiding heav'n, from whence this line came,
And cruel calls the gods, and cruel thee, by name. *Dryden.*

24. By proxy of; noting ſubſtitution.—The gods were ſaid to feaſt with the Ethiopians; that is, they were preſent with them *by* their ſtatues. *Broome.* 25. In the ſame direction with.—Trees are alſo ſtriated, or furrowed, *by* the length, and the ſides curiouſly punched, or pricked. *Grew.*

(U)

(II.) * BY. *adv.* 1. Near; at a ſmall diſtance.—
And, in it lies, the god of ſleep;
And, ſnorting *by*,
We may deſcry
The monſters of the deep. *Dryden.*

Beſide; paſſing.—
I did hear
The galloping of horſe. Who was't came *by*? *Shakeſpeare.*

In preſence.—The ſame words in my lady Phicela's mouth, as from one woman to another, as there was no other body *by*, might have had better grace. *Sidney.*—
I'll not be *by*, the while; my liege, farewel:
What will become hereof, there's none can tell. *Shakeſpeare.*

There while I ſing, if gentle youth be *by*,
That tunes my lute, and winds the ſtrings ſo high. *Waller.*

Priſ'ners and witneſſes were waiting *by*;
Theſe had been taught to ſwear, and thoſe to die. *Roſcommon.*

You have put a principle into him, which will ſluence his actions, when you are not *by*. *Locke.*

(1.) BY AND ATTOUR, in Scots law, beſides; er and above. It is chiefly uſed in indentures, ſpecting penalties to be incurred for failure of ity, "*by and attour* performance."

(2.) * BY AND BY. In a ſhort time.—He over- ok Amphialus, who had been ſtaid here, and *and by* called him to fight him. *Sidney.*—
The noble knight alighted *by and by*,
From lofty ſteed, and bad the lady ſtay,
To ſee what end of fight ſhould him befall that day. *Spenſer.*

In the temple, *by and by*, with us,
Theſe couples ſhall eternally be knit. *Shakeſp.*

O how this ſpring of love reſembleth
The uncertain glory of an April day;
Which now ſhews all the beauty of the ſun,
And *by and by* a cloud takes all away. *Shakeſpeare.*

Now a ſenſible man, *by and by* a fool, and preſently a beaſt. *Shakeſpeare's Othello.*

(III.) * BY. *n. ſ.* † [from the prepoſition.] Some- ng not the direct and immediate object of re- rd.—In this inſtance, there is, upon the *by*, to noted, the percolation of the verjuice through : wood. *Bacon.*—This wolf was forced to make ld, ever and anon, with a ſheep in private, by : *by*. *L'Eſtrange.*—Hence we may underſtand, add that upon the *by*, that it is not neceſſary. *yle.*—
So, while my lov'd revenge is full and high,
I'll give you back your kingdom by the *by*. *Dryden.*

(IV.) * BY, in compoſition, implies ſomething t of the direct way; and, conſequently, ſome ſcurity, as a *by-road*; ſomething irregular, as a *end*; or ſomething collateral, as a *by-concernment*; or private, as a *by-law*‡. This compoſition is uſed at pleaſure, and will be underſtood by the examples following:

(1.) * BY-COFFEEHOUSE. *n. ſ.* A coffeehouſe in an obſcure place.—I afterwards entered a *by-coffeehouſe*, that ſtood at the upper end of a narrow lane, where I met with a non-juror. *Addiſ.*

(2.) * BY-CONCERNMENT. *n. ſ.* An affair which is not the main buſineſs.—Our plays, beſides the main deſign, have under-plots, or *by-concernments*, or leſs conſiderable perſons and intrigues, which are carried on with the motion of the main plot. *Dryden.*

(3.) * BY-DEPENDENCE. *n. ſ.* An appendage; ſomething accidentally depending on another.—
Theſe,
And your three motives to the battle, with
I know not how much more, ſhould be demanded;
And all the other *by-dependencies*,
From chance to chance. *Shakeſpeare.*

(4.) * BY-DESIGN. *n. ſ.* An incidental purpoſe.—
And if ſhe miſs the mouſe trap lines,
They'll ſerve for other *by-deſigns*,
And make an artiſt underſtand,
To copy out her ſeal or hand;
Or find void places in the paper,
To ſteal in ſomething to entrap her. *Hudibras.*

(5.) * BY-END. *n. ſ.* Private intereſt; ſecret advantage.—All people that worſhip for fear, profit, or ſome other *by-end*, fall within the intendment of this fable. *L'Eſtrange.*

(6.) * BY-GONE. *adj.* [a Scotch word.] Paſt.—
Tell him, you're ſure
All in Bohemia's well: this ſatisfaction
The *by-gone* day proclaim'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

—As we have a conceit of motion coming, as well as *by-gone*; ſo have we of time, which dependeth thereupon. *Grew.*

(7.) * BY-INTEREST. *n. ſ.* Intereſt diſtinct from that of the public.—Various factions and parties, all aiming at *by-intereſt*, without any ſincere regard to the publick good. *Atterbury.*

(8.) * BY-LAW. *n. ſ.* *By-laws* are orders made in court-leets, or court barons, by common aſſent, for the good of thoſe that make them, farther than the publick law binds. *Cowel.*—There was alſo a law, to reſtrain the *by-laws* and ordinances of corporations. *Bacon.*—In the beginning of this record is inſerted the law or inſtitution; to which are added two *by-laws*, as a comment upon the general law. *Addiſon.*

(9.) BY-LAWS are laws made *obiter*, or by the by; in particular caſes whereunto the public law doth not extend. Guilds and fraternities of trades by letters patent of incorporation, may likewiſe make by-laws for the better regulation of trade among themſelves or others. In Scotland theſe laws are called laws of BYRLAW, or BURLAW; which

† *Dr* JOHNSON *is wrong in ſtating* BY *here, as a* ſubſtantive noun. *In none of his authorities above ted, and indeed in no caſe whatever, that we can recollect, does* BY *ever expreſs any* name *or* ſubnce, *real or imaginary. The expreſſions* "BY THE BY" *and* "UPON THE BY" *are evidently* adver- l, *like* BY AND BY; *which he has very properly made a diſtinct article. In Latin and Greek they are reſſed in one word*—Obiter, παρεργως.

‡ *Dr* ASH *ranks* BY, *in theſe ſenſes, as an* adjective, *which it certainly muſt be conſidered in all ſuch es, where the* primitives *are diſjoined by throwing out the* hyphen. *But moſt of the compounds, enuerated by Dr* JOHNSON *in the ſubſequent liſt, are ſufficiently eſtabliſhed by cuſtom.*

which are made by neighbours elected by common'conſent in the byrlaw courts, wherein knowledge is taken of complaints between neighbour and neighbour; which men ſo choſen are judges and arbitrators, and ſtyled BYRLAW MEN. And byrlaws, according to Skene, are *leges ruſticorum*, laws made by huſbandmen, or townſhips, concerning neighbourhood among them. All by-laws are to be reaſonable, and for the common benefit, not private advantage of particular perſons, and muſt be agreeable to the public laws in being.

(10.) * BY-MATTER. *n. ſ.* Something incidental.—I knew one, that when he wrote a letter, he would put that which was moſt material into the poſtſcript, as if it had been a *by-matter*. *Bacon.*

(11.) * BY-NAME. *n. ſ.* A nick-name; name of reproach, or accidental appellation.—Robert, eldeſt ſon to the Conqueror, uſed ſhort hoſe, and thereupon was *by-named* Court-hoſe, and ſhewed firſt the uſe of them to the Engliſh. *Camden.*

(12.) * BY-PAST. *adj.* Paſt; a term of the Scotch dialect.—Wars, peſtilences, and diſeaſes, have not been fewer for theſe 300 years *by-paſt*, than ever they had been ſince we have had records.

(13.) * BY-PATH. *n. ſ.* A private or obſcure path.—

Heav'n knows, my ſon,
By what *by-paths* and indirect crook'd ways,
I got this crown. *Shakeſpeare.*

(14.) * BY-RESPECT. *n. ſ.* Private end or view.—It may be that ſome, upon *by-reſpects*, find ſomewhat friendly uſage in uſance, at ſome of their hands. *Carew.*—The archbiſhops and biſhops, next under the king, have the government of the church: be not you the mean to prefer any to thoſe places, for any *by-reſpects*, but only for their learning, gravity, and worth. *Bacon.*—Auguſtus, who was not altogether ſo good as he was wiſe, had ſome *by-reſpects* in the enacting of this law; for to do any thing for nothing, was not his maxim. *Dryden.*

(15.) * BY-ROAD. *n. ſ.* An obſcure unfrequented path.—

Through ſlipp'ry *by-roads*, dark and deep,
They often climb, and often creep. *Swift.*

(16.) * BY-ROOM. *n. ſ.* A private room within a another.—I pr'ythee, do thou ſtand in ſome *by-room*, while I queſtion my puny drawer to what end he gave the ſugar. *Shakeſpeare.*

(17.) * BY-SPEECH. *n. ſ.* An incidental or caſual ſpeech, not directly relating to the point.—When they come to alledge what word and what law they meant, their common ordinary practice is to quote *by-ſpeeches*, in ſome hiſtorical narration or other, and to uſe them as if they were written in moſt exact form of law. *Hooker.*

(18.) * BY-STANDER. *n. ſ.* A looker on; one unconcerned.—She broke her feathers, and, falling to the ground, was taken up by the *by-ſtanders*. *L'Eſtrange.*—The *by-ſtanders* aſked him, why he ran away, his bread being weight? *Locke.*

(19.) * BY-STREET. *n. ſ.* An obſcure ſtreet.—

The broker here his ſpacious beaver wears
Upon his brow ſit jealouſies and cares;
Bent on ſome mortgage, to avoid reproach,
He ſeeks *by-ſtreets*, and ſaves the expenſive coach.

(20.) * BY-VIEW. *n. ſ.* Private ſelf-intereſted purpoſe.—No *by-views* of his own ſhall miſlead him. *Atterbury.*

(21.) * BY-WALK. *n. ſ.* A private walk; not the main road.—He moves afterwards in *by-walks*, or under-plots, as diverſions to the main deſign, leſt it ſhould grow tedious; though they are not naturally joined. *Dryden.*—The chief avenue ought to be the moſt ample and noble; but there ſhould be *by-walks*, to retire into ſometimes, for eaſe and refreſhment. *Broome.*

(22.) * BY-WAY. *n. ſ.* A private and obſcure way.—Night ſtealths are commonly driven in *by-ways*, and by blind fords, unuſed of any but ſuch like. *Spenſer on Ireland.*—

Other *by-ways* he himſelf betook,
Where never foot of living weight did tread.

Wholly abſtain, or wed: thy beauteous Lord
Allows thee choice of paths; take no *by-ways*,
But gladly welcome what he doth afford;
Not grudging that thy luſt hath bounds and ſtays.

—A ſervant, or a favourite, if he be in want, and no other apparent cauſe of eſteem, is commonly thought but a *by-way* to cloſe corruption. *Bacon.*—This is wonderfully diverting to the mob ſtanding, thus to receive a precept, as it were through a *by-way*, and to apprehend an idea that draws a whole train after it. *Addiſon.*

(23.) * BY-WEST. *n. ſ.* † Weſtward; to the weſt of.—Whereupon grew that by-word, uſed by the Iriſh, that they dwelt *by-weſt* the bounds which dwelt beyond the river of the Barrow. *Davies on Ireland.*

(24.) * BY-WORD. *n. ſ.* A ſaying; a proverb.—

Baſhful Henry be depoſed; whoſe cowardice
Hath made us *by-words* to our enemies. *Shakeſpeare.*

—I knew a wife man, that had it for a *by-word*, when he ſaw men haſten to a concluſion, Stay a little, that we may make an end the ſooner. *Bacon.*—We are become a *by-word* among the nations for our ridiculous feuds and animoſities. *Addiſon.*—It will be his lot often, to look ſingular in looſe and licentious times, and to become a *by-word* and a reproach, among the men of wit and pleaſure. *Atterbury.*

* BYASS. *n. ſ.* See BIAS. Every inordinate luſt is a falſe *byaſs* upon men's underſtandings, which naturally draws towards atheiſm. *Tillotſon.*

BYBLIS, in fabulous hiſtory, the daughter of Miletus, who falling in love with her brother CAUNUS, killed herſelf, and was metamorphoſed into a fountain.

BYBLUS, in ancient geography, a town of Phœnicia, ſituated between Berytus and Botrys;

† *Dr* JOHNSON *is miſtaken in ſtating* BY-WEST *as a ſubſtantive noun. It neither expreſſes the name nor the ſubſtance of any thing. In fact, it is not a* compound, *but two diſtinct words; and ought to have had no place in this liſt of the compounds of* BY; *eſpecially as he had previouſly explained them above, in I. def. 8. It does not come under any one of his introductory definitions, in § IV.; being neither expreſſive of "obſcurity," nor of any thing "irregular, collateral, or private;" but merely pointing out the direction, or to be weſtward.*

t was the royal reſidence of Cinyras, and ſacred o Adonis. Pompey delivered it from a tyrant, whom he cauſed to be beheaded. It ſtood near he ſea, on an eminence, and near it ran the Adoiis into the Mediterranean. It is now in ruins.

BYBURY, a town N. W. of Fairford, Glouceſterſhire.

BYCHOW, a ſmall town of Poland, in Lithuaia, ſituated on the river Dnieper. Lon. 30. 2. . Lat. 53. 57. N.

To BYDDE, *v. a. obſ.* To publiſh. *Chauc.*

* BYE, or Bee, come immediately from the axon, *bee*, *being*, *i. e.* a dwelling.

BYEBE, *n. ſ. obſ.* A dwelling. *Gibſon.*

BYER, *n. ſ. obſ.* A cow-houſe. *Aſh.*

BYERLEY, North, } Two villages in York-
Byerley, South, } ſhire, near Bradford.

BYFIELD, in Northamptonſhire, between Banury and Daventry.

BYFLEET, in Surry, near Cobham.

BYFORD, two villages; 1. in Herefordſhire, ear Bredwardin: 2. in Holderneſs, Yorkſhire.

BYFORNE, *prep. obſ.* Before. *Chauc.*

BYGHOF, or Bynchow, a town of Ruſſian ithuania, ſeated on the Dnieper, in the palatiate of Mieciſlaw, 186 m. S. of Wilna. Lon. 30. . E. Lat. 53. 10. N.

BYGRAVE-HALL, N. W. of Baldock, Hertrd.

To BYHETE, *v. a. obſ.* To promiſe. *Chauc.*

BYKER, *n. ſ. obſ.* A fray; a quarrel.

BYKESHORE, a village 1 m. from Newcaſtle, pon Tyne.

BYKEWARE, near Hawkſbury, Glouceſterſh.

BYLAND, in Yorkſhire, near Thirſk.

BY-LAW. See By, No. IV. § 8, 9.

To BYLEVE, *v. n. obſ.* To abide; to tarry. *Chauc.*

BYLEY, a village in Cheſhire, N. E. of Midwich.

BYNALL, 3 m. S. E. of Wooton-Baſſet.

BYNAMY, near Beeds-Haven, Cornwall.

BYNCHOW. See Bynhof.

To BYNEMME, *v. n. obſ.* To bereave. *Ch.*

BYNEMPT. *adj. obſ.* Named. *Spenſer.*

(1.) BYNG, George, lord viſcount Torrington, e ſon of John Byng, Eſq; was born in 1663. t the age of 15, he went volunteer to ſea with e king's warrant. His early engagement in this ort of life gave him little opportunity of acuiring learning, but by his abilities and activity a naval commander he furniſhed abundant matr for the pens of others. After being ſeveral ns advanced, he was, in 1702, raiſed to the ommand of the Naſſau, a third rate, and was at e taking and burning of the French fleet at Vi; and in 1703, he was made rear-admiral of e red. In 1704, he ſerved in the grand fleet nt to the Mediterranean under Sir Cloudeſly hovel; and he commanded the ſquadron that ttacked, cannonaded, and reduced Gibraltar. le was in the battle of Malaga, and was knighted r his gallant behaviour in that action by queen nne. In 1705, within two months, he took 12 f the enemy's largeſt privateers, with the Thes, a French man of war of 44 guns; and alſo ſeeral merchant ſhips, moſt of them richly laden. he number of men taken on board was 2070, and of guns 334. In 1718, he was made admiral and commander in chief of the fleet; and was ſent with a ſquadron into the Mediterranean for the protection of Italy, againſt the invaſion of the Spaniards; who had ſurprized Sardinia, and landed an army in Sicily. In this expedition he diſpatched captain Walton in the Canterbury, with 5 more ſhips in purſuit of ſix Spaniſh men of war, with galleys, fire-ſhips, bomb-veſſels, and ſtore-ſhips, who ſeparated from the main fleet, and ſtood in for the Sicilian ſhore. The captain's laconic epiſtle on this occaſion is worthy of record; which ſhowed that fighting was his talent as well as his Admiral's, and not writing. "Sir, We have taken and deſtroyed all the Spaniſh ſhips and veſſels which were upon the coaſt as per margin. Canterbury, off Syracuſe, I am, &c. G. Walton, Auguſt 16th, 1718." From the account referred to, it appeared that he had taken 4 Spaniſh men of war, with a bomb-veſſel and a ſhip laden with arms; and burned 4 with a fire-ſhip and bomb-veſſel. The king made the admiral an handſome preſent, and ſent him plenipotentiary powers to negociate with the princes and ſtates of Italy as there ſhould be occaſion. He procured the emperor's troops free acceſs into the fortreſſes that ſtill held out in Sicily; ſailed afterwards to Malta, and brought out the Sicilian galleys, and a ſhip belonging to the Turky company. Soon after he received a gracious letter from the emperor Charles VI. written with his own hand, accompanied with his picture, ſet round with very large diamonds, as a mark of the grateful ſenſe he had of his ſervices. It was entirely owing to his advice and aſſiſtance, that the Germans retook the city of Meſſina in 1719, and deſtroyed the ſhips that lay in the baſon; which completed the ruin of the naval power of Spain. The Spaniards being much diſtreſſed, offered to quit Sicily; but the admiral declared, that the troops ſhould never be ſuffered to quit the iſland till the king of Spain had acceded to the quadruple alliance. And to his conduct it was entirely owing that Sicily was ſubdued, and that monarch forced to accept the terms, preſcribed him by the quadruple alliance. After performing ſo many ſignal ſervices, the king received him with the moſt gracious expreſſions of favour and ſatisfaction; made him rear-admiral of England and treaſurer of the navy, one of his moſt honourable privy council, baron Byng of Southill in the county of Bedford, viſcount Torrington, in Devonſhire, and one of the knights companions of the Bath. In 1727, Geo. II. on his acceſſion to the crown, placed him at the head of his naval affairs, as firſt lord of the Admiralty; in which high ſtation he died Jan. 15, 1733, in the 70th year of his age, and was buried at Southill in Bedfordſhire.

(2.) Byng, George, Eſq; the unfortunate ſon of the former, was bred to ſea, and roſe to the rank of admiral of the blue. He gave many proofs of courage; but was at laſt ſhot, upon a dubious ſentence for neglect of duty, in 1757. See England, History of.

BYNITH-WOOD, in the county of Cornwall, between Leſkaid and Launceſton.

To BYNOME, *v. a. obſ.* To take away. *Ch.*

BYNTON, a town near Bitford, Warwickſh.

BYNWESTON, a village in Shropshire, near Montgomeryshire.

To BYNYM, *v. a. obſ.* To bereave. *Chaucer.*

BY-PAST, } BY-ROAD, and the other com-
BY-PATH, } pounds of BY. See BY, § IV.

BYRAFT, *part. obſ.*

(1.) BYRAM, a town in Lancaſhire, between Newton-Chapel and Leigh.

(2.) BYRAM, a Turkiſh feaſt. See BAIRAM.

BYRAMLIC, a preſent given at the byram.

BYRCH MAGNA, } two villages in Herefordſh.
BYRCH PARVA, } S. W. of Aconbury.

BYRD, William. See BIRD, N° 1.

BYREBURN, a rivulet in Dumfries-ſhire.

BYREBURN-FOOT, a place in Dumfries-ſhire, where the D. of Buccleugh has a colliery; which is wrought by a water engine of a new conſtruction; invented by Mr Keir of Milholm. It is moved by a large ſquare bucket, ſuſpended from a lever, with a valve at the bottom, which by a peculiar machinery, ſhuts and opens at the inſtant the bucket fills and empties itſelf. The other end of the lever being fixed to the pump, the pumping is conſtantly carried on, by the continued action of the bucket, aſcending and deſcending, filling and emptying.

BYRGISHERAD. See BIRSAY, N° 2.

BYRLAW, or BURLAW LAWS in Scotland. See BY-LAWS, under BY, N° IV. § 9.

(1.) BYROM, a village in Yorkſhire, near Ferrybridge.

(2.) BYROM, John, an ingenious poet of Manchester, born in 1691. His firſt poetical eſſay appeared in the Spectator, vol. 8, N° 603, beginning,

"My time, O ye Muſes, was happily ſpent."

He was admitted a member of the Royal Society in 1724; and having originally entertained thoughts of practiſing phyſic, to which the title of *doctor* is incident, that was the appellation by which he was always known: but reducing himſelf to narrow circumſtances by a precipitate marriage, he ſupported his family by teaching a new method of writing ſhort-hand, of his own invention; until an eſtate devolved to him by the death of an elder brother. He was a man of lively wit, of which he gave many humorous ſpecimens. He died in 1763; and a collection of his Miſcellaneous Poems was printed at Manchester, in 2 vols 8vo. 1773.

BYRON'S ISLAND, a low, woody, and very populous iſland in the S. Pacific Ocean. The people are ſtrong and active, and their countenances expreſſive of cheerfulneſs and intrepidity. Lon. 173. 40. E. Lat. 1. 18. S.

BYRRHUS, in entomology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of coleoptera. The feelers are elevated, pretty ſtiff, and a little compreſſed. There are 5 ſpecies, which are found on particular plants, and principally diſtinguiſhed from one another by the colour and figure of the elytra, or cruſtaceous wing-caſes. See *Plate* XLI. *fig.* 8.

1. BYRRHUS SCROPHULARIÆ, which is very common upon flowers, is very hard to deſcribe properly. Its body is almoſt oval; the ground colour black; but the under part of the abdomen appears almoſt entirely white, owing to an infinite number of minute ſcales, of that colour, with which it is covered. The head is ſmall, and often drawn back under the thorax, which is broad, covered with white and reddiſh ſcales, through which the black ground in ſome places appears. The elytra are bent in, and even incloſe the ſides and under part of the body. They are black, with white and red ſcales, which form a kind of embroidered work. There is obſervable a white tranſverſal ſtripe, ſomewhat broad on the top of the elytra; at the bottom of them, there are two white diſtinct ſpots near the future, one upon each elytrum. The ruddy colour occupies chiefly the lower end of the future of the elytra, and the upper part of them, near their connection with the thorax. This ſpecies is common in gardens. If rubbed, the ſmall coloured ſcale comes off, and the inſect appears almoſt entirely black.

2. BYRRHUS VERBASCI is much ſmaller than the preceding; (N° 1.) its figure and form are however the ſame; only that the ſcales which cover the elytra are more numerous and cloſer ſet, ſo that the black colour, which conſtitutes the ground of the elytra, is no where to be ſeen. The ſcales form 2 ſtripes, white, tranſverſal, and undulated, between which intervene ſtripes of a reddiſh brown ſhaped in the ſame manner. They are ſometimes ſtripped of part of their ſcales, which renders them ſo different as not to be known for the ſame creatures. The larvæ of this inſect, as well as thoſe of the preceding ſpecies, are extremely voracious, and greatly reſemble thoſe of the dermeſtæ. Thoſe who collect ſubjects of natural hiſtory, are greatly peſtered, and but too well acquainted with them.

BYRRUS. See BIRRUS.

BYRSA, in ancient geography, a citadel of Carthage.

BYRSEUS, in fabulous hiſtory, a king of Thrace, who having entertained Jupiter, Mercury, and Neptune, with great hoſpitality, was offered, as a reward for his virtue, whatever he ſhould aſk. Having no children, he aſked a ſon whom theſe deities accordingly co-operated to produce, in a manner not more miraculous than ridiculous, by jointly making their water on a bull's hide; which, being buried in the earth, in due time produced the boy ORION.

BYRSODEPSICON, (from βυρσα, ſkin, and δεψω, I dreſs,) an epithet given to ſumach, denoting its uſe in dyeing of leather. See SUMACH.

BYSAS, a Thracian monarch, who, according to Diodorus Siculus, founded Byzantium. Eustathius makes him a native of Megara, who removed in Thrace and ſettled there with a colony of Megarenſes, a ſhort time before the expedition of the Argonauts.

BYSSEGID, *part. obſ.* Beſieged. *Chaucer.*

BYSSINE, *adj.* (from *byſſus*,) Silken. *Ainſ.*

BYSSUM, or, } a fine threadly matter produced
BYSSUS, } in India, Egypt, and about Tarſus in Achaia, of which the richeſt apparel was anciently made, eſpecially that worn by the prieſts both Jewiſh and Egyptian. Some interpreters render the Greek βυσσος, which occurs both in the Old and New Teſtament, by *fine linen*. But other verſions, as Calvin's and the Spaniſh printed at Venice in 1556, explain the word by *ſilk*; and yet byſſus muſt have been different from our Silk, as appears from many ancient writers, particularly Julius Pollux.—M. Simon, who renders the word

Horns of the Bos Arnee.

Fig.1.

Fig.2.

B.Quadro.

Fig.3. 4. 5. 6.

Fig.10.
Buy-rope & Anchor.

Fig.7.
Molten Sea or Laver

Fig.9.
Brenta

Fig.8.
Breast Plate of the Jewish High Priest.

Bos Arnee Fig.12.

Byssus

Fig.11.

by fine linen, adds in a note, "that there was a fine kind of linen very dear, which the great lords alone wore in this country, as well as in Egypt." This account agrees with that of Hefychius, as well as with Bochart's obſervation, that the byſſus was a finer kind of linen, which was frequently dyed of a purple colour. Some authors will have the byſſus to be the ſame with our cotton; others take it for the *linum aſbeſtinum*; and others for the lock or bunch of ſilky hair found adhering to the pinna marina, by which it faſtens itſelf to other bodies. Authors uſually diſtinguiſh two ſorts of byſſus; that of Elis; and that of Judæa, which was the fineſt. Of this latter were the prieſtly ornaments made. Bonfrerius ſays, that there muſt have been two ſorts of byſſus, one finer than the other; as there are two Hebrew words uſed in Scripture to denote byſſus; one of which is always uſed in ſpeaking of the habit of the prieſts, and the other of that of the Levites.

(2.) BYSSUS, in botany, a genus of moſſes, belonging to the order algæ, in the cryptogamia claſs of plants; and ranked by ſome under *Algæ*, the 57th order in the natural method; though others rank them under the 58th, *Fungi*. The characters are, that the moſſes of it are compoſed of ſimple and uniform parts, and always appear in form of excreſcences, either of a woolly or of a duſty matter. It ſeems properly a genus of a middle kind, between the muſhrooms and the moſſes, but moſt approaching to the latter, as the ſeveral ſpecies of it are of longer duration, and want that fleſhy texture which diſtinguiſhes the *fungus* claſs, and as they never produce heads, nor have any thing of the figure or texture of *fungi*. They have not yet been diſcovered to have either flower or ſeed, but appear always in form of threads, or of a light down, or fine powder, on the ſurface of many different bodies, but principally ſuch as are liable to putrefaction. Micheli, in his *Nov. Gen. Plantarum*, p. 210. mentions the ſeeds of ſome of the *byſſi*; but later botaniſts, and particularly the indefatigable Dillenius, were never able to obſerve them. This laſt author has deſcribed 20 ſpecies of theſe ſmall plants. There are 15 ſpecies natives of Britain, which grow upon old walls, rotten wood, &c. They are alſo found in many parts of Europe, covering the ground like a carpet. See *Plate* XLVI. *Fig.* 11.

(3.) BYSSUS ASBESTINUS, a ſpecies of aſbeſtus or combuſtible flax, compoſed of fine flexible parallel fibres. It is found plentifully in Sweden, either white or of different ſhades of green. At a copper mine in Weſtmannland, it forms the greateſt part of the vein out of which the ore is dug; and by the heat of the furnace which melts the metal, is changed into a pure ſemi-tranſparent glaſs.

BY THE BY, or BY THE WAY, *adv.* An expreſſion of apology, for ſome ſlight digreſſion from the immediate ſubject of diſcourſe. We ſtate it as an adverb, or *adverbial expreſſion*, though conſiſting of *three* words, not ſo much becauſe it is expreſſed in *one* word in other languages, as becauſe the word BY is in no caſe a *ſubſtantive noun*, and the ſynonime WAY is here uſed in a ſenſe quite different from its *ſubſtantive* ſignification, a *path* or *road*. See BY, § III; with the Note.

BYTHUS, [from βυθος, profundity,] one of the names given to the Deity, by the Valentinians.

BYTON, a town in Herefordſhire, E. of Preſteign, in Radnorſhire.

BYTRENT, *adj. obſ.* Catched up. *Bailey.*

BYTTNERIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants. The corolla is compoſed of 3 petals; the capſule has 5 lobes, and is covered with prickles. There is only one ſpecies.

BYWHOPEN, *adj. obſ.* Stupified. *Aſh.*

BYWORTH, a town near Petworth, Suſſex.

BYZANT. See BESANT, § 1 and 2.

BYZANTINA, BLATTA. See BLATTA, N°IV.

(1.) BYZANTINE, *adj.* Of, or belonging to Byzantium.

(2.) * BYZANTINE. See BIZANTINE. *Byzantine* is the true orthography.

BYZANTIUM, an ancient city of Thrace, ſituated on the Boſphorus. It was founded, according to Euſebius, about the 30th Olympiad, while Tullus Hoſtilius reigned in Rome. But, according to Diodorus Siculus, the foundations of this metropolis were laid in the time of the Argonauts, by one Byſas, from whom the city was called *Byzantium*. See BYSAS. Velleius Paterculus aſcribes the founding of Byzantium to the Mileſians, and Ammianus Marcellinus to the inhabitants of Attica. Some ancient medals of Byzantium, which have reached our times, bear the name and head of Byſas, with the prow of a ſhip on the reverſe. The year after the deſtruction of Jeruſalem by Titus, Byzantium was reduced to a Roman province. In A. D. 193 it took part with Niger againſt Severus. It was ſtrongly garriſoned by Niger, as being a place of the utmoſt importance. It was ſoon after inveſted by Severus; and as he was univerſally hated for his cruelty, the inhabitants defended themſelves with the greateſt reſolution. They had been ſupplied with a great number of warlike machines, moſt of them invented and built by Periſcus a native of Nicæa, and the greateſt engineer of his age. For a long time they baffled all the attempts of the aſſailants, killed great numbers of them, cruſhed ſuch as approached the walls with large ſtones; and when ſtones began to fail, they uſed the ſtatues of their gods and heroes. At laſt they were obliged to ſubmit; through famine, after having been reduced to the neceſſity of devouring one another. Severus put all the magiſtrates and ſoldiers to the ſword; but ſpared the engineer Periſcus. Before this ſiege, Byzantium was the greateſt, moſt populous, and wealthieſt city in Thrace. It was ſurrounded by walls of an extraordinary height and breadth; and defended by a great number of towers, 7 of which were built with ſuch art, that the leaſt noiſe heard in one of them was immediately conveyed to all the reſt. But Severus was no ſooner maſter of it, than he laid it in aſhes. The inhabitants were ſtripped of all their effects, and ſold for ſlaves, and the walls levelled with the ground. By the chronicle of Alexandria we are informed, that ſoon after this terrible cataſtrophe, Severus himſelf cauſed a great part of the city to be rebuilt, calling it *Antonina* from his ſon Antoninus Caracalla. In 262, the tyrant Galienus wreaked his fury on the inhabitants of Byzantium.

He intended to beſiege it; but on his arrival, deſpaired of being able to make himſelf maſter of ſuch a ſtrong place. He was admitted the next day, however, into the city; and without regarding the terms he had agreed to, cauſed the ſoldiers and all the inhabitants to be put to the ſword. Trebellius Pollio ſays, that not a ſingle perſon was left alive. What the reaſon was for ſuch an extraordinary maſſacre, we are no where informed. In the wars between the emperors Licinius and Maximin, Byzantium was obliged to ſubmit to the latter, but was ſoon after recovered by Licinius. In 323, it was taken from Licinius by Conſtantine the Great, who, in 330 greatly enlarged and beautified it. He began with extending its walls from ſea to ſea; and while ſome of the workmen were buſied in rearing them, others were employed in raiſing within them a great number of ſtately buildings, and among others a palace no way inferior in magnificence and extent to that of Rome. He built a capitol and amphitheatre, made a circus maximus, ſeveral forums, porticoes, and public baths; and divided the whole city into 14 regions. Thus Byzantium became one of the moſt flouriſhing and populous cities of the empire. Vaſt numbers of people flocked to it from Pontus, Thrace, and Aſia. Conſtantine having decreed, that ſuch as had lands in thoſe countries ſhould not be at liberty to diſpoſe of them, nor even leave them to their heirs at their death, unleſs they had a houſe in his new city. But however deſirous the emperor was that his city ſhould be filled with people, he did not wiſh it to be inhabited by any but Chriſtians. He therefore cauſed all the idols to be pulled down, and all their churches conſecrated to the true God. He built beſides an incredible number of churches, and cauſed croſſes to be erected in all the ſquares and public places. Moſt of the buildings being finiſhed, it was ſolemnly dedicated to the Virgin Mary, according to Cedrenus, but, according to Euſebius, to the God of Martyrs. At the ſame time Byzantium was equalled to Rome in point of privileges. The ſame rights and immunities were granted to its inhabitants as to thoſe of the metropolis. He eſtabliſhed a ſenate and other magiſtrates, with a power and authority equal to thoſe of old Rome. He took up his reſidence in the new city; and changed its name to CONSTANTINOPLE.

BYZIA, or VIZA, a town of European Turkey in Romania; one of the ancient ſeats of the Thracian kings.

BZOVIUS, Abraham, a celebrated writer of the 17th century, who compoſed an aſtoniſhing number of pieces. His chief work is the continuation of Baronius's annals. He was a native of Poland, and a Dominican friar. Upon his coming to Rome, he was received with open arms by the Pope, and had an apartment aſſigned him in the Vatican. He merited that reception, for he has imitated Baronius in making all things conſpire to the deſpotic power and glory of the papal ſee. He died in 1637, aged 70.

C

(1.) * C The 3d letter of the alphabet, has two ſounds; one like *k*, as, *call*, *clock*, *craft*, *coal*, *companion*, *cuneiform*; the other as *s*, as, *Cæſar*, *ceſſation*, *cinder*. It ſounds like *k* before *a*, *o*, *u*, or a conſonant; and like *s*, before *e*, *i*, and *y*.

(2.) C is uſed, 1. as a letter; 2. as an abbreviation; and, 3. as a numeral. I. As a LETTER, C is the 2d conſonant as well as the 2d mute of our alphabet. It is formed, according to Scaliger, from the ϗ of the Greeks, by retrenching the ſtem or upright line; though others derive it from the ɔ of the Hebrews, which has in effect the ſame form; allowing only for this, that the Hebrews, reading backwards, and the Latins, &c. forwards, each have turned the letter their own way. However, the C not being the ſame as to ſound with the Hebrew *caph*, and it being certain the Romans did not borrow their letters immediately from the Hebrews or other orientals, but from the Greeks, the derivation from the Greek ϗ is the more probable. F. Montfaucon, in his Paleographia, gives us ſome forms of the Greek ϗ, which come very near that of our C; thus, for inſtance, ☾: and Suidas calls the C the Roman kappa. The ſecond ſound of C reſembles that of the Greek Σ; and many inſtances occur of ancient inſcriptions, in which Σ has the ſame form with our C. All grammarians agree, that the Romans pronounced their Q like our C, and their C like our K. F. Mabillon adds, that Charles the Great was the firſt

who wrote his name with a C; whereas all his predeceſſors of the ſame name wrote it with a K; and the ſame difference is obſerved in their coins. C before *h* has a peculiar ſound, as in *chain*, *cheſe*, &c. In words derived from the French, it ſounds like *ſ*, as in *chaiſe*, *chicane*, pronounced *ſhaiſe*, *ſhicane*. II. As an ABBREVIATION, C ſtands for Caius, Carolus, Cæſar, *condemno*, *codice*, *conſule*, &c. and CC for *conſulibus*. C, in muſic, placed after the cliff, intimates that the muſic is in common time, which is either quick or ſlow, as it is joined with allegro or adagio: if alone, it is uſually adagio. If the C be croſſed or turned, the firſt requires the air to be played quick, and the laſt very quick. III. As a NUMERAL, C ſignifies 100, CC 200, &c. and was thus uſed by the ancient Romans, being the initial of *centum*. Some antiquarians add, that a daſh over it made it ſtand for 100,000: though this ſeems to be contradicted by the proverbial line, *Non plus quam* centum *C litera ſertur habere*.

CAA-APIA, in botany, a Braſilian plant, deſcribed by Marcgrave, Piſo, and others; the root of which ſo much reſembles the ipecacuanha in its virtues, that ſome have erroneouſly called it by the ſame name. It is aſtringent and emetic, but poſſeſſes both qualities in a weaker degree, and is therefore given in a larger doſe, a dram being commonly given at once. The Braſilians bruiſe the whole plant, and expreſs the juice, which they take internally, and apply externally to wounds by poiſoned arrows, and by the bites of ſerpents.

CAABA,

CAABA, or CAABAH, } properly ſignifies a ſquare ſtone building; but is particularly applied by the Mahometans to the temple of Mecca, built, as they pretend, by Abraham and Iſhmael. Before the time of Mahomet, this temple was a place of worſhip for the idolatrous Arabs, and is ſaid to have contained no leſs than 360 different images, equalling in number the days of the Arabian year. They were all deſtroyed by Mahomet, who ſanctified the Caaba, and appointed it to be the chief place of worſhip for all true believers. The temple is in length from N. to S. about 24 cubits; in breadth from E. to W. 23; and in height 27. The door, which is on the E. ſide, ſtands about 4 cubits from the ground; the floor being level with the bottom of the door. In the corner next this door is the *black ſtone*, ſo much celebrated among the Mahometans. On the N. ſide of the caaba, within a ſemicircular incloſure 7 cubits long, lies the *white ſtone*, ſaid to be the ſepulchre of Iſhmael, which receives the rain water from the caaba by a ſpout formerly of wood, but now of gold. The black ſtone, according to the Mahometans, was brought down from heaven by Gabriel at the creation of the world; and originally of a white colour; but contracted the blackneſs that now appears on it, from the guilt of the ſins committed by the ſons of men. It is ſet in ſilver, and fixed in the S. E. corner of the caaba, looking towards Baſra, about 7 ſpans from the ground. This ſtone, upon which there is the figure of a human head, is held in the higheſt eſtimation among the Arabs; all the pilgrims kiſſing it with great devotion, and ſome even calling it the *right hand of God*. Its blackneſs, which is only ſuperficial, is probably owing to the kiſſes and touches of ſo many people. After the Karmatians had taken Mecca, they carried away this precious ſtone, and could by no means be prevailed upon to reſtore it; but finding at laſt that they were unable to prevent the concourſe of pilgrims to Mecca, they ſent it back of their own accord, after having kept it 22 years. The double roof of the caaba is ſupported within by three octagonal pillars of aloes-wood; between which, on a bar of iron, hang ſome ſilver lamps. The outſide is covered with rich black damaſk, adorned with an embroidered band of gold, which is changed every year, and was formerly ſent by the khaliffs, afterwards by the ſultans of Egypt, and is now provided by the Turkiſh emperors. The caaba, at ſome diſtance, is almoſt ſurrounded by a circular incloſure of pillars, joined towards the bottom by a low balluſtrade, and towards the top by bars of iron. Juſt without this inner incloſure, on the N. and W. ſides of the caaba, are 3 buildings, in which are the oratories where 3 of the orthodox ſects aſſemble to perform their devotions. Towards the S. E. ſtands an edifice which covers the well, ZEMZEM, the treaſury, and the cupola of Abbas. Formerly there was another cupola, that went under the name of the *hemicycle*, or *cupola of Judæa*: but whether any remains of that are now to be ſeen is unknown; nor is it eaſy to obtain information in this reſpect, all Chriſtians being denied acceſs to this holy place. At a ſmall diſtance from the caaba, on the E. ſide, is the *ſtation* of Abraham; where is another ſtone much reſpected by the Mahometans; and where they pretend to ſhow the footſteps of the patriarch, where he ſtood when he built the caaba. Here the 4th ſect of Arabs, *viz.* that of Al Shafei, aſſemble for religious purpoſes. The ſquare colonnade, or great piazza, which at a conſiderable diſtance incloſes theſe buildings, conſiſts, according to Al Jannabi, of 448 pillars, and has no leſs than 38 gates. Mr Sale compares this piazza to that of the royal exchange at London, but allows it to be much larger. It is covered with ſmall domes or cupolas, from the 4 corners of which riſe as many minarets or ſteeples, with double galleries, and adorned with gilded ſpires and creſcents, as are alſo the cupolas which cover the piazza and other buildings. Between the columns of both incloſures hang a great number of lamps, which are conſtantly lighted at night. The firſt foundation of this 2d incloſure was laid by Omar, who built no more than a low wall, to prevent the court of the caaba from being incroached upon by private buildings; but by the liberality of ſucceeding princes, the whole has been raiſed to that ſtate of magnificence in which it appears at preſent. This temple is an aſylum for all criminals; but it is moſt remarkable for the pilgrimages made to it by the devout muſſulmans, who pay ſo great a veneration to it, that they believe a ſingle ſight of its ſacred walls, without any particular act of devotion, is as meritorious, in the ſight of God, as the moſt careful diſcharge of duty, for a whole year, in any other temple.

CAACHIRA, the Indigo plant. See INDIGOFERA.

CAAFF, a rapid rivulet in Ayrſhire, which riſes in the high moor lands, and after running ſeveral miles falls into the Garnock, near Dalry. It ſometimes does much damage by overflowing its banks.

CAAMINA, or CAAMINI, } in botany, a name given by the Spaniards and others to the fineſt ſort of Paraguayan tea. It is the leaf of a ſhrub which grows on the mountains of Maracayá, and is uſed in Chili and Peru, as tea is with us. The mountains where this ſhrub grows naturally, are far from the inhabited parts of Paraguay; but the people of the place know ſo well the value and uſe of it, that they conſtantly furniſh themſelves with great quantities of it from the ſpot. They uſed to go out on theſe expeditions many thouſands together; leaving their country in the mean time expoſed to the inſults of their enemies, and many of themſelves periſhing by fatigue. To avoid theſe inconveniences, they have of late planted theſe trees about their habitations; but the leaves of theſe cultivated ones have not the fine flavour of thoſe that grow wild. The K. of Spain has permitted the Indians of Paraguay, to bring to the town of Saintfoy 12,000 arobes of the leaves of this tree every year, but they are not able to procure ſo much of the wild leaves annually; about half the quantity is the utmoſt they bring; the other half is made up of the leaves of the trees in their own plantations; and this ſells at a lower price, and is called *pabos*. The arobe is about 25 pound weight; the general price is 4 piaſtres; and the money is always divided among the people of the colony.

CAANA,

CAANA, or KAANA, a town in Upper Egypt, ſeated on the E. banks of the Nile, from whence they carry corn and pulſe to Mecca. It has ſeveral monuments of antiquity, inſcribed with hieroglyphics. It is 320 m. S. of Cairo. Lon. 30. 23. E. Lat. 26. 30. N.

CAAPIBA, in botany, the name given by Plumier to a genus of plants, called by Linnæus CISSAMPELOS.

CAAS. *n. ſ. obſ.* A caſe, or chance. *Chauc.*

(1.) * CAB. *n. ſ.* [כַּב.] A Hebrew meaſure, containing about 3 pints Engliſh, or the 18th part of an ephah.

(2.) CAB was the 6th part of a ſeah or ſatum, and contained 2⅔ pints of our corn meaſure. A quarter cab was the meaſure of dove's dung, or more properly a ſort of chick peaſe called by this name, which was ſold at Samaria, during the ſiege of that city, for 5 ſhekels.

(3.) CAB of wine contained two Engliſh pints.

CABACON, a town of Spain, in Leon.

(1.) * CABAL. *n. ſ.* [*cabale*, Fr. קבלה, tradition.] 1. The ſecret ſcience of the Hebrew rabbins. 2. A body of men united in ſome cloſe deſign. A *cabal* differs from a *party*, as *few* from *many*.—She often interpoſed her royal authority, to break the *cabals* which were forming againſt her firſt miniſters. *Addiſon.* 3. Intrigue; ſomething leſs than conſpiracy.—

When each, by curs'd *cabals* of women, ſtrove,
To draw th' indulgent king to partial love.
Dryden.

(2.) CABAL is ſaid to have been a kind of acroſtical name given to the infamous miniſtry of Charles II. compoſed of Clifford, Aſhley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale; the firſt letters of whoſe names, in this order, formed the word which has ſince become an appellative for ſimilar juntos. But from Dr Johnſon's derivations (§ 1.) it would appear to be of greater antiquity.

(3.) CABAL is alſo a ſort of drink made of dried raiſins, by the Portugueſe. They make it thus: they take out the ſtones of about 20 lb. of raiſins, and then bruiſing the raiſins a little, they put them into a barrel of white wine, in the month of January or February, and let them ſtand till about Eaſter. It is then clear, rich and palatable; and is recommended to ſtop coughs, and ſtrengthen the ſtomach.

* *To* CABAL. *v. n.* [*cabaler*, Fr.] To form cloſe intrigues; to intrigue; to unite in ſmall parties.

His mournful friends, ſummon'd to take their leaves,
Are throng'd about his couch, and ſit in council:
What thoſe *caballing* captains may deſign,
I muſt prevent, by being firſt in action. *Dryd.*

(1.) CABALA, or CABALA VEIN, in natural hiſtory, a kind of iron ore commonly wrought in Suſſex. It is ſtony, of a browniſh colour, with a bluſh of red, which is more or leſs conſpicuous in different parts of the ſame maſſes. It is uſually found in thin ſtrata, near the ſurface, and is not very rich in iron, but runs very readily in the fire.

(2.) CABALA. See CABBALA.

CABALATAR, in natural hiſtory, a name given by ſome chemical writers to nitre, called alſo *ſperus chemicus*, and *ſal infernalis*.

(1.) * CABALIST. *n. ſ.* [from *cabal.*] One ſkilled in the traditions of the Hebrews.—

Then Jove thus ſpake: with care and pain
We form'd this name, renown'd in rhime,
Not thine, immortal Neuſgermain!
Coſt ſtudious *cabaliſts* more time. *Swift.*

(2.) CABALIST, in commerce, a term uſed in ſome parts of France for a merchant who does not trade in his own name, but is concerned in the trade of another. See ANONYMOUS, § 3.

CABALLARIA, in middle age writers, lands held by the tenure of furniſhing a horſeman, with ſuitable equipage, in time of war, or when the lord had occaſion for him.

* CABALLER. *n. ſ.* [from *cabal.*] He that engages with others in cloſe deſigns; an intriguer.

Factious and rich, bold at the council board,
But cautious in the field, he ſhunn'd the ſword;
A cloſe *caballer*, and tongue-valiant lord!
Dryden.

CABALLEROS, or CAVALLEROS, Spaniſh wool, in which there is a pretty conſiderable trade at Bayonne in France.

CABALLI, or COBALES, among myſtic philoſophers, denote the ſhades, or bodies of men who died any ſudden or violent death, before the expiration of their predeſtinated term of life. They were ſuppoſed to wander as ghoſts over the face of the earth, till their deſtined term was accompliſhed; being doomed to live out the time as ſpirits, which they ought to have ſpent in the fleſh!

(1.) * CABALLINE. *adj.* [*caballinus*, Lat.] Belonging to a horſe; as, *caballine* aloes, or horſe aloes.

(2.) CABALLINE ALOES [from Καβαλλης, a horſe], the coarſeſt kind of aloes, little uſed unleſs for purging horſes.

(1.) CABALLINUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Ædui in Gallia Celtica; now called CHALLON SUR SAONE, which ſee.

(2.) CABALLINUM SULPHUR, common brimſtone.

CABALLINUS, in ancient geography, a very clear fountain of mount Helicon in Bœotia; called *Hippocrene* by the Greeks, becauſe fabled to have been opened by Pegaſus on ſtriking the rock with his hoof, and hence called PEGASIS.

CABALLIO, or CABELLIO, in ancient geography, a town of the Cavares in Gallia Narbonenſis, ſituated on the Druentia. One of the Latin colonies, in the Notitiæ, called *Civitas Caballicorum*. It is now called CAVAILLON.

* CABALLISTICAL. } *adj.* [from *cabal*]
* CABALISTICK. } Something that has an occult meaning.—The letters are *caballiſtical*, and carry more in them than it is proper for the world to be acquainted with. *Addiſon.*—He taught him to repeat two *caballiſtick* words, in pronouncing of which the whole ſecret conſiſted. *Spectator.*

* CABARET. *n. ſ.* [French.] A tavern.—Suppoſe this ſervant paſſing by ſome *cabaret*, or tennis-court, where his comrades were drinking or playing, ſhould ſtay with them, and drink or play away his money. *Bramhall againſt Hobbes.*

CABARIC, hart-wort. See TORDYLIUM.

(1.) * CABBAGE. *n. ſ.* [*caulis*, Fr. *braſſica*, Lat.] A plant.—The leaves are large, fleſhy, and of a glaucous

ucous colour; the flowers conſiſt of 4 leaves, hich are ſucceeded by long taper pods, contain- ſeveral round acrid ſeeds. The ſpecies are, *bage*. Savoy *cabbage*. *Brocoli*. The *cauli- wer*. The muſk *cabbage*. Branching tree *cab- e*, from the ſea-coaſt. *Coleſwort*. Perennial pine *Coleſwort*. Perfoliated wild *cabbage*, &c. *ller*.—Cole *cabbage*, and coleworts, are ſoft and ulcent, without any acidity; the jelly or juice red *cabbage*, baked in an oven, and mixed with ney, is an excellent pectoral. *Arbuthnot on Ali- ents*.

(2.) CABBAGE. See BRASSICA and HUSBAND- , *Index*. In the *Georgical Eſſays*, we find this nt greatly recommended as an excellent food r cattle, producing much dung, and being an cellent ſubſtitute for hay. The author prefers the tch kind, as being moſt durable, and prefera- on all other accounts. He alſo prefers plants ed in autumn to thoſe ſowed in ſpring, as pro- cing a much more weighty crop. The expence raiſing an acre of good cabbages he values at l. 15s. and its produce at 34l.

(3.) CABBAGE BARK TREE. See GEOFFROEA.

(4.) CABBAGE, DOG'S. See THELIGONUM.

(5.) CABBAGE, EARLY. } See BRASSICA, § II.

(6.) CABBAGE, MUSK. }

(7.) CABBAGE PALM, TRUE. See ARECA, § 2.

(8.) CABBAGE, SAVOY. See BRASSICA, § II.

(9.) CABBAGE, SEA. See CRAMBE.

(10.) * CABBAGE TREE. *n. ſ.* A ſpecies of *palma*.—It is very common in the Carribbee iſlands. here it grows to a prodigious height. The ves of this tree envelope each other, ſo that oſe which are incloſed, being deprived of the , are blanched; which is the part the inhabi- nts cut for plaits for hats, and the young ſhoots e pickled; but whenever this part is cut out, e trees are deſtroyed; nor do they riſe again om the old roots; ſo that there are very few es left remaining near plantations. *Miller*.

(11.) CABBAGE TREE. See CACALIA, § 6.

(12.) CABBAGE, TURNIP ROOTED. See BRAS- ICA, § II.

(13.) * CABBAGE-WORM. *n. ſ.* An inſect.

(1.) * *To* CABBAGE. *v. a.* [a cant word among ylors.] To ſteal in cutting clothes.—Your tay- r, inſtead of ſhreads, *cabbages* whole yards of uth. *Arbuthnot*.

(2.) * *To* CABBAGE. *v. n.* To form a head; as, e plants begin to *cabbage*.

(I.) CABBALA, a myſterious kind of ſcience, retended to have been delivered by revelation to e ancient Jews, and tranſmitted by oral tradi- on to thoſe of our times; ſerving for interpreta- on of the books both of nature and ſcripture. he word is alſo written CABBALA, KABALA, *abala*, *Caballiſtica*, *Ars Cabala*, and *Gabalia*. It originally Hebrew, קבלה, *kabbalah*; and pro- erly ſignifies *reception*; formed from the verb קבל, *kibel*, *to receive by tradition*. Cabbala then rimarily denotes any ſentiment, opinion, uſage, r explication of Scripture tranſmitted from fa- her to ſon. In this ſenſe, the word is not only pplied to the whole art; but alſo to each opera- on performed according to its rules. Thus R. ac. Ben Aſcher, ſurnamed Baal-Hatturim, is ſaid o have compiled moſt of the *cabbalas* invented on the books of Moſes before his time. The Cabba- la is by ſome called the acromatic philoſophy of Moſes, by way of diſtinction from the exoteric or popular doctrine. See ACROAMATIC. The ge- nerality of the Jews prefer the cabbala to the Scrip- ture; comparing the former to the ſparkling luſ- tre of a precious ſtone, and the latter to the faint- er glimmering of a candle. The firſt author who delivered any thing of the cabbala was Joachaides, or Simon ſon of Joachai, who publiſhed that famous cabbaliſtical work, intituled ZOHAR. Some ſay, he lived about the time of the deſtruction of Jeruſalem by Titus; others, only in the 10th century. There are no ſure principles of this knowledge. It de- pends entirely upon the traditions of the ancients. The cabbaliſts have abundance of names which they call *ſacred*; theſe they make uſe of in invo- king of ſpirits, and imagine they receive great light from them. They tell us, that the ſecrets of the cabbala were diſcovered to Moſes on mount Sinai; and that theſe have been delivered down to them from father to ſon, without interruption, and without any uſe of letters; for to write them down, is what they are by no means permitted to do. This is likewiſe termed the *oral law*, becauſe it paſſed from father to ſon, in order to diſtinguiſh it from the written laws. Another kind of cab- bala viz.

(II.) CABBALA, ARTIFICIAL, ſo called to diſ- tinguiſh it from the ſimple or traditional cabbala, (§ 1.) conſiſts in ſearching for abſtruſe and myſte- rious ſignifications of a word in Scripture, from whence they borrow certain explanations, by com- bining the letters which compoſe it: this cabbala is divided into 3 kinds, the gematria, the notaricon, and the temura or themurah.

1. CABBALA GEMATRIA conſiſts in taking the letters of a Hebrew word for ciphers or arithme- tical numbers, and explaining every word by the arithmetical value of the letters whereof it is com- poſed.

2. CABBALA NOTARICON conſiſts in taking e- very particular letter of a word for an entire diction.

3. CABBALA THEMURA, i. e. change, conſiſts in making different tranſpoſitions or changes of letters, placing one for the other, or one before the other. Some viſionaries among the Jews be- lieve, that Jeſus Chriſt wrought his miracles by virtue of the myſteries of the cabbala.

(III.) CABBALA is alſo applied to the abuſe, which viſionaries make of Scripture, for diſcover- ing futurity, by the ſtudy and conſideration of the combination of certain words, letters, and num- bers, in the ſacred writings. All the words, terms, magical figures, numbers, letters, charms, &c. uſed in the Jewiſh magic, or in the hermetical ſcience, are compriſed under this ſpecies of cab- bala. But it is only the Chriſtians that call it by this name, on account of the reſemblance this art bears to the explication of the Jewiſh *cabbala*: for the Jews never uſe the word *cabbala* in any ſuch ſenſe, but ever with the utmoſt reſpect and vene- ration. It is not, however, the magic of the Jews alone which we call *cabbala*, but the word is alſo uſed for any kind of magic.

CABBALIC ART, *Ars caballica*, is uſed by ſome writers for *ars paleſtrica*, or the art of wreſtling.

CABBA-

CABBALISTIC ART. See CABBALA, and CABBALISTS. D. Franc. Berlendi, a Theatin, of Venice, under the fictitious name of C. Berardo Schinflini, publiſhed a CABALLOMACHIA, or Refutation of the *Cabbaliſtic* Art.

CABBALISTS, the Jewiſh doctors who profeſs the ſtudy of the cabbala. In their opinion, there is not a word, letter, number, or accent in law, without ſome myſtery in it; and they even pretend to diſcover, what is future, by this vain ſtudy. The Jews are divided into two general ſects; the KARAITES, who refuſe to receive either tradition, or the Talmud, or any thing but the pure text of ſcripture; and the RABBINISTS, or TALMUDISTS, who, beſides this, receive the traditions of the ancients, and follow the Talmud. The latter are ſubdivided into other 2 ſects; pure Rabbiniſts, who explain the ſcripture in its natural ſenſe, by grammar, hiſtory, and tradition; and Cabbaliſts, who, to diſcover hidden myſtical ſenſes, which they ſuppoſe God to have couched therein, make uſe of the CABBALA, and the myſtical methods above-mentioned, § II. 1—3.

CABBALLOMACHIA. See CABBALISTIC ART.

CABEBI, a name given by Rulandus and others to the ſcales of iron.

(1.) CABECA, or CABESSE, a name given to the fineſt ſilks in the Eaſt Indies; thoſe from 15 to 20 *per cent.* inferior being called *bariga*, or *barinha*. The Indian workmen endeavour to paſs them off one with the other; for which reaſon, the experienced European merchants take care to open the bales, and to examine all the ſkains. The Dutch diſtinguiſh two ſorts; viz. the moor cabeca, ſold at Amſterdam for about 21½ ſchellinghen Flemiſh, and the common, for about 18½.

(2.) CABECA DE VIDE, a ſmall ſea port of Alentejo in Portugal, with good walls, and a ſtrong caſtle; 12 m. S. W. of port Alegro, and 30 N. of Eſtremos. Lon. 6. 43. W. Lat. 39. 10. N.

CABELLIO. See CABALLIO.

CABENDA, a ſea-port of Congo in Africa, ſubject to Portugal, and ſituated 105 m. S. E. of Loanga. Lon. 12. 15. E. Lat. 4. 5. S.

(1, 2.) CABES, a river and gulf of Africa.

(3.) CABES, or GABES, a town of Tunis, ſeated on the river, near the gulf, (N. 1 and 2.) Lon. 10. 55. E. Lat. 33. 40. N.

CABESSE. See CABECA, N. 1.

CABEZZO, a province of Africa, in Angola; having Oacco on the N. Lubolo on the S. the Coanza on the N. E. and the Reinba on the S. W. It is populous, and well ſtored with cattle, &c. and has a mine of iron on a mountain, thence called the IRON MOUNTAIN, that yields great quantities of that metal; which the Portugueſe have taught the natives to manufacture. This province is watered by the RIO LONGO, and other ſmall rivulets, lakes, &c. The trees are vaſtly large; and they have one ſort, not unlike our apple trees, the bark of which being cut with a knife, yields an odoriferous reſin of the colour and conſiſtency of wax, and very medicinal in its nature; only a little too hot for Europeans, unleſs qualified by ſome cooling drug.

CABIDOS, or CAVIDOS, a long meaſure uſed and other places of the Eaſt Indies, belonging to the Portugueſe, to meaſure ſtuffs, linens, and equal to 4 7ths of the Paris ell.

CABILIAU, in ichthyology, a name by which ſome authors call the common cod fiſh, the *merlus* and *aſellus major* of other writers.

(1.) * CABIN. *n. ſ.* [*cabane*, Fr. *chabin*, Welch, a cottage.] 1. A ſmall room.—

So long in ſecret *cabin* there he held
Her captive to his ſenſual deſire,
Till that with timely fruit her belly ſwell'd,
And bore a boy unto a ſavage ſire. *Spenſer.*

2. A ſmall chamber in a ſhip.—Give thanks you have lived ſo long, and make yourſelf ready in your *cabin*, for the miſchance of the hour, if it ſo happen. *Shakeſpeare.*—Men may not expect the uſe of many *cabins*, and ſafety at once, in the ſea ſervice. *Raleigh.*—The cheſsboard, we ſay, is in the ſame place as it was, if it remain in the ſame part of the *cabin*, though the ſhip ſails all the while. *Locke.* 3. A cottage, or ſmall houſe.—

Come from marble bow'rs, many times the gay harbour of anguiſh,
Unto a ſilly *cabin*, though weak, yet ſtrong againſt woes. *Sidney.*

—Neither ſhould that odious cuſtom be allowed, of flaying off the green ſurface of the ground, to cover their *cabins*, or make up their ditches. *Swift.* 4. A tent, or temporary habitation.—

Some of green boughs their ſlender *cabins* frame,
Some lodg'd were Tortoſa's ſtreets about. *Fairfax.*

(2.) CABINS in ſhips are the apartments where the officers uſually reſide. There are many of theſe in a large ſhip; the principal of which is deſigned for the commander. In ſhips of the line this chamber is furniſhed with an open gallery in the ſhip's ſtern, and a little gallery on each quarter. The apartments where the inferior officers, or common ſailors, ſleep and meſs are uſually called BIRTHS. The bed-places for the ſailors at the ſhip's ſide in merchantmen are alſo called *cabins*.

(1.) * *To* CABIN. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To confine in a cabin.—

Fleance is 'ſcap'd, I had elſe been perfect;
As broad and gen'ral as the caſing air;
But now I'm *cabin'd*, cribb'd, confin'd, bound in,
To ſaucy doubts and fear. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) * *To* CABIN. *v. n.* To live in a cabin.—

I'll make you feed on berries and on roots,
And feed on curds and whey, and ſuck the goat,
And *cabin* in a cave. *Shakeſpeare.*

(1.) CABINDA, a river, and (2.) CABINDA, a ſea port, of Angoy, a Africa. See ANGOY, § 1.

* CABINED. *adj.* [from *cabin*.] Belonging to a cabin.—

The nice morn, on the Indian ſteep,
From her *cabin'd* loophole peep. *Milton.*

(1.) * CABINET. *n. ſ.* [*cabinet*, Fr.] 1. A cheſt; a ſmall room.—At both corners of the further ſide, let there be two delicate or rich *cabinets*, daintily paved, richly hanged, glazed with cryſtaline glaſs, and a rich cupola in the midſt, and all other delicacies that may be thought on. *Bacon.* 2. A hut or ſmall houſe.—

Henka

Hearken a while in thy green *cabinet*,
The lawrel ſong of careful Colinet. *Spenſer.*

2. A private room in which conſultations are held.—You began in the *cabinet* what you afterwards practiſed in the camp. *Dryden.* 4. A ſet of boxes or drawers for curioſities; a private box.—

Who ſees a ſoul in ſuch a body ſet,
Might love the treaſure for the *cabinet*.
Ben Jonſon.

In vain the workman ſhew'd his wit,
With rings and hinges counterfeit,
To make it ſeem, in this diſguiſe,
A *cabinet* to vulgar eyes. *Swift.*

3. Any place in which things of value are hidden.—

Thy breaſt hath ever been the *cabinet*,
Where I have lock'd my ſecrets. *Denham.*

—We cannot diſcourſe of the ſecret, but by deſcribing our duty; but ſo much duty muſt needs open a *cabinet* of myſteries. *Taylor.*

(2.) CABINET alſo denotes a piece of joiner's workmanſhip, being a kind of preſs or cheſt, with ſeveral doors and drawers. There are common cabinets of oak, cheſnut, or mahogany; varniſhed cabinets of China and Japan; cabinets of inlaid work, and ſome of ebony, or other precious woods.

(3.) CABINET is alſo uſed in ſpeaking of the more ſelect and ſecret councils of a prince or adminiſtration. (See § 4.) Thus we ſay, the ſecrets, the intrigues of the cabinet. To avoid the inconveniences of a numerous council, ſome of the deſpotic princes of Europe firſt introduced cabinet councils. King Charles I. is charged with firſt eſtabliſhing this uſage in England. Beſides his privy council, that prince erected a kind of cabinet council, or junto, under the denomination of a council of ſtate; compoſed of Abp. Laud, the earl of Strafford, and lord Collington, with the ſecretaries of ſtate. Yet ſome pretend to find the ſubſtance of a cabinet council of much greater antiquity, and even allowed by parliament, which anciently ſettled a quorum of perſons moſt to be conſulted in, without whoſe preſence no arduous matter was to be determined; giving them power to act without conſulting the reſt of the council. As long ago as the 28th of Henry III. a charter paſſed in affirmance of the ancient rights of the kingdom; which provided, that 4 great men, choſen by common conſent, who were to be conſervators of the kingdom, among other things, ſhould ſee to the diſpoſing of monies given by parliament, and appropriated to particular uſes; and parliament were to be ſummoned as they ſhould adviſe. Of theſe 4 any two made a quorum; and generally the chief juſtice of England, and chancellor, were of the number of the conſervators. In the firſt of Henry VI. the parliament provides, that the quorum for the privy council be 6 or 4 at leaſt; and that in all weighty conſiderations, the dukes of Bedford and Glouceſter, the king's uncles, ſhould be preſent; which ſeems to be erecting a cabinet by law.

(4.) * CABINET-COUNCIL. *n. ſ.* 1. A council held in a private manner, with unuſual privacy and confidence.—The doctrine of Italy, and practice of France, in ſome kings times, hath introduced *cabinet-councils*. *Bacon.* 2. A ſelect number of privy counſellors ſuppoſed to be particularly truſted.—From the higheſt to the loweſt it is univerſally read; from the *cabinet-council* to the nurſery. *Gay to Swift.*

* CABINET-MAKER. *n. ſ.* [from *cabinet* and *make*.] One that makes ſmall nice drawers or boxes.—The root of an old white thorn will make very fine boxes and combs; ſo that they would be of great uſe for the *cabinet-makers*, as well as turners, and others. *Mortimer.*

CABIN-POINT, a ſmall poſt town of Virginia, ſituated in Surry county, on the Upper Chipoak Creek. It is 26 m. E. S. E. of Peterſburg; and 329 S. S. W. of Philadelphia: from which it lies in Lon. 2. 4. W. Lat. 37. 0. N.

CABIRI, a term in the theology of the ancient Pagans, ſignifying great and powerful gods; being a name given to the gods of Samothracia. They were alſo worſhipped in other parts of Greece, as Lemnos and Thebes, where the cabiria were celebrated in honour of them; theſe gods are ſaid to be, in number, 4, viz. *Axieros*, *Axiocerſa*, *Axiocerſus*, and *Caſmilus*.

(2.) CABIRI is alſo uſed to denote the *Gabri*, or Perſian fire-worſhippers. See GABRES.

CABIRIA, feſtivals in honour of the Cabiri, celebrated in Thebes and Lemnos, but eſpecially in Samothracia, an iſland conſecrated to the Cabiri. All who were initiated into the myſteries of theſe gods, were thought to be ſecured thereby from ſtorms at ſea, and all other dangers. The ceremony of initiation was performed by placing the candidate, crowned with olive branches, and girded about the loins with a purple ribband, on a kind of throne, about which the prieſts, and perſons before initiated, danced.

(1.) * CABLE. *n. ſ.* [*cabl*, Welch; *cabel*, Dutch.] The great rope of a ſhip to which the anchor is faſtened.—

What though the maſt be now blown overboard,
The *cable* broke, the holding anchor loſt,
And half our ſailors ſwallow'd in the flood,
Yet lives our pilot ſtill? *Shakeſ.*

—The length of the *cable* is the life of the ſhip in all extremities; and the reaſon is, becauſe it makes ſo many bendings and waves, as the ſhip, riding at that length, is not able to ſtretch it; and nothing breaks that is not ſtretched. *Raleigh.*—

The *cables* crack, the ſailors fearful cries
Aſcend; and ſable night involves the ſkies. *Dryd.*

(2.) CABLE is alſo the name of thoſe ropes, which ſerve to raiſe heavy loads, by the help of cranes, pullies, and other engines. The name is uſually given to ſuch as have, at leaſt, 3 inches in circumference; thoſe that are leſs are only ROPES differently named according to their uſe. Every cable, of whatſoever thickneſs it be, is compoſed of 3 ſtrands; every ſtrand of 3 ropes; and every rope of 3 twiſts: the twiſt is made of more or leſs threads, according as the cable is to be thicker or thinner. In the manufacture of cables, after the ropes are made, they uſe ſticks, which they paſs firſt between the ropes of which they make the ſtrands, and afterwards between the ſtrands of which they make the cable, to the end that they may all twiſt the better, and be more regularly wound together; and alſo, to prevent them from entwining or entangling, they hang, at the end

of each strand and of each rope, a weight of lead or of stone. There is no merchant ship, however weak, but has at least 3 cables: viz. the chief cable, or cable of the sheet anchor, (See § 4.) a common cable, and a smaller one.

(3.) CABLES, CALCULATION OF THREADS, &c. IN DIFFERENT. The number of threads each cable is composed of, is always proportioned to its length and thickness; and it is by this number of threads that its weight and value are ascertained: thus, a cable of 3 inches circumference, or one inch diameter, ought to consist of 48 ordinary threads, and to weigh 192 pounds; and on this foundation is calculated the following table, very useful for all people engaged in marine commerce, who fit out merchantmen on their own account, or freight them on the account of others.

A TABLE *of the* NUMBER *of* THREADS *and* WEIGHT *of* CABLES *of* DIFFERENT CIRCUMFERENCES.

Circumf.	Threads.	Weight.
3 inches	48	192 pounds.
4	77	308
5	121	484
6	174	696
7	238	952
8	311	1244
9	393	1572
10	485	1940
11	598	2392
12	699	2796
13	812	3284
14	952	3808
15	1093	4372
16	1244	4976
17	1404	5616
18	1574	6296
19	1754	7016
20	1945	7772

(4.) CABLE, SHEET ANCHOR, is the greatest cable belonging to a ship.

(5.) CABLE'S LENGTH, a measure of 120 fathoms, or of the usual length of the cable.

(6.) CABLE, STREAM, a hawser or rope, something smaller than the bowers, and used to moor the ship in a river, or haven, sheltered from the wind and sea, &c.

(7.) CABLES, TERMS USED RESPECTING. *To Serve or Plait the* CABLE, is to bind it about with ropes, clouts, &c. to keep it from galling in the hawse. *To splice a* CABLE, is to make two pieces fast together, by working the several threads of the rope the one into the other. *Pay more* CABLE, is to let more out of the ship. *Pay cheap the Cable*, is to hand it out apace. *Veer more Cable*, is to let more out, &c.

(8.) CABLED, CABLEE, in heraldry, a term applied to a cross formed of the two ends of a ship's cable; sometimes also to a cross covered over with rounds of rope; more properly called a *cross corded*.

(2.) CABLED FLUTE, in architecture, such flutes as are filled up with pieces in the form of a cable.

CABLE-TIRE, *n. s.* the coil of a cable.

CABLICIA, or CABLISH, } in the forest laws, brushwood.

CABO, or CAPO DE ISTRIA, the capital of the province of Istria, belonging to the civil vant state of Venice, now revolutionizing by Gen. Buonaparte. It is seated on a small island, in the Gulf of Venice, and joined to the main land by draw bridges. It was anciently called INSICHOPOLIS; and lies 12 m. S. of Trieste. Lon. 14. 22. E. Lat. 45. 49. N.

(2.) CABO DE ST MARTIN, a promontory of Spain, in Valencia.

CABOCHED, in heraldry, is when the heads of beasts are born without any part of the neck, full faced.

CABOCLES, a name given in the West Indies by the Portuguese to persons produced between Americans and negroes.

CABOLETTO, in commerce, a coin of the republic of Genoa, worth about 3d. of our money.

CABONS, a village near Denge Marsh, Kent.

CABOT, Sebastian, the first discoverer of the continent of America, (See AMERICA, § 4.) was the son of John Cabot a Venetian. He was born at Bristol in 1477; and was taught by his father arithmetic, geometry, and cosmography. Before he was 20 years of age he made several voyages. The first of any consequence seems to have been made with his father, who had a commission from Henry VII. for the discovery of a N. W. passage to India. They sailed in the spring of 1497; and proceeding to the N. W. they discovered land which for that reason they called PRIMA-VISTA or NEW-FOUND-LAND. Another smaller island they called *St John*, from its being discovered on the feast of St John Baptist; after which, they sailed along the coast of the American continent as far as Cape Florida, and then returned with a good cargo, and 3 Indians aboard, to England where they met with a gracious reception. Peter Martyr justly observes, that America should have been called *Cabotiana*; or *Sebastiana*, as Cabot discovered more of it than either Columbus or Vespucius; and he certainly discovered that part of the continent before either of them. Stowe and Speed ascribe these discoveries wholly to Sebastian, without mentioning his father. It is probable that Sebastian, after his father's death, made several voyages to these parts, as a map of his discoveries, drawn by himself, was hung up in the privy garden at Whitehall. However, history gives but little account of his life for near 30 years; when he went to Spain, where he was made pilot-major, and intrusted with revising all projects for discoveries, which were then very numerous. His great capacity and approved integrity induced many eminent merchants to trade with him about a voyage by the newly discovered straits of Magellan to the Moluccas. He therefore failed in 1525, first to the Canaries: thence to the Cape Verd islands; thence to St Augustin, and the island of Patos; when some of his people beginning to be mutinous, and refusing to go through the straits, he laid aside the design of sailing to the Moluccas; left some of the principal mutineers upon a desart island; and, entering up the rivers of Plata and Paraguay, discovered and built forts in, a large tract of fine country that produced gold, silver, and other rich commodities. He thence dispatched messengers to Spain for a supply of provisions, ammunition,

goods for trade, and a recruit of men: but his request not being readily complied with, after staying 5 years in America, he then returned home; where he met with a cold reception, the merchants being displeased at his not having pursued his voyage to the Moluccas, while his treatment of the mutineers had given umbrage at court. Hence he returned to England; and being introduced to the Duke of Somerset, then lord protector, a new office was erected for him: he was made governor of the mystery and company of the merchant adventurers for the discovery of regions, dominions, islands, and places unknown; a pension was granted him, by letters patent of 66l. 13s. 4d. per annum; and he was consulted in all affairs relative to trade. In 1522, by his advice the court fitted out some ships for the discovery of the northern parts of the world. This produced the first voyage the English made to Russia, and the beginning of that commerce which has ever since been carried on between the two nations. The Russia company was now founded by a charter granted by Philip and Mary; and of this company Sebastian was appointed governor for life. He is said to be the first who took notice of the variation of the needle, and who published a map of the world. And he was undoubtedly the founder of the maritime strength of Britain, which has since made this nation so flourishing. The exact time of his death is not known, but he lived to be above 70 years of age.

CABOTE, in ichthyology, a fish of the cuculus kind, more usually known by the name of the GRAY.

CABRA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Tombut. It is large, but without walls; and is situated on the river Niger, about 12 miles from Tombut. The houses are built in the shape of bells; and the walls are made with stakes or hurdles, plastered with clay, and covered with reeds after the manner of thatch. This place is very much frequented by negroes who come by water to trade. The town is very unhealthy, which is probably owing to its low situation. The colour of the inhabitants is black, and their religion a sort of Mahometanism. They manufacture cotton cloths, but import woollens from Barbary. They have plenty of corn, cattle, milk, and butter; but salt is very scarce. The judge who decides controversies is appointed by the king of Tombut. It is 1200 m. S. of Algiers. Lon. 0. 0. E. Lat. 14. 21. N.

CABRACH, [Gael. *i. e.* the timber moss,] a parish of Scotland, in the counties of Aberdeen, and Banff, about 30 miles distant from Aberdeen, and extending 7½ m. in length from S. to N. and 3 in breadth from E. to W. It is surrounded by a range of hills covered with heath, and as its name imports, abounds in firs and mosses. The climate however is pleasant; and in summer it is much resorted to for the goat whey. The soil is wet, and better suited for pasture, than cultivation, the mode of which has not varied for a century. It produces however, as much barley and oats as serves the inhabitants: who buy and sell annually about 2000 sheep and 500 black cattle, retaining of the former 1000 and of the latter 30. Much to the honour of the D. of Gordon, servitudes are abolished. The population, in 1792, as stated by the rev. Mr J. Gordon, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 700, and had decreased 260 since 1755. The crop totally failed in 1782, but by the indulgence of the duke of Gordon, in allowing his tenants to detain their rents to support their families; the spirited exertions of Mr Gordon of Craig, in importing grain, and an almost miraculous interposition of Providence, by the cows calving much earlier and in much greater numbers than usual, in spring 1783, no melancholy effects ensued; though about 200 of the householders emigrated to the towns for work and subsistence. The parish abounds in lime-stone; of which about 4000 bolls are annually burnt and sold.

CABRAGH, a village 2 miles from Dublin.

CABRERA, or CABREIRA, a mountainous island of Spain, near Majorca, and opposite to Cape Salinas. It has a large and safe harbour; yet, excepting a small garrison for its defence, it is uninhabited, being reserved as a place of banishment.

CABRII, the priests of Cybele.

CABRIOLE, *n. s.* a kind of chair. *Ash.*

CABRUSI, in the writings of the ancients, a word frequently used to express Cyprian, or coming from the island of Cyprus. The ancient Greeks had almost all their vitriols and vitriolic minerals from this island; they therefore called these *cabrusi*, without any addition. It is probable that our word *copperas*, the common name of green vitriol is derived from this word.

CABUI, a West Indian species of hemp, produced in Panama, from a plant resembling CHARDON OF IRIS; when ripe, they lay it to steep in water, and after drying it, beat it with wooden mallets till nothing but the hemp remains, which they afterwards spin, and make thread and ropes of it; the former of which is so hard and tough, that with it they saw iron, by fitting it on a box, and laying a little sand over the metal as the work proceeds. *Rees's Edit. of Chambers's Cyclopædia.*

(1.) CABUL, or GABOUL, a city of Asia, and capital of the province of Cabulistan. It lies on the frontiers of Great Bukharia, on the S. side of the mountains which divide the territories of the Mogul from that part of Great Tartary. It is one of the finest places in that part of the world; large, rich, and very populous. Being considered as the key of the great Mogul's dominions on that side, great care is taken to keep its fortifications in repair, and a numerous garrison is maintained for its security. It lies on the road between Samarcand and Labor; and is much frequented by the Tartars, Persians, and Indians. The Usbec Tartars drive there a great trade in slaves and horses, of which it is said that no fewer are sold than 60,000 annually. The Persians bring black cattle and sheep, which renders provisions very cheap. The city stands on the river Attock, which falls into the Indus, and affords a speedy passage for all the rich commodities in the country behind it; which, when brought to Cabul, are exchanged for slaves and horses, and conveyed by merchants of different countries to all parts of the world. The inhabitants are mostly Pagans, though the officers of the Mogul and most of the garrison are Mahometans. Cabul has several fine palaces and

spacious caravanseras; and lies 680 m. N. W. of Delhi. Lon. 68. 58. E. Lat. 34. 36. N.

(2.) CABUL, a town of the tribe of Asher.

(3.) CABUL, the name given by Hiram king of Tyre, to the Galilean territory of 20 cities, which Solomon presented him with. 1 Kings, ix. 13.

(4.) CABUL, or CABULISTAN, } a province of Asia, formerly belonging to the Great Mogul; but ceded in 1739 to Kouli Khan, who at that time governed Persia. According to Walker, it is now subject to the king of Candahar. It is bounded on the N. by Bukharia, on the E. by Cashmere, on the W. by Zabulistan; on the S. W. by Candahar; and on the S. by Multan. It is 250 miles in length, 240 in breadth, and its chief town is CABUL, (N. 1.) This country in general is not very fruitful; but in the vales they have good pasture lands. The roads are much infested with banditti; which obliges the natives to have guards for the security of travellers. The Cabulistans are pagans, and their extraordinary time of devotion is at the full moon in February, and it continues for two days. At this time they are clothed in red, make their offerings, dance to the sound of the trumpet, and make visits to their friends in masquerade dresses. They say, their god CRUSHMAN killed a giant who was his enemy, and that he appeared like a little child; in memory of which, they cause a child to shoot at the figure of a giant. These of the same tribe make bonfires, and feast together in a jovial manner. The chief moral duty of their religion consists in charity; for which reason, they dig wells and build houses for the accommodation of travellers. They have plenty of provisions, mines of iron, myrobolans, aromatic woods, and drugs of many kinds. They carry on a great trade with the neighbouring countries; by which means they are very rich, and are plentifully supplied with all things.

CABULISTANS, the people of CABUL, N. 1, 4.

CABURE, in ornithology, a small Brasilian bird of the owl kind; very beautiful, and easily tamed. It is brown, variegated with white, and is feathered down to the toes. The Brasilians keep it tame for its diverting tricks; it will play with people like a monkey, and is perfectly harmless.

CABUREIBA, in botany, a name given by some authors to the tree which affords the black Peruvian balsam.

CABURN, a town near Caistor, Lincolnshire.

(1.) * CABURNS. *n. s.* Small ropes used in ships. *Dict.*

(2.) CABURNS are made of spun yarn, to bind cables, seize tackles, or the like.

CABUS, a village in Lancashire.

CACABOGA, in zoology, an American serpent, by some accounted the same with the TARASCUA, or black water snake; but by others described as yellow in colour, living about houses, and doing great mischief among poultry, though its bite is not fatal to mankind.

CACABUS, *n. s.* a kettle; a pipkin. *Ash.*

CACACA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Fez, near Malilla.

CACAFUEGO, an insect in Spain, which is said to dart fire from its tail in the night.

CACAGOGA, in ancient medicinal writers, a word used for certain ointments intended for rubbing on the fundament to procure stools. The most common of these was made of alum mixed with honey, and boiled till the whole was of a tawney colour.

(1.) CACALIA, in botany, ALPINE COLT'S FOOT; a genus of the polygamia æqualis order, belonging to the syngenesia class of plants. The receptacle is naked; the pappus hairy; the calyx cylindrical, oblong and calyculated, or having a small calx of very short scales only at the base. There are 10 species; viz.

1. CACALIA ALPINA, with kidney-shaped leaves.

2. CACALIA ANTI-EUPHORBIUM, with oblong oval leaves.

3. CACALIA ATRIPLICI FOLIA, with heart-shaped sinuated leaves.

4. CACALIA FICOIDES, a native of the Cape of Good Hope. It rises with strong round stalks to the height of 7 or 8 feet, woody at bottom, but soft and succulent upward, sending out many irregular branches, garnished more than half their length with thick, taper, succulent leaves, a little compressed on two sides, ending in points, covered with a whitish glaucous farina, which comes off when handled. These, when broken, emit a strong odour of turpentine, and are full of a viscous juice; at the extremity of the branches the flowers are produced in small umbels; they are white, tubulous, and cut into 5 parts at the top. The leaves are pickled by the French, who cherish them much. They have a method of preserving the white farina upon them, which adds greatly to the beauty of the pickle when brought to table.

5. CACALIA GLABRA, with smooth leaves.

6. CACALIA KLEINIA, with a compound stalk by stalk. It grows naturally in the Canary islands, but has long been cultivated in the English gardens. It rises with a thick fleshy stem divided at certain distances, into so many joints. Each of these divisions swell much larger in the middle than at each end; and the stalks divide into many irregular branches of the same form, which, toward their extremities, are garnished with long narrow, spear shaped leaves of a glaucous colour, standing all round the stalks without order. In they fall off, they leave a scar at the place, which always remains on the branches. The flowers are produced in large clusters at the extremity of the branches, which are tubulous, and of a faint carnation colour. They appear in August and September, but continue great part of October, and are not succeeded by seeds in this country. They have been stones and coffins dug up at a very great depth in some parts of England having very perfect impressions of this plant upon them; from whence Dr Woodward has supposed the plants were lodged there at the universal deluge; and finding the impressions of many other plants and animals which are natives of those islands, he concludes that the water flowed hither from the S. W. This plant has been called the CABBAGE TREE, from the resemblance which the stalk of it has to the cabbage: others have intitled it CANARIOUS TREE, from the shape of the leaves and the colour of the flowers.

7. CACA-

7. CACALIA LUTEA, with leaves divided into 5 acute parts.

8. CACALIA PAPILLARIS, with a ſhrubby ſtalk guarded on every ſide with broken rough foot-ſtalks.

9. CACALIA SONCHIFOLIA, with lyre-ſhaped indented leaves.

10. CACALIA SUAVEOLENS, with a herbaceous ſtalk, a native of North America. It has a perennial creeping root, which ſends out many ſtalks, varniſhed with triangular ſpear-ſhaped leaves ſharply ſawed on their edges, of a pale green on their under ſide, but a deep ſhining green above, placed alternately. The ſtalks riſe to 7 or 8 feet, and are terminated by umbels of white flowers, which are ſucceeded by oblong ſeeds covered with down. It flowers in Auguſt, and the ſeeds ripen in October. The ſtalks decay in autumn, and new ones riſe in ſpring. This plant multiplies greatly by its ſpreading roots, as well as by the ſeeds, which are ſpread to a great diſtance by the wind, their down greatly aſſiſting their conveyance. The roots caſt out of Chelſea garden, being carried by the tide to a great diſtance, have fixed themſelves on the banks of the river, and increaſed ſo much, that in a few years this ſpecies may probably appear as a native of England.

(II.) CACALIÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The 4th, 5th, and 10th ſpecies are very eaſily propagated. The laſt (N. 10.) will propagate itſelf, either by roots or ſeeds. The FICOIDES is eaſily propagated by cuttings during the ſummer months: Theſe ſhould be cut from the plants and laid to dry a fortnight, that the wound may be healed over before they are planted. Moſt people plunge the pots in which theſe are planted into an hot-bed, to promote their putting out roots; but if planted in June or July, they will root as well in the open air. Even branches broken off by accident have frequently put out roots when fallen on the ground, without any care. Theſe branches may be kept ſix months out of the ground, and will take root if planted. They ſhould have a light ſandy earth, and in winter be placed in an airy glaſs-caſe, where they may enjoy the ſun and air in mild weather, but muſt be protected from froſt. During winter the plants muſt have but little water; and in ſummer, when they are placed in the open air, it ſhould not be given to them too often, or in great quantity. The LEINIA is alſo propagated by cuttings, and the plants require the ſame culture; but muſt have a very warm glaſs caſe in winter, and very little water, being ſubject to rot with wet. In ſummer they muſt be placed in the open air in a warm ſheltered ſituation, and in very dry weather refreſhed moderately with water. With this management the plants will flower annually, and grow to the height of 8 or 10 feet.

(1.) * CACAO. See CHOCOLATE NUT.

(2.) CACAO, in botany. See THEOBROMA.

CACAOTETE, in natural hiſtory, the name by which the Braſilians call the BELEMNITES.

CACAVATE, } in botany, names given by au-
CACAVERA, } thors to the cocoa tree. See COCOS.

CACAVIA, in botany, a name given by the Greek authors and others to the LOTUS.

CACCALIA, in botany, a name given by ſome of the old Greek writers to the *alkekengi*, or winter cherry. See PHYSALIS.

CACCABON, in botany, a ſynonime of the NYMPHÆ.

CACCOONS. See FLEVILLEA.

CACEMPHATON, } *n. ſ.* [from κακος, bad,
CACEPHATON } and φημι, to ſpeak,] A harſh ſound of words.

CACERES, a town of Spain, in Eſtremadura, ſeated on the river Saler, and noted for the exceeding fine wool which the ſheep bear in the neighbourhood. Between this town and Brocos, there is a wood, where the allies defeated the rear-guard of the duke of Berwick, April 7th 1706. Lon. 5. 44. E. Lat. 39. 11. N.

CACHALOT, in ichthyology. See PHYSETER.

CACHAN, or CASHAN, a conſiderable town of Perſia in Irac Agemi, where they carry on an extenſive trade in ſilks, ſilver, and gold brocades, and fine earthen ware. It is ſeated in a vaſt plain 55 miles N. by W. of Iſpahan. Lon. 51. 55. E. Lat. 33. 20. N.

(1.) CACHAO, a province of Tonquin in Aſia, ſituated in the heart of the kingdom, and ſurrounded by the other 7. Its ſoil is fertile, and in ſome places mountainous, abounding with variety of trees, and particularly that of varniſh. Moſt of theſe provinces carry on ſome branch of the ſilk manufacture, but this moſt of all.

(2.) CACHAO, or KECIO, the capital of the province, (N° 1.) the metropolis of the whole kingdom, though in other reſpects hardly comparable to a Chineſe town of the third rank. It is ſituated about 80 leagues from the ſea, and is prodigiouſly crowded with people, inſomuch that the ſtreets are hardly paſſable, eſpecially on market days. Theſe vaſt crowds, however, come moſtly from the neighbouring villages; upon which account theſe villages have been allowed their halls in particular parts of the city, where they lodge and diſpoſe of their wares. The town itſelf has neither walls nor fortifications. The principal ſtreets are wide and airy, but the reſt narrow and ill-paved. The houſes are low and mean, moſtly built of wood and clay, and not above one ſtory high. The magazines and warehouſes belonging to foreigners are the only edifices built of brick; and though plain, yet, by reaſon of their height and more elegant ſtructure, make a conſiderable ſhow among thoſe rows of wooden huts. From the combuſtibility of its edifices, this city ſuffers frequent and dreadful conflagrations. Theſe ſpread with ſuch ſurpriſing velocity, that ſome thouſands of houſes are often laid in aſhes before the fire can be extinguiſhed. To prevent theſe ſad conſequences, every houſe hath, either in its yard or even in its centre, ſome low building of brick, in form of an oven, into which the inhabitants on the firſt alarm convey their moſt valuable goods. Beſides this precaution, which every family takes to ſecure their goods, the government obliges them to keep a ciſtern, or ſome other capacious veſſel, always full of water on the top of their houſe, to be ready on all occaſions of this nature; with a long pole and bucket, to throw water from the kennel upon the houſes. If theſe two expedients fail of ſuppreſſing the flames, they immediately

CACORLA, or CACORLO, } a town of Spain, in Andalusia, seated on the Vega.

CACOSITARA, in logic, an argument that will ſerve either ſide. *Aſſo.*

CACOSPHYXY, [from κακος, and σφυξις, the pulſe,] a bad pulſe.

CACOSYNTHETON, [from κακος, and συνθεσις, a joining,] a bad conſtruction of words in a ſentence.

CACOTECHNY, [from κακος, and τεχνη, art,] a hurtful invention.

CACOTROPHY, [from κακος, and τροφη, nouriſhment,] a bad nouriſhment.

CACOTYCHE, in aſtrology, bad fortune.

CACOZELIA, [from κακος, and ζηλος, zeal,] bad imitation; affectation.

CACTONITES, in natural hiſtory, a name given by ſome old writers, to a beautiful pale red ſtone, ſuppoſed to be the ſame with our pale cornelian.

CACTUS, in botany, MELON THISTLE: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the icoſandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 13th order, *Succulentæ*. The calyx is monophyllous; ſuperior, or above the receptacle of the fruit imbricated; the corolla polypetalous; the fruit an unilocular, polyſpermous berry. To this genus Linnæus has added the CEREUS and OPUNTIA. The cacti are plants of a ſingular ſtructure, but eſpecially the larger kinds of them; which appear like a large, fleſhy, green melon, with deep ribs, ſet all over with ſtrong ſharp thorns; and, when the plants are cut through the middle, their inſide is a ſoft, pale-green, fleſhy ſubſtance, very full of moiſture. The fruits of all the ſpecies are frequently eaten by the inhabitants of the Weſt Indies. They are about ¾ of an inch in length, of a taper form, drawing to a point at the bottom toward the plant, but blunt at the top where the empalement of the flower was ſituated. The taſte is agreeably acid, which in a hot country muſt render them grateful. There are 24 ſpecies, all natives of the Weſt Indies. The two following are the moſt remarkable: viz.

1. CACTUS COCHENILLIFER, the ſpecies which the cochineal animals inhabit. See COCCUS, N° 1.

2. CACTUS GRANDIFLORA, one of the creeping cereuſes. The flower of this ſpecies, though very ſhort-lived, is ſaid to be as grand and beautiful as any in the vegetable ſyſtem: It begins to open in the evening about 7 o'clock, is in perfection about 11, and fades about 4 in the morning; ſo that the ſame flower only continues in perfection about ſix hours. The calyx when expanded is about a foot in diameter, of a ſplendid yellow within, and a dark brown without; the petals are many, and of a pure white; and the great number of recurved ſtamina, ſurrounding the ſtyle in the centre of the flower, make a grand appearance, to which may be added the fine ſcent, which perfumes the air to a conſiderable diſtance. It flowers in July.

CACUBALUM, chickweed. See CUCUBALUS.

CACULE, in the materia medica, a name given by Avicenna, Serapion, and all the other Arabian writers, to the cardamom ſeeds. They diſtinguiſh two kinds of this fruit, a larger, and a ſmaller. The larger is the grain of paradiſe, and the ſmaller the common cardamom. See AMOMUM.

* *To* CACUMINATE. *v. a.* [*cacumino*, Lat.] To make ſharp or pyramidal. *Dict.*

CACUS, in fabulous hiſtory, the ſon of Vulcan, an Italian ſhepherd upon mount Aventine. As Hercules was driving home the herd of king Geryon whom he had ſlain, Cacus robbed him of ſome of his oxen, which he drew backward into his den leſt they ſhould be diſcovered, by their traces. Hercules at laſt finding them out by their lowing, killed Cacus with his club. He was ſaid to have been of prodigious bulk, half man half ſatyr, and to have had three heads!

CADAN, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Zats, ſeated on the N. bank of the river Egra. Lon. 13. 34. E. Lat. 50. 20. N.

CADARI, or KADARI, [from קדר, *cadara*, Arab. *i. e.* power,] a ſect of Mahometans, who aſſert free-will; attribute the actions of men to men alone, not to any ſecret power determining the will; and deny all abſolute predeſtination. The author of this ſect was Mabed ben Kaled Alboni, who ſuffered martyrdom for it. Ben Adi calls the Cadari, the Magi, or Manichees of the Muſſulmen.

* CADAVEROUS. *adj.* [*cadaver*, Lat.] Having the appearance of a dead carcaſs; having the qualities of a dead carcaſs. In vain do they ſcrupulouſly to approach the dead, who livingly are *cadaverous*; for fear of any outward pollution whilſt themſelves pollutes themſelves. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.* —The urine, long detained in the bladder, as well as glaſs, will grow red, fœtid, *cadaverous* and alkaline. The caſe is the ſame with the ſtagnant waters of hydropical perſons. *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*

CAD-BATE. See CADDIS, *def.* 2.

(1, 2.) CADBURY, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. in Devonſhire, W. of Bradninch: 2. in Yorkſhire, W. of Doncaſter:

(3.) CADBURY, NORTH, and } between Queen-
(4.) CADBURY, SOUTH, } Camel and Wincanton, Somerſetſhire.

CADDER, or CALDER, a parith of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire, 13 miles long from E. to W. and nearly 4 broad, from N. to S. Its W. point is 3 miles from Glaſgow, and its Eaſtern within a mile of Kirkintilloch. The ſurface is level, and the ſoil conſiſts of moſs, ſandy till, and deep rich, which produce excellent crops of oats, barley, potatoes, flax, clover and rye graſs. Free-ſtone, whin-ſtone and lime-ſtone quarries are abundant. The population in 1792, as ſtated by Mr William Barclay, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2,[illegible] and had decreaſed 629, within 37 years. At that period, there were 377 horſes, 1285 cows, [illegible] ſheep, 41 ſwine, 202 dogs, 284 carts, 138 plough[illegible] 158 weavers looms, 107 watches, 110 clocks, [illegible] ſlated houſes, 13 public ditto, 9 mills, 4 ſchools, 6 dove cotes, and 6 burying-places in the parish.

CADDINGTON, a town in Bedfordſhire, between Kneefworth and Luton.

* CADDIS. *n. ſ.* [This word is uſed in Erſe for the variegated clothes of the Highlanders.] 1. A kind of tape or ribbon.—He hath ribbons of all the colours of the rainbow; inkles, *caddiſes*, garters,

1. CACHRYS HUNGARICA, with a plain, fungous, channelled ſeed:

2. CACHRYS LIBANOTIS, with ſmooth furrowed ſeeds:

3. CACHRYS LINEARIS, with plain channelled fruit:

4. CACHRYS SICULA, with double winged leaves:

5. CACHRYS TRIFIDA, with bipinnated leaves. All theſe plants are perennial plants, riſing pretty high, and bearing large umbels of yellow flowers, and may be propagated by ſeeds which ought to be ſown ſoon after they are ripe; for if they are kept out of the ground till the next ſpring, they often miſcarry. They muſt alſo be ſown in a ſhady border where they are to remain: for the plants having long top-roots, will not bear tranſplanting ſo well as many others. The Hungarians in the neighbourhood of Erlaw, and thoſe who border on Tranſylvania, Servia, &c. eat the root of the 1ſt ſpecies in a ſcarcity of corn.

(II.) CACHRYS, or CANCHRYS, in ancient botany, denoted a ſcaly tuft, growing like a katkin on the oak, beech, pine, &c. or, according to others, an unſeaſonable kind of bud, appearing either in ſpring, or autumn, and which, after the winter is over, ſpreads or ſhoots into branches. The word is ſometimes alſo uſed for the ſeed of roſemary, or even the plant itſelf; ſometimes for barley roaſted in a furnace, to render it more eaſy to be ground into flour.

CACHU. See CATECHU.

CACHUNDE, a medicine, highly celebrated among the Chineſe and Indians, made of ſeveral aromatic ingredients, perfumes, medicinal earth, and precious ſtones. They make the whole into a ſtiff paſte, and form out of it ſeveral figures according to their fancy, which are dried for uſe: theſe are principally uſed in the Eaſt Indies, but are ſometimes brought over to Portugal. In China, the principal perſons uſually carry a ſmall piece in their mouths, which is a continued cordial, and gives their breath a very ſweet ſmell. It is a highly valuable medicine alſo, in all nervous complaints; and is eſteemed a prolonger of life, and a provocative to venery, the two great intentions of moſt of the medicines in uſe in the Eaſt.

CACHYMIA, in metallurgy, a term uſed by Raceſus for an imperfect metalline ore.

* CACKEREL. *n. ſ.* A fiſh, ſaid to make thoſe who eat it laxative.

CACKHAM, a town in Suſſex, near Selſey.

* CACKLE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The voice of a gooſe or fowl.—

The ſilver gooſe before the ſhining gate
There flew, and, by her *cackle*, ſav'd the ſtate.
Dryden.

2. To talk idly.

* *To* CACKLE. *v. n.* [*kaeckelen*, Dutch.] 1. To make a noiſe as a gooſe.—

The nightingale, if ſhe ſhould ſing by day,
When every gooſe is *cackling*, would be thought
No better a muſician than the wren. *Shakeſp.*

Or rob the Roman geeſe of all their glories,
And ſave the ſtate, by *cackling* to the tories. *Pope.*

Sometimes it is uſed for the noiſe of a hen.—

The trembling widow, and her daughters twain,
This woful *cackling* cry, with horrour heard,
Of thoſe diſtracted damſels in the yard. *Dryd.*

3. To laugh; to giggle.—Nic. grinned, *cackled*, and laughed, till he was like to kill himſelf, and fell a friſking and dancing about the room. *Arbuth.*

* CACKLER. *n. ſ.* [from *cackle*.] 1. A fowl that cackles. 2. A teltale; a tatler.

CACOCHYLIA, [from κακος, bad, and χυλος, chyle,] A bad ſtate of the chyle; a bad digeſtion.

CACOCHYMIA, [from κακος, ill, and χυμος, juice,] a vicious ſtate of the vital humours, eſpecially of the maſs of blood; ariſing either from a diſorder of the ſecretions or excretions, or from external contagion.

* CACOCHYMICAL. } *adj.* [from *cacochymy*.]
* CACOCHYMICK. } Having the humours corrupted.—It will prove very advantageous, if only *cacochymick*, to clarify his blood with a laxative. *Harvey on Conſumptions.*—If the body be *cacochymical*, the tumours are apt to degenerate into very venomous and malignant abſceſſes. *Wiſeman.*—The ancient writers diſtinguiſhed putrid fevers, by putrefaction of blood, choler, melancholy, and phlegm; and this is to be explained by an effervеſcence happening in a particular *cacochymical* blood. *Floyer on Humours.*

* CACOCHYMY. *n. ſ.* [κακοχυμια.] A depravation of the humours from a ſound ſtate, to what the phyſicians call by a general name of a *cacochymy*. Spots, and diſcolourations of the ſkin, are ſigns of weak fibres; for the lateral veſſels, which lie out of the road of circulation, let groſs humours paſs, which could not, if the veſſels had their due degree of ſtricture. *Arbuth. on Aliments.*—Strong beer, a liquour that attributes the half of its ill qualities to the hops, conſiſting of an acrimonious fiery nature, ſets the blood, upon the leaſt *cacochymy*, into an orgaſmus. *Harvey.*

CACODÆMON, an evil ſpirit; the devil.

CACODES, in ancient medical writers, a name given to matter diſcharged from the human body, with an ill ſmell.

(1.) CACOETHES, [from κακος, and ηθος, habit,] A bad habit; a malignant ulcer.

(2.) CACOETHES SCRIBENDI, an itch for ſcribbling; a phraſe applied to bad authors,

——————" who, in ſpite
" Of nature and their ſtars, will write." *Hud.*

CACOLOGY, *n. ſ.* a bad pronunciation.

CACONGO, a ſmall kingdom of Africa, watered by the Zaire. The cuſtoms of the people are much the ſame with thoſe of the natives of LOANGO, which ſee. See alſo ANGOY, § 1.

CACOPATHY, [from κακος, bad, and παθος, paſſion,] a ſtate of ſuffering under a very painful diſeaſe.

(1.) CACOPHONIA, [from κακος, evil, and φωνη, voice,] in grammar and rhetoric, the meeting of two letters, or ſyllables, which yield an uncouth and diſagreeable ſound.

(2.) CACOPHONIA, in medicine, denotes a defect or deprivation of the voice or ſpeech; of which there are two ſpecies, APHONIA and DYSPHONIA.

* CACOPHONY. *n. ſ.* [κακοφωνια.] A bad ſound of words.—Theſe things ſhall lie by, till you come to carp at them, and alter rhimes, grammar, triplets and *cacophonies* of all kinds. *Pope to Swift.*

CACORITHMUS, an unequal pulſe.

CACO-

from Ezion-geber; and the burial-places of Miriam, with the rock and water of Meribah in it.

(3.) CADES, or KADESH, a name given to the wilderness of Zin.

(4.) CADES, or CADES-BARNEA, } in ancient geography, a town of the Wilderness of Paran, on the confines of Canaan, from which the spies were sent out.

(1.) * CADET. *n. f.* [*cadet*, Fr. pronounced *cade*.] 1. The younger brother. 2. The youngest brother.—Joseph was the youngest of the 12, and David the 7th son, and the *cadet* of Jesse. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.* 3. A voluntier in the army, who serves in expectation of a commission.

(2.) CADET is a word naturalized in our language from the French. At Paris, among the citizens, the cadets had an equal patrimony with the reſt, even before the eſtabliſhment of *equality*, by the abolition of the law of primogeniture, under the new conſtitution. At Caux, in Normandy, the cuſtom was to leave all to the eldeſt, except a ſmall portion to the cadets. In Spain, it is uſual for one of the cadets in great families to take the mother's name.

(3.) CADET, in military language, (§ 1. def. 3.) differs from volunteer, as the former takes pay, whereas the latter ſerves without pay. During the preſent war, however, volunteers have been entitled to receive pay, when in actual ſervice.

* CADEW. *n. ſ.* A ſtraw worm. See CADDIS. *Dict.*

CADGE, *n. ſ.* in falconry, the wooden frame on which the hawk is carried.

* CADGER. *n. ſ.* [from *cadge*, or *cage*, a *panier*.] A huckſter; one who brings butter, eggs, and poultry, from the country to market.

CADHA, the name given by the Mahometans to the doctrine of abſolute predeſtination.

CADHI. See CADI, § 2.

(1.) * CADI. *n. ſ.* A magiſtrate among the Turks, whoſe office ſeems nearly to anſwer to that of a juſtice of peace.

(2.) CADI, or CADHI, [קדי, or קאדי, Arab, *i. e.* a judge,] in the Turkiſh empire, is generally taken for the judge of a town; judges of provinces being diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of MOULAS. There are numerous complaints of the avarice, iniquity, and extortion, of the Turkiſh cadis; all juſtice is venal; the people bribe the cadis, the cadis bribe the moulas, and the moulas the cadileſchers, and the cadileſchers the mufti. Each cadi has his ſerjeants, who ſummon perſons to anſwer complaints. If the party ſummoned fails to appear at the hour appointed, ſentence is paſſed in favour of his adverſary. It is uſually vain to appeal from the ſentences of the cadi, as the cauſe is never heard anew, but judgment is paſſed on the caſe as ſtated by the cadi. But the cadis are often caſhiered and puniſhed for flagrant injuſtice with the baſtinado and mulcts; the law, however, does not allow them to be put to death. Conſtantinople has had cadis ever ſince 1390, when Bajazet I. obliged John Paleologus, emperor of the Greeks, to admit cadis to judge all controverſies that occurred between the Greeks and the Turks ſettled there. In ſome countries of Aſia, the cadis are alſo judges of religious matter.

Among the Moors, cadi is the denomination of their higher order of prieſts or doctors, anſwering to the rabbins among the Jews.

CADIACI, the Turkiſh name of Chalcedon. See CHALCEDON.

CADIANG, in botany, a kind of lentiles in Batavia, and the adjacent country, which make a conſiderable part of the food of the people.

CADILESCHER, or } a capital officer of juſ-
CADILESKER, } tice among the Turks, anſwering to a chief juſtice among us. It is ſaid, that this authority was originally confined to the ſoldiery; but that, at preſent, it extends to the determination of all kinds of law-ſuits; only it is ſubject to appeals. There are but 3 cadileſchers in all the grand ſignior's territories, viz. 1ſt. of Europe; 2d. of Natolia; and, 3d. at Grand Cairo. This laſt is the moſt conſiderable. They have their ſeats in the divan next to the grand vizir.

CADILLAC, a town of France, in the department of Gironde, and ci-devant province of Guienne, near the river Garonne. It has a handſome caſtle, and lies 15 m. S. E. of Bourdeaux. Lon. 0. 22. W. Lat. 43. 40. N.

* CADILLACK. *n. ſ.* A ſort of pear.

CADITES, an appellation given by Plott, to a kind of figured ſtone, reſembling a cadus or barrel. It ſwells in the middle, and tapers to both ends, being divided lengthwiſe, with ſeveral equidiſtant lineaments, as are uſually made by the ſtaves of a barrel, but without hoops or hollow.

CADIZ, a city and port of Spain, in Andaluſia, ſituated on the iſland of Leon, oppoſite to Port St Mary on the continent, about 60 m. W. of Seville, and 45 N. W. of Gibraltar. It occupies the whole ſurface of the weſtern extremity of the iſland, which is compoſed of two ſemicircular parts, joined together by a very narrow bank of ſand, forming altogether the figure of a chain-ſhot. At the S. E. end, the ancient bridge of Suaco, thrown over a deep river, affords a communication between the iſland and the continent; a ſtrong line of works defends the city from all approaches along the iſthmus; and, to render them ſtill more difficult, all the gardens and little villas on the beach were in 1762 cleared away, and a dreary ſandy glacis left in their room, ſo that now there is ſcarce a tree on the whole iſland. Except the *Calle Ancha*, all the ſtreets are narrow, ill-paved, and inſufferably ſmoaky. They are all drawn in ſtraight lines, and moſt of them interſect each other at right angles. The ſwarms of rats that in the nights run about the ſtreets are innumerable; whole droves of them paſs and repaſs continually, and their midnight revels are extremely troubleſome to ſuch as walk late. The houſes are lofty, with each a veſtibule, which being left open till night, ſerve paſſengers to retire to; this cuſtom which prevails throughout Spain, renders theſe places exceedingly offenſive. In the middle of the houſe is a court like a deep well, under which is generally a ciſtern, the breeding place of gnats and moſquitos; the ground-floors are ware houſes, the firſt ſtories compoſing houſes or kitchen, and the principal apartment up two pair of ſtairs. The roofs are flat, covered with an impenetrable cement, and few are without a *mirador* or turret, to view the ſea.

Round

Round the parapet wall at top are placed rows of ſquare pillars, meant either for ornament, or to fix awnings to, that ſuch as ſit there, for the benefit of the ſea-breeze, may be ſheltered from the ſun; but the moſt common uſe made of them, is to faſten ropes for drying linens upon. High above all theſe pinnacles, which give Cadiz a moſt ſingular appearance, ſtands the tower of ſignals. Here flags are hung out on the firſt ſight of a ſail, marking the ſize of the ſhip, the nation it belongs to, and, if a Spaniſh Indiaman, the port of the Indies it comes from. The ſhips are acquainted with the proper ſignals to be made, and theſe are repeated by the watchmen of the tower; as painted liſts are in every houſe, perſons concerned in commerce ſoon learn the marks. The city is divided into 24 diſtricts, under the inſpection of as many commiſſioners of police; and its population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and at leaſt as many more Italians. Walker and others, however, ſtate the population at only 50,000 in all. The ſquare of Saint Antonio is large, and tolerably handſome, and there are a few ſmaller openings of no great note. The public walk, or Alameda, is pleaſant in the evening: it is fenced off the coach road by a marble rail. The ſea-air prevents the trees from thriving, and deſtroys all hopes of future ſhade. Weſtward from the Alameda, is the Compoſanto, a large eſplanade, the only airing place for coaches; it turns round moſt part of the W. and S. ſides of the iſland, but the buildings are ſtraggling and ugly; the only edifice of any ſhow is the new orphan-houſe; oppoſite to it is the fortreſs of St Sebaſtian, built on a neck of land running out into the ſea. The round tower at the extremity is ſuppoſed to have ſaved the city, in the great earthquake of 1755, from being ſwept away by the fury of the waves. The building proved ſufficiently ſolid to withſtand the ſhock, and break the immenſe volume of water that threatened deſtruction to the whole iſland. In the narrow part of the iſthmus the ſurge beat over with amazing impetuoſity, and bore down all before it; among the reſt, the grandſon of the famous tragic poet, Racine, who ſtrove in vain to eſcape, by urging his horſe to the utmoſt of his ſpeed. On St Sebaſtian's feaſt, a kind of fair is held in the fort; an aſtoniſhing number of people then paſſing and repaſſing, on a ſtring of wooden bridges laid from rock to rock, makes a very ſtriking appearance. From hence to the wooden circus where they exhibit the bull-feaſts, upon turning to the left, cloſe above the ſea, (which on all this ſide daſhes over large ledges of rocks;) the ſhore ſeems abſolutely inacceſſible. On this ſhore ſtands the cathedral, a work of great expence, but carried on with ſo little expedition, that it is difficult to gueſs at the term of years it will require to bring it to perfection. The vaults are executed with great ſolidity. The arches, that ſpring from the cluſter of pilaſters to ſupport the roof, are very bold; the minute ſculpture beſtowed upon them ſeems ſuperfluous, as all the effect will be loſt from their great height, and from the ſhade that will be thrown upon them by filling up the interſtices. From the ſea, the preſent top of the church reſembles the carcaſe of ſome huge monſter caſt upon its ſide, rearing its gigantic blanched ribs high above the buildings of the city. The outward caſings are to be of white marble, the bars of the windows of bronze. Next, croſſing before the landgate and barracks, a ſuperb edifice for ſtrength, convenience, and cleanlineſs, we come down to the ramparts that defend the city on the ſide of the bay. If the proſpect to the ocean is ſolemn, that towards the main land is animated in the higheſt degree; the men of war ride in the eaſtern boſom of the bay; lower down the merchantmen are ſpread far and near; and cloſe to the town an incredible number of barks, of various ſhapes and ſizes, cover the ſurface of the water, ſome moored and ſome in motion. The oppoſite ſhore of Spain, ſtudded with white houſes, and enlivened by the towns of St Mary's, Port-real, Medina Sidonia, and the mountains of Granada, beautify the ſcene, and weſtward, Rota cloſes the horizon. In a large baſtion, jutting out into the bay, ſtands the cuſtom-houſe, the firſt ſtorey of which is level with the walk upon the walls. When it was reſolved to erect a building ſo neceſſary to this great emporium of trade, the marquis di Squillace gave orders that no expence ſhould be ſpared, and the moſt intelligent architects employed, to erect a monument, which by its taſte and magnificence might excite the admiration of poſterity. The reſult, however, produced only a piece of vile architecture, compoſed of the worſt materials. The ſtir at Cadiz is prodigious during the laſt months of the ſtay of the flota. The packers poſſeſs the art of preſſing goods in great perfection; but, as they pay the freight according to the cubic palms of each bale, they are apt to ſqueeze down the cloths and linens ſo very cloſe and hard, as ſometimes to render them unfit for uſe. The exportation of French luxuries in dreſs is enormous; Lyons furniſhes moſt of them; and England ſends out bale goods. Every commercial nation has a conſul reſident at Cadiz. In 1596, Cadiz was taken, pillaged and burnt by the Engliſh. In 1702, it was attempted in conjunction with the Dutch, without ſucceſs. It is 30 miles W. by S. of Malaga. Lon. 6. 6. W. Lat. 36. 31. N.

CADIZADELITES, a ſect of Mahometans very like the ancient ſtoics. They ſhun feaſts and diverſions, and affect an extraordinary gravity in all their actions; they are continually talking of God, and ſome of them make a jumble of Chriſtianity and Mahometaniſm. They drink wine, even in the faſt of the Ramazan; they love and protect the Chriſtians; they believe that Mahomet is the Holy Ghoſt, practiſe circumciſion, and juſtify it by the example of Jeſus Chriſt. They read the Sclavonic tranſlation of the Bible, as well as the Koran.

CADIZ-HEAD, near Warrington, Lancaſh.

CADLAND, in the New Foreſt, Hampſhire.

CADLEY, two villages in Devonſhire, 1. W. of Columbton; and, 2. near Ottery St Mary's.

CADMEAN LETTERS, the ancient Greek or Ionic characters, ſuch as they were firſt brought by Cadmus from Phœnicia; whence Herodotus alſo calls them *Phœnician letters*. Some ſay, that Cadmus was not the inventor, nor even the importer of the Greek letters, but only the modeller

and reformer of the alphabet; and hence they acquired the appellation *Cadmean* or *Phœnician letters*; whereas before that time they had been called PELASGIAN.

(I.) CADMIA, in pharmacy, a name which has been variously applied; but it usually denotes a mineral substance, whereof there are two kinds, NATURAL and ARTIFICIAL.

i. CADMIA ARTIFICIAL, } or CADMIA OF THE
CADMIA FORNACUM, } FURNACES, is a matter sublimed when ores containing zinc, like those of Rammelsberg, are smelted. This cadmia consists of the flowers of the semi-metal sublimed during the fusion, and adhering to the inner surfaces of the walls of furnaces, where they suffer a semifusion, and therefore acquire more solidity. So great a quantity of these are collected, that they form very thick incrustations, which must be frequently taken off. The name has also been given to all the soots and metallic sublimates formed by smelting in the grate, although there is certainly a difference in these matters. Chemists distinguish 5 kinds of *Cadmia Fornacum*: viz.

1. CADMIA BOTRYITIS, resembling a bunch of grapes, which is found in the middle of the furnace.

2. CADMIA CALAMITIS, found hanging round the iron rods, with which the matter is stirred in the furnace, and generally in the form of quills; whence the name from *calamus* a quill. It is reckoned deficcative and detersive, and is used to cicatrize ulcers.

3. CADMIA CAPNITIS, found at the mouth of the furnace. It is used by some in diseases of the eyes.

4. CADMIA OSTRACITIS, found at the bottom of the furnace, in the form of a sea shell.

5. CADMIA PLACITIS, found at the top of the furnace, in the form of a crust. It is also used by some in diseases of the eyes.

ii. CADMIA, NATURAL, is of two sorts; the one containing arsenic, and called *cadmia fossilis*, or COBALT; the other containing zinc, called *calamine*, or *lapis calaminaris*. See CALAMINE, § 2.

(II.) CADMIA is also used by Pliny for copper ore, or the stone of which copper is made.

CADMITES, in natural history, a kind of gem, nearly resembling the OSTRACITES; from which it only differs in that the latter is sometimes grit with blue spots.

(1.) CADMUS, in fabulous history, king of Thebes, the son of Agenor king of Phœnicia, and the brother of Phœnix, Cilix, and Europa. He carried into Greece the 16 simple letters of the Greek alphabet; and there built Thebes, in Bœotia. The poets say, that he left his native country in search of his sister Europa, whom Jupiter had carried away in the form of a bull; and that, inquiring of the Delphic oracle for a settlement, he was answered, that he should follow the direction of a cow, and build a city where she lay down. Having arrived among the Phocenses, he was met by a cow, who conducted him through Bœotia to the place where Thebes was afterwards built: but as he was about to sacrifice his guide to Pallas, he sent two of his company to the fountain for water; when they being devoured by a serpent or dragon, he slew the monster, and afterwards, by the advice of Pallas, sowed his teeth, when there sprung up a number of armed soldiers, who prepared to revenge the death of the serpent; but on his casting a stone among these upstart warriors, they turned their weapons against each other with such animosity, that only 5 survived the combat, and these assisted Cadmus in founding his new city. Afterwards, to recompense his labours, the gods gave him Harmonia, the daughter of Mars and Venus; and honoured his nuptials with presents and peculiar marks of favour. But at length resigning Thebes to Pentheus, Cadmus and Harmonia went to govern the Ecclellenses: when grown old, they were transformed into serpents; or, as others say, sent to the Elysian fields, in a chariot drawn by serpents. See THEBES.

(2.) CADMUS of Miletum, a celebrated Greek historian, was, according to Pliny, the first of the Greeks who wrote history in prose. He flourished about A. A. C. 550.

CADNAM-HOUSE, a village in Wiltshire, near Malford.

CADNEY, S. of Glandford bridge, Lincoln.

(1.) CADORE, or PIEVE DE CADORE, a town of Italy, and capital of the district, (N. 2.) famous for the birth of Titian. It was taken by the French in April 1797. Lon. 13. 45. E. Lat. 46. 25. N.

(2.) CADORE, or } a province of Italy, in the
CADORINO, } territory of Venice; bounded on the E. by Friuli Proper, on the S. and W. by the Belluneſe, and by the bishopric of Brixen on the N. It is very mountainous, but pretty populous. The only town is Cadore, N. 1.

CADRITES, a sort of Mahometan friars, who once a-week spend a great part of the night in turning round, holding each others hand, and repeating incessantly the word *Hai*, which signifies *living*, and is one of the attributes of God: during which one of them plays on a flute. They never cut their hair, nor cover their heads; and always go barefooted: they have liberty to quit their convent when they please, and to marry.

CADSAND, an island on the coast of Batavia, the ci-devant Dutch Flanders, situated at the mouth of the Scheld, whereby the Dutch command the navigation of that river. It was taken by the French on the 29th July, 1794, but was afterwards restored to the Dutch.

CADUCEATOR, in antiquity, a denomination given to heralds or messengers of peace.

(1.) CADUCEUS, in ancient mythology, Mercury's rod, a wand entwisted by two serpents, born by that deity as the ensign of his quality and office; and given him, according to the fable, by Apollo, for his seven-stringed harp. Wonderful properties are ascribed to this rod by the poets; as laying men asleep, raising the dead, &c.

(2.) CADUCEUS, in Roman antiquity, was used as a symbol of peace and concord. The Romans sent the Carthaginians a javelin and a caduceus, offering them their choice either of war or peace. Among that people, those who denounced war were called *fetiales*; and those who went to demand peace CADUCEATORES, because they bore a caduceus in their hand. The caduceus on medals is a common symbol, signifying good conduct, peace, and prosperity. The rod expresses

ower, the two ſerpents prudence, and the two gs diligence.

CADUCI, in botany, [from *cado*, to fall,] the me of a claſs in Linnæus's *Calycina*, conſiſting plants whoſe calyx is a ſimple perianthium, ſupporting a ſingle flower or fructification, and falling off either before or with the petals. It ſtands oppoſed to the *claſſes perſiſtentes*, and is exemplified muſtard and ranunculus.

CADURCI, a people of Aquitania, who anently inhabited CADURCUM and its environs. rt of them were called ELEUTHERI.

CADURCUM, CADURCUS, or CADURX, } in ancient geography, a town of Aquitania; ſituated between the rivers Olus, running from the N. and the Tarnis from e S. and falling into the Garumna; now called AHORS.

CADUS, in antiquity, a wine-veſſel containing amphoræ or firkins; each of which, according the beſt accounts, held 9 gallons, though ſome ke them only 7. See AMPHORA.

CADUSII, a people of Media Atropatene, ſiated to the W. in the mountains, and reaching the Caſpian ſea; between whom and the Medes, erpetual war and enmity continued down to the me of Cyrus.

CADWAN, king of the South Britons, flouriſhed in the beginning of the 7th century. He d a more peaceable reign, than moſt of his preceſſors. He died A. D. 635.

CADWALLO, the ſon of Cadwan, ſucceeded is father in 635, and had many battles with the axons, with various ſucceſs. He joined with enda king of Mercia to oppoſe the other kings of e heptarchy, but was ſlain, A. D. 685.

CADWALLADER, the laſt Britiſh monarch, f the ancient Britiſh blood, was elected upon the eath of Cadwallo, and diſplayed great bravery different battles with the Saxons.—But in a fit f ſuperſtitious zeal, having vowed a pilgrimage Rome, he died there, A. D. 689, and left his doinions an eaſy conqueſt to the Saxon monarchs.

CADZOW, the ancient name of the pariſh of AMILTON.

* CÆCIAS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A wind from the north, aſt.—

Now, from the north
Boreas and *Cæcias* and Argeſtes loud
And Thracias rend the woods, and ſeas upturn,
Milton.

(I.) CÆCILIA, in ichthyology, a name uſed by ome authors for the fiſh ACUS.

(II.) CÆCILIA, in zoology, a genus of ſerpents elonging to the amphibia claſs. The cæcilia has o ſcales; it is ſmooth, and moves by means of teral rugæ or prickles. The upper lip is promient, and furniſhed with two tentacula. It has o tail. There are only two ſpecies, viz.

1. CÆCILIA GLUTINOSA, with 340 rugæ or rickles above, and 10 below, the anus. It is of browniſh colour, with a white line on the ſide, nd is a native of the Indies.

2. CÆCILIA TENTACULATA, with 135 rugæ. t is about a foot long, and an inch in circumfeence, preſerving an uniform cylindrical ſhape rom the one end to the other. The teeth are very ſmall. It has ſuch a reſemblance to an eel that it may eaſily be miſtaken for one; but as it has neither fins nor gills, it cannot be claſſed with the fiſhes. It is a native of America, and its bite is not poiſonous.

CÆCILIANA, in botany, a name uſed by Pliny and others, for the ANDROSÆMUM, or HYPERICUM.

CÆCILIUS, the cognomen or ſirname of an ancient Roman family, which produced ſeveral heroes during the republic.

CÆCITY, *n. ſ.* blindneſs. *Aſh.*

CÆCULUS, in fabulous hiſtory, a ſon of Vulcan, ſaid to have been blinded by a ſpark from his father's forge. The Cæcilian family at Rome, pretended to be deſcended from him.

CÆCUM, or COECUM, the blind gut. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

CÆLATURA, or COELATURA, the art of ENGRAVING on metals, ſtones, woods, or the like, with inſtruments of ſteel, diamond, &c.

CÆLESTIANS, the followers of Cæleſtius. See PELAGIANS.

CÆLESTIUS, a monk who flouriſhed under the empire of Arcadius, about A. D. 405, and taught much the ſame doctrines as Pelagius.

CÆLICOLIST, *n. ſ.* [from *cælum*, heaven, and *colo*, to inhabit,] an inhabitant of heaven. *Aſh.*

CÆLIFEROUS. } *adj.* bearing up, or ſuſtain-
CÆLIGEROUS. } ing the heavens.

CÆLING, a river in Cornwall.

CÆLIPOTENT, *adj.* mighty in heaven. *Aſh.*

CÆLIUM, an ancient inland town of Peucetia, in Apulia; about 5 miles above BARIUM or BARI. It ſtill retains its ancient name.

(1.) CÆLIUS, Lucius. See AURELIANUS, N. 1.

(2.) CÆLIUS MONS, a town of Vindelicia, on the W. ſide of the Iſargus; now called KELMUNTZ.

(3.) CÆLIUS MONS at Rome. See COELIUS.

CÆLUS, in the Pagan mythology, the god of the heavens, was repreſented as the ſon of Æther and Dies, (or *Day*,) the father of Saturn and Ops, and progenitor of all the gods.

CÆMENT. See CEMENT.

CÆMENTATION. See CEMENTATION.

CAEN, a conſiderable town of France, in the department of Calvados, and ci-devant province of Lower Normandy, of which it was the capital. It has a celebrated univerſity, and an academy of literature. It contains 60 ſtreets, 12 pariſhes, and about 40,000 citizens. It has a caſtle with 4 towers, which were built by the Engliſh. The town is a large building with 4 great towers. The ſquare has fine houſes on 3 ſides of it. It is ſeated in a pleaſant country on the river Orne, about 8 miles from the ſea. William the conquerer was buried here, in the abbey of St Stephen, which he founded. Caen is 65 m. W. by S. of Rouen, and 125 W. of Paris. Lon. 0. 27. W. Lat. 49. 11. N.

CAER, *n. ſ.* [old Brit.] a city.

CAER-CARODOCK, a hill in Shropſhire, near the confluence of the Clun and the Temd.

CAER-CUSTENITH, a town of N. Wales in Caernarvonſhire.

CAERDIFF, a borough of S. Wales in Glamorganſh.

CÆRE,

CÆRE, in ancient geography, a town of Etruria, the royal reſidence of Mezentios. Its ancient name was *Argyllæ*. In Strabo's time not the leaſt veſtige of it remained, except the baths called Cæritana.

CAERFILLY, a town of S. Wales, in Glamorganſhire, ſeated between the rivers Taff and Rumney, in a mouriſh ground, among the hills. It is thought the walls, now in ruins, were built by the Romans; Roman coins being often dug up. It is 5 m. N. of Landaff. Lon. 3. 12. W. Lat. 51. 25. N.

CAER-GUBY, a village in Angleſey.

CAERGWRLEY, a village in Flintſhire, 7 m. from Cheſter.

CÆRITANA. See Cære.

CÆRITES, the people of Cære.

Cærites tabulæ, the tables of the Roman cenſors. In theſe were entered the names of ſuch as for ſome miſdemeanor forfeited their right of ſuffrage, or were degraded from a higher to a leſs honourable tribe. They were ſo named from the people of Cære, who, hoſpitably receiving the Romans after the taking of Rome by the Gauls, were, on the Romans recovering their city, honoured with all the privileges of citizens, except the right of voting.

(1.) CAERLAVEROCK, a pariſh of Scotland, in Dumfries-ſhire, 6 m. long, and 2 broad, containing about 4640 Scots acres; all arable, except 59 under wood, 60 moſs, and about 100 meadow ground, liable to be overflowed by the Lochar, and the ſea. It is a kind of peninſula, formed by the Nith, the Lochar and Solway Frith, and reſembles a *cornu-copiæ* both in form and fertility, having its mouth (as it were) towards Dumfries, into which it pours much of its produce. The improvements in agriculture have been ſo rapid that the real rent has been more than tripled ſince 1756: notwithſtanding which, the tenants live better than formerly, and the population has increaſed 171 ſince the above date: the number of inhabitants in 1791, being 955, according to the rev. Mr M'Morine's report to Sir J. Sinclair.

(2.) Caerlaverock caſtle, an ancient fortreſs in the above pariſh, (N. 1.) fully deſcribed by Meſſrs Pennant and Groſe.

CAERLEON, a town of Monmouthſhire, and a place of great antiquity. It was a Roman town, as is evident from the many Roman antiquities found here. It is commodiouſly ſituated on the river Uſk, over which there is a large wooden bridge. The houſes are generally built of ſtone, and the ruins of a caſtle are ſtill to be ſeen. Lon. 3. 0. W. Lat. 51. 40. N.

(1.) CAERMARTHEN, a county of S. Wales, 48 m. long and 25 broad. It is bounded on the S. by Briſtol Channel; on the W. by Pembrokeſhire; on the N. by Cardiganſhire; and on the E. by the ſhires of Brecknock and Glamorgan. The air is wholeſome, and the ſoil leſs rocky and mountainous than moſt other parts of Wales, and conſequently it is proportionally more fertile both in corn and paſture. It has alſo plenty of wood, and is well ſupplied with coal and limeſtone. The principal rivers are the Towy, the Cothy, and [illegible]ve; of which, the firſt abounds with exſalmon. The chief towns are Caermarthen, (N. 2.) Ridwely, and Lanimdovery. The county contains other 5 towns and 145 pariſhes. It abounds with ancient forts, camps, and tumuli. Near Caermarthen, towards the E. may be ſeen the ruins of Kastelk Karrey, and ſeveral vaſt caverns, ſuppoſed to have been copper mines of the Romans. Near this ſpot is a fountain which ebbs and flows twice in 24 hours. The county and city ſend each a member to parliament.

(2.) Caermarthen, the capital of the county, N. 1. It is ſituated on the river Towy, over which it has a fine ſtone bridge. It is of great antiquity, being the Maridunum of Ptolemy. It is a populous, thriving, and polite place, many of the neighbouring gentry reſiding there in the winter. It is a corporation and county of itſelf, with power to make by-laws. The courts of chancery and exchequer for South Wales, were held in it till the whole was united to England in the reign of Henry VIII. The famous conjurer Merlin was born in it, and near the town is a wood called *Merlin's grove*, where he is ſaid to have often retired for contemplation. Many of his pretended prophecies are ſtill preſerved in the country. The town is 24 m. S. E. of Cardigan, and 207 W. by N. of London. Lon. 4. 23. W. Lat. 51. 51. N.

(1.) CAERNARVON, a county of N. Wales, bounded on the N. and W. by the ſea, on the S. by Merionethſhire, and on the E. is divided from Denbighſhire by the river Conway. It is about 50 miles in length, 20 in breadth, and 100 in circumference. It contains 6 towns and 68 pariſhes, and abounds in lead and copper mines. It ſends one member to parliament for the ſhire, and another for the borough, N. 2. The air is very piercing; owing partly to the ſnow, that lies for months of the year upon ſome of the mountains which are ſo high that they are called the *Alps*; and partly to the great number of lakes which are ſaid not to be fewer than 50 or 60. The ſoil in the valleys on the ſide next Ireland is very fertile, eſpecially in barley; great numbers of black cattle, ſheep, and goats, are fed on the mountains; and the ſea, lakes, and rivers, abound with variety of fiſh. The higheſt mountains in the county are Snowdon hills, and Pas-se-mawr, which hangs over the ſea. The principal towns are Bangor, Caernarvon, (N. 2.) and Conway. In this country is an ancient road ſaid to have been made by Helena, the mother of Conſtantine the Great; and Matthew of Weſtminſter aſſerts, that the body of his father, Conſtantius, was found at Caernarvon in 1283, and interred in the pariſh church there by order of Edward I.

(2.) Caernarvon, the capital of the county, N. 1. It was built by Edward I. near the ſite of the ancient Segontium, after his conqueſt of Wales in 1282, the ſituation being well adapted to overawe his new ſubjects. It had natural requiſites for ſtrength; being bounded on one ſide by the arm of the ſea called the *Menai*; by the entrance of the Seiont on another, exactly where it receives the tide from the former; on a third ſide, and part of the fourth, by a creek of the Menai: and the remainder has the appearance of having the inſulation completed by art. Edward undertook this great work immediately after his conqueſt of the country in 1282, and completed the [illegible]

cations and caſtle before 1284; for his queen, on April 25th in that year, brought forth within its walls Edward, firſt prince of Wales of the Engliſh line. It was built within a year, by the labour of the peaſants, and at the coſt of the chieftains of the country, on whom the conqueror impoſed the expence. The external ſtate of the walls and caſtle, Mr Pennant informs us, are at preſent exactly as they were in the time of Edward. The walls are defended by numbers of round towers, and have two principal gates: the E. facing the mountains; the W. upon the Menai. The entrance into the caſtle is very auguſt, beneath a great tower, on the front of which appears the ſtatue of the founder, with a dagger in his hand, as if menacing his new-acquired unwilling ſubjects. The gate had 4 portcullifes, and every requiſite of ſtrength. The towers are very beautiful. The Eagle tower is remarkably fine, and has the addition of 3 ſlender angular turrets iſſuing from the top. Edward II. was born in a little dark room in this tower, not 12 feet long nor 8 in breadth: little did a royal conſort, in thoſe days, conſult either pomp or conveniency. The gate through which the affectionate Eleanor entered, to give the Welſh a prince of their own, who could not ſpeak a word of Engliſh, is at the fartheſt end, at leaſt height above the outſide ground; ſo could only be approached by a draw bridge. The quay is a moſt beautiful walk along the Menai, and commands a moſt agreeable view. Caernarvon is deſtitute of manufactures, but has a briſk trade with London, Briſtol, Liverpool, and Ireland, for the neceſſaries of life. It is the reſidence of numbers of genteel families, and contains ſeveral very good houſes. Edward I. beſtowed on this town its firſt royal charter, and made it a free borough. Among other privileges, none of the burgeſſes could be convicted of any crime committed between the rivers Conway and Dyfe, unleſs by a jury of their own townſmen. It is governed by a mayor, who, by patent, is created governor of the caſtle. It has one alderman, two bailiffs, a town-clerk, and two ſerjeants at mace. The repreſentative of the place is elected by its burgeſſes, and thoſe of Conway, Pwllheli, Neſyn, and Crickaeth. Every freeman has a right to vote whether reſident or not. Caernarvon has a market on Sat. and fairs Feb. 25, May 16, Aug. 4. and Dec. 5. It is 7 m. S. W. of Bangor, and 251 W. of London. Lon. 4. 20. W. Lat. 53. 8. N.

(3.) CAERNARVON BAY lies between two points at the S. entrance of the channel which runs between the main and the iſle of Angleſey. It affords a good harbour for ſhips.

CÆRULEOUS, *adj.* Of a ſky colour. *Aſh.*

(1.) CÆRULEUS, in ornithology, a name given by authors to a bird of the thruſh or blackbird kind, and ſomewhat reſembling the ſolitary ſparrow.

(2.) CÆRULEUS is alſo a name given by Solinus to the great Indian worm, deſcribed by Pliny and others, as inhabiting the Ganges. It is probable that all the accounts we have of this monſtrous animal are only falſe deſcriptions of the crocodile. *Chambers.*

CAERVORRAN, a town in Northumberland, S. of the Picts wall

CAERWENT, a village in Monmouthſhire, 4 m. S. W. of Chepſtow.

CAERWIS, a market town of Flintſhire in N. Wales, 5 m. E. of St Aſaph, 5 W. of Flint, and 204 N. W. of London. It has a market on Tueſ. and 6 fairs for cattle.

CÆSALPINIA, BRASILETTO, or BRASILWOOD, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 33d order, Lomentaceæ. The calyx is quinquefid, with the loweſt ſegment larger in proportion. There are 5 petals, the loweſt moſt beautiful. It is a leguminous plant. There are 3 ſpecies, the moſt remarkable of which is

CÆSALPINIA BRASILIENSIS, commonly called *Braſiletto*. It grows naturally in the warmeſt parts of America, from whence the wood is imported for the dyers, who uſe it much. The demand has been ſo great, that none of the large trees are left in any of the Britiſh plantations; ſo that Mr Cateſby owns himſelf ignorant of the dimenſions to which they grow. The largeſt remaining are not above two inches in thickneſs, and 8 or 9 feet in height. The branches are ſlender and full of ſmall prickles; the leaves are pinnated; the lobes growing oppoſite to one another, broad at their ends, with one notch. The flowers are white, papilionaceous, with many ſtamina and yellow apices, growing in a pyramidal ſpike, at the end of a long ſlender ſtalk: the pods incloſe ſeveral ſmall round ſeeds. The colour produced from this wood is greatly improved by ſolution of tin in aqua regia. See COLOUR-MAKING and DYEING. There is another ſort, a native of the ſame countries with the firſt, but of a larger ſize. It ſends out many weak irregular branches, armed with ſhort, ſtrong, upright thorns. The leaves branch out in the ſame manner as the firſt; but the lobes, or ſmall leaves, are oval and entire. The flowers are produced in long ſpikes like thoſe of the former, but are variegated with red. Theſe plants may be propagated from ſeeds, which ſhould be ſown in ſmall pots filled with light rich earth early in the ſpring, and plunged in a bed of tanner's bark. As they are very tender, they require to be conſtantly kept in the ſtove, and to be treated in the ſame manner as other exotics of that kind.

CÆSALPINOIDES, in botany, a ſynonime of the GLEDITSIA.

CÆSALPINUS, Andrew, an eminent philoſopher, phyſician and botaniſt, was born at Arezzo, about A. D. 1159. After having been many years profeſſor at Piſa, he became phyſician to Pope Clement VIII. From a paſſage in his *Queſtiones Peripateticæ* it would appear, that he entertained ſome idea of the circulation of the blood. He wrote alſo a botanical work *De Plantis*, and is juſtly eſteemed the founder of *Syſtematic Botany*. See BOTANY, *Index*. His *Hortus Siccus*, which conſiſts of 786 dried ſpecimens of plants, paſted on 266 folio pages, is ſtill extant. He died at Rome Feb. 23. 1603.

(1.) CÆSAR, Caius Julius, the illuſtrious Roman general and hiſtorian, was of the family of the Julii, who pretended to be deſcended from Venus

Venus by Æneas. See IULUS and JULIUS. He was born at Rome on the 12th of the month Quintilis, (afterwards from him called JULY) A. U. C. 653, and loft his father in 669. Being nephew to Marius, he was early proferibed by Sylla; who was with much entreaty prevailed on to fave his life; but faid to his friends when he conſented, that "he faw in that young man *many Mariuſes*." Cæſar, by his valour and eloquence, ſoon acquired the higheſt reputation in the field and in the ſenate. Beloved and reſpected by his fellow citizens, he enjoyed ſucceſſively every magiſterial and military honour the republic could beſtow, conſiſtent with its free conſtitution. But at length having ſubdued Pompey, the great rival of his growing power, his boundleſs ambition effaced the glory of his former actions: for, purſuing his favourite maxim, "that he had rather be the firſt man in a village, than the ſecond in Rome," he procured himſelf to be choſen perpetual dictator; and not content with this unconſtitutional power, his faction had reſolved to raiſe him to the imperial dignity; when the friends of the civil liberties of the republic raſhly aſſaſſinated him in the ſenate-houſe, where they ſhould only have ſeized him and brought him to a legal trial for uſurpation. By this impolitic meaſure they defeated their own purpoſe, involving the city in conſternation and terror, which produced general anarchy, and paved the way to the revolution they wanted to prevent; the monarchial government being abſolutely founded on the murder of Julius Cæſar. He fell in the 56th year of his age, A. A. C. 43. His Commentaries contain a hiſtory of his principal voyages, battles, and victories. The London edition, in 1712, in folio, is preferred. A particular detail of Cæſar's tranſactions will be found under the article ROME. We ſhall here therefore only add a portrait of him, drawn by M. Ophellot, in his *Melanges Philoſophiques*. "If, after the lapſe of 18 centuries, the truth may be publiſhed without offence, a philoſopher might, in the following terms, cenſure Cæſar without calumniating him, and applaud him without exciting his bluſhes. Cæſar had one predominant paſſion: it was the love of glory; and he paſſed 40 years of his life in ſeeking opportunities to foſter and encourage it. His ſoul entirely abſorbed in ambition, did not open itſelf to other impulſes. He cultivated letters; but he did not love them with enthuſiaſm, becauſe he had not leiſure to become the firſt orator of Rome. He corrupted the one half of the Roman ladies, but his heart had no concern in the fiery ardours of his ſenſes. In the arms of Cleopatra, he thought of Pompey; and this ſingular man, who diſdained to have a partner in the empire of the world, would have bluſhed to have been for one inſtant the ſlave of a woman. We muſt not imagine, that Cæſar was born a warrior, as Sophocles and Milton were born poets. For, if nature had made him a citizen of Sybaris, he would have been the moſt voluptuous of men. If in our days he had been born in Penſylvania, he would have been the moſt inoffenſive of quakers, and would not have diſturbed the tranquillity of the new world. The moderation with which he conducted himſelf after his victories, has been highly extolled; but in this he ſhowed his penetration, not the goodneſs of his heart. Is it not obvious, that the diſplay of certain virtues is neceſſary to put in motion the political machine? It was requiſite that he ſhould have the appearance of clemency, if he intended that Rome ſhould forgive him his victories. So what greatneſs of mind is there in a government which follows on the uſurpation of ſupreme power! Nature, while it marked Cæſar with a falſe character, gave him alſo that ſpirit of perſeverance which renders it uſeful. He had no ſooner begun to reflect, than he admired Sylla; hated him, and yet wiſhed to imitate him. At the age of [illegible] he formed the project of being dictator. It was not that the preſident Monteſquieu conceived, at an early youth, the idea of the ſpirit of laws. The phyſical qualities, as well as moral cauſes, concurred to give ſtrength to his character. Nature, which had made him for command, had given him an air of dignity. He had acquired that bold and inſinuating eloquence, which is perfectly adapted to ſeduce vulgar minds, and has a powerful influence on the moſt cultivated. He knew that pleaſure was a merit with the fair ſex; and what [illegible] who even in a republic can draw to them the ſuffrages and attention of men, have the higheſt importance in degenerate times. The ladies of that age were charmed with the view of having for their lover him whom they might ſubdue by their charms. In vain did the genius of Cato watch to ſupport time to ſuſtain the liberty of his country. It was unequal to contend with that of Cæſar. Of what avail were the eloquence, the philoſophy, and the virtue of this republican, when oppoſed to a man who had the addreſs to debauch the wife of every citizen whoſe intereſt he meant to engage? A man poſſeſſing an enthuſiaſm for glory, who, [illegible] at the age of 30, he had not conquered the world like Alexander; and who, with the baſe ambition of a deſpot, was more deſirous to be the firſt man in a village than the ſecond in Rome? Such had the good fortune to exiſt in times of trouble and civil commotions, when the minds of men were put into a ferment; when opportunities of great actions are frequent; when talents are ever neceſſary, and thoſe who can only boaſt of their virtues are nothing. If he had lived 100 years later, he would have been no more than an obſcure [illegible], and, inſtead of giving laws to the world, would not have been able to produce any conſiderable effect. I will here be bold enough to advance a paradox which may appear paradoxical to thoſe who only judge of men from what they archieve, and not from the principle which leads them to act. Nature formed in the ſame mould Cæſar, Mahomet, Cromwell, and Kouli Khan. They all of them united to genius that profound policy which renders it ſo powerful. They all of them had an independent ſuperiority over thoſe with whom they were ſurrounded; they were conſcious of this ſuperiority, and they made others conſcious of it. They were all of them born ſubjects, and became ſovereign uſurpers. Had Cæſar been placed at the head of Arabia, he would have been the founder of a new religion; in London, he would have aſſaſſinated the ſovereign, or have procured his aſſaſſination under the ſanction of the laws. He reigned with glory

ver men whom he had reduced to be ſlaves; and, under one aſpect he is to be conſidered as a hero; under another, as a monſter. But it would be unfortunate, indeed, for ſociety, if the poſſeſſion of ſuperior talents gave individuals a right to trouble its repoſe. Uſurpers accordingly have flatterers, but no friends; ſtrangers reſpect them; their ſubjects complain and ſubmit; it is in their own families that humanity finds her avengers. Cæſar was aſſaſſinated by his ſon; Mahomet was poiſoned by his wife; Kouli Khan was maſſacred by his nephew, and Cromwell only died in his bed, becauſe his ſon Richard was a philoſopher. Cæſar, the tyrant of his country; Cæſar, who delighted the agents of his crimes, if they failed in ſecreſs; Cæſar, in fine, the huſband of every wife, and the wife of every huſband, has been accounted a great man by the mob of writers. But it is only the philoſopher who knows how to mark the barrier between celebrity and greatneſs. The talents of this ſingular man, and the good fortune, which conſtantly attended him till the moment of his aſſaſſination, have concealed the enormity of his actions."

(1.) CÆSAR, [from *cædo*, *cæſum*, to cut,] in Roman antiquity, the cognomen or ſirname of a branch of the Julian family; which is ſaid to have taken its riſe from the firſt of this name being cut out of his mother's womb. Mr Bailey is guilty of a manifeſt anachroniſm, when he traces its origin from this circumſtance having happened to Julius Cæſar; (N° 1.) as there were Cæſars of the Julian family in public employment ſo early as the 11th year of the firſt Punic war; about A. U. C. 500: and from that period there were always ſome of that branch in public offices, till the time of that great general.

(2.) CÆSAR, in Roman antiquity, a title born by all the emperors from Julius Cæſar to the deſtruction of the empire. It was alſo uſed as a title of diſtinction for the preſumptive heir of the empire, as *king of the Romans* is now uſed for that of the German. This title took its riſe from the name of the firſt emperor, (N° 1.) which, by a decree of the ſenate, all the ſucceeding emperors were to bear. Under his ſucceſſor, the appellation of AUGUSTUS being appropriated to the emperors, in compliment to that prince, the title *Cæſar* was given to the ſecond perſon in the empire, though ſtill it continued to be alſo given to the firſt; and hence the difference between Cæſar uſed ſimply, and Cæſar with the addition of Imperator Auguſtus. The dignity of Cæſar remained to the ſecond of the empire, till Alexius Comnenus having elected Nicephorus Melſenus Cæſar, by contract; and it being neceſſary to confer ſome higher dignity on his own brother Iſaacius, he created him SEBASTOCRATOR, with the precedency over Meliſſenus; ordering, that in acclamations, &c. Iſaacius Sebaſtocrator ſhould be named the ſecond, and Meliſſenus Cæſar the third.

(4.) CÆSAR, Sir Julius, a learned civilian, was deſcended by the female line from the dukes de Eſarini in Italy; and was born near Tottenham in Middleſex, in 1557. He was educated at Oxford, advanced to many honourable employments, admitted LL. D. of Oxford and Paris, and for the laſt 20 years of his life was maſter of the rolls. He was remarkable for his extenſive bounty and charity to all perſons of worth, ſo that he ſeemed to be the almoner general of the nation. He died in 1639, in the 79th year of his age. It is very remarkable that the M. SS. of this lawyer were offered, by the executors of ſome of his deſcendants, to a cheeſemonger for waſte paper; but being timely inſpected by Mr Samuel Paterſon, that gentleman diſcovered their worth, and had the ſatisfaction to find his judgment confirmed by the profeſſion, to whom they were ſold in lots for upwards of 500l. in 1757.

(1.) CÆSAREA, an ancient city on the coaſt of Phenicia. It was conveniently ſituated for trade; but had a very dangerous harbour, ſo that no ſhips could be ſafe in it when the wind was at S. W. Herod the Great, king of Judea, remedied this inconvenience at an immenſe expence and labour, and made it one of the moſt convenient havens on that coaſt. He alſo beautified it with many buildings, and beſtowed 12 years on the finiſhing and adorning it.

(2.) CÆSAREA, the antient name of CHERTSEY in Surry.

(3.) CÆSAREA, the ancient name of Jerſey.

(4.) CÆSAREA AUGUSTA, in ancient geography, a Roman colony ſituated on the river Iberus in Spain, before called SALDUBA, in the territories of the Edetani; now commonly thought to be SARAGOSSA.

(5.) CÆSAREA JULIA, the name given by the Romans to ALGIERS.

* CÆSAREAN. See CESARIAN.

CÆSARIAN OPERATION. See MIDWIFERY.

CÆSARIANS, CÆSARIENSES, } in Roman antiquity, were officers or miniſters of the Roman emperors; they kept the account of the revenues of the emperors; and took poſſeſſion, in their name, of ſuch things as devolved or were confiſcated to them.

CÆSARIENSIS, FLAVIA; CÆSARIENSIS, MAXIMA; } ancient diviſions of Britain. See BRITAIN, N° I. § 4.

CÆSARIS EMPLASTRUM, among phyſicians, a name given to a plaiſter compoſed of aſtringents, to prevent abortion.

CÆSARODUNUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Turones in Celtic Gaul; now called *Tours*. See TOURS.

(1.) CÆSAROMAGUS, in ancient geography, a town of the Trinobantes in Britain; by ſome ſuppoſed to be CHELMSFORD, by others BRENTFORD, and by others BURSTED.

(2.) CÆSAROMAGUS was alſo the ancient name of BEAUVAIS, in France.

CÆSAROPAPPIA, [Καισαροπαππια,] a word uſed by Alitedius to expreſs the unnatural mixture of the temporal and ſpiritual tyranny aſſumed by the Popes.

CÆSAR's HILL, in Suſſex, near Findon.

CÆSENA, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Ciſpadana, ſituated on the rivers Iſapis and Rubicon; now called CESENA.

CÆSIA. See CÆCIA.

CÆSIA SYLVA, in ancient geography, a wood

in Germany, part of the great Sylva Hercynia, ſituated partly in the duchy of Cleves, and partly in Weſtphalia between Weſel and Kesfield.

CÆSONES, a denomination given to thoſe cut out of their mother's wombs. Pliny ranks this as an auſpicious kind of birth; the elder Scipio Africanus, and the firſt of the family of Cæſars, was brought into the world in this way.

(1.) CÆSTUS, in antiquity, a large gantlet made of raw hide, which the wreſtlers made uſe of when they fought at the public games.—It was a kind of leathern ſtrap, ſtrengthened with lead or plates of iron, which encompaſſed the hand, the wriſt, and part of the arm; to defend theſe parts as well as to enforce their blows.

(2.) CÆSTUS, or CESTUM, was alſo a kind of girdle, made of wool, which the huſband untied for his bride the firſt day of marriage, before they went to bed. This relates to Venus's girdle, which Juno borrowed of her to entice Jupiter to love her. See CESTUS.

(1.)* CÆSURA, *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A figure in poetry, by which a ſhort ſyllable after a complete foot is made long.

(2.) CÆSURA, in the ancient poetry, is when, in the ſcanning of a verſe, a word is divided, ſo that one part ſeems cut off, and goes to a different foot from the reſt; *e. gr.*

Menti|ri nobis: nin|quam men|dacia proſunt.

where the ſyllables *ri*, *li*, *quam*, and *men*, are cæſuras. Or, it denotes a certain agreeable diviſion of the words between the feet of a verſe; whereby the laſt ſyllable of a word becomes the firſt of a foot: as in

Arma virumque cano, Trojæ qui primus ab oris.

where the ſyllables *no* and *jæ* are cæſuras.

(3.) CÆSURA, or CÆSURE, in the modern poetry, denotes a reſt or pauſe towards the middle of an Alexandrian verſe, by which the voice and pronunciation are aided, and the verſe, as it were, divided into two hemiſtichs. See PAUSE.

CÆTERIS PARIBUS, a Latin term in frequent uſe among mathematical and phyſical writers. The words literally ſignify, *the reſt*, or *other things*, *being alike or equal*. Thus we ſay the heavier the bullet, *cæteris paribus*, the greater the range; *i. e.* by how much the bullet is heavier, if the length and diameter of the piece and ſtrength of the powder be the ſame, by ſo much will the utmoſt range or diſtance of a piece of ordnanee be the greater. Thus alſo, in a phyſical way, we ſay, the velocity and quantity circulating in a given time through any ſection of an artery, will, *cæteris paribus*, be according to its diameter, and nearneſs to or diſtance from the heart.

CÆTOBRIX, in ancient geography, a town of Luſitania, near the mouth of the Tagus on the E. ſide; now extinct. It had its name from its fiſhery; and there are ſtill extant fiſh-ponds on the ſhore, done with plaſter of Paris, which illuſtrate the name of the ruined city.

CÆYX, in mythology, a king of Thrace, who was metamorphoſed into a halcyon.

CAFER, Bos. See Bos, N° IV. § vi.

(1.) CAFFA, in commerce, painted cotton-ſ manufactured in the Eaſt Indies, and ſold engal.

(2.) CAFFA, or KAFFA, a city and port town of Crim Tartary, ſituated on the S. E. part of the peninſula. It is the moſt conſiderable town in the country, and gives name to the ſtraits, (N° 3.) It was anciently called THEODOSIA; and this name has been reſtored to it, ſince the Ruſſians got poſſeſſion of the country. It is 150 miles N. E. of Conſtantinople. Lon. 35. 45. E. Lat. 45. 2. N.

(3.) CAFFA, STRAITS OF, run from the Euxine or Black Sea to the Palus Meotus, or ſea of Azoph.

CAFFACA, in natural hiſtory, a name given by the Turks and Tartars to a peculiar kind of earth, of a grey colour, having a light caſt of green in it. It is very ſoft and unctuous, and reſembles fuller's earth; but is more aſtringent, and adheres very firmly to the tongue; theſe people uſe this earth when they bathe.

(1.) CAFFILA, a company of merchants or travellers who join together in order to go with more ſecurity through the dominions of the Grand Mogul, and other countries on the continent of the Eaſt Indies. The Caffila differs from a caravan, at leaſt in Perſia: for the caffila belongs properly to ſome ſovereign or ſome powerful company in Europe, whereas a caravan is a company of particular merchants, each trading upon his own account. The Engliſh and Dutch have each of them their caffila at Gambrow. There are alſo ſuch caffilas which croſs ſome parts of the deſarts of Africa, particularly that called the *ſea of ſand*, which lies between the kingdom of Morocco and thoſe of Tombut and Gaigo. This is a journey of 400 leagues; and takes up two months in going, and as many in coming back; the caffila travelling only by night, on account of the exceſſive heat of that country. The chief merchandize they bring back conſiſts in gold duſt, which they call ATIBAR, and the Europeans TIBIR.

(2.) CAFFILA on the coaſt of Guzerat or Cambaya, ſignifies a ſmall fleet of merchant ſhips.

CAFFRARIA, the country of the Caffres, in the moſt ſouthern part of Africa lying in the form of a creſcent about the inland country of Monomotapa, between 35° Lat. S. and the tropic of Capricorn: and bounded on the E. S. and W. by the Indian and Atlantic oceans. Such is the deſcription given by moſt geographers, who confound Caffraria with the country of the HOTTENTOTS; but Mr Walker (in his *Univ. Geo.*) makes them quite diſtinct; and ſays "Caffraria extends along the Indian Ocean to the mouth of the Great Fiſh-river, in Lat. 30° 30′ S. by which it is divided from the country of the Hottentots." He adds, "its other boundaries are uncertain. The country is very fertile, and the people have large herds of cattle, which are rather ſmall but very docile, coming at a whiſtle." Indeed the deſcription he gives of the inhabitants ſhows, that they muſt be a very different people from the Hottentots. See next article.

CAFFRES, the natives of Caffraria, whom Mr Walker thus deſcribes: "The Caffres are tall, active, and ſtrong, and evince great courage in attacking lions and other beaſts of prey. Their complexions are black: their clothing conſiſts of hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth." Perhaps this kind of clothing has led voyagers to confound them with the Hottentots. "Indeed

is the leading trait in the character of the Caffres. The men employ much of their time in hunting; the women in cultivating the land. They alſo make earthen ware and curious baſkets. They have a high opinion of the Supreme Being, and of his power; believe in a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments; and think that the world had no beginning, and will be everlaſting. They have no forms of prayer, nor prieſts; yet undergo, at years of age, the initiatory rite of the Hebrews. Their government is limited monarchy, and their king is often poorer than many of his ſubjects. He is allowed a plurality of wives."

CAFRES, [from *cafir*, Arab. an infidel,] an opprobrious appellation given by the Arabs to all who are not Mahometans.

* CAFTAN. *n. ſ.* [Perſick.] A Perſian or Turkiſh veſt or garment.

* CAG. *n. ſ.* A barrel or wooden veſſel, containing 4 or 5 gallons. Sometimes *keg*.

(1.) CAGADO DE AGOA, in zoology, a name by which the Portugueſe in America call a ſpecies of tortoiſe, known among authors by its Braſilian name, JURURA.

(2.) CAGADO DE TERRA, in zoology, the name by which the Portugueſe in America call a remarkable ſpecies of tortoiſe, called by the Braſilians JABOTI.

CAGANUS, or CACANUS, an appellation anciently given by the Huns to their kings. The word appears alſo to have been formerly applied to the princes of Muſcovy, now called CZARS. From the ſame alſo, probably, the Tartar title KHAN, or CAN, had its origin.

CAGAO, in natural hiſtory, the Indian name of a large bird which inhabits the mountains, and feeds on piſtachio nuts, and other fruits, which it ſwallows whole. It is very voracious, and is of the ſize of a hen, but has a longer neck.

CAGASTRUM is uſed by Paracelſus to denote a morbific ſemen, not connate or hereditary, but acceſſional. The pleuriſy, plague, fever, &c. are ranked by that author in the number of cagaſtric diſeaſes.

CAGAYAN. See CAGEAN.

(1.) * CAGE. *n. ſ.* [*cage*, Fr. from *cavea*, Lat.] An incloſure of twigs or wire, in which birds are kept.—See whether a *cage* can pleaſe a bird? or whether a dog grow not fiercer with tying? *Sidney*.—He taught me how to know a man in a cage; in which *cage* of ruſhes, I am ſure, you are not a priſoner. *Shakeſpeare*.—

Tho' ſlaves, like birds that ſing not in a *cage*,
They loſt their genius, and poetick rage;
Homers again and Pindars may be found,
And his great actions with their numbers crown'd.
Waller.

And parrots, imitating human tongue,
And ſinging birds in ſilver *cages* hung;
And ev'ry flagrant flow'r, and od'rous green,
Were ſorted well, with lumps of amber laid between. *Dryden*.

—A man recurs to our fancy, by remembering his garment, a beaſt, bird, or fiſh; by the *cage*, or court yard, or ciſtern, wherein it was kept. *Watts on the Mind*.—The reaſon why ſo few marriages are happy, is, becauſe young ladies ſpend their time in making nets, not in making *cages*. *Swift*.

2. A place for wild beaſts, incloſed with palliſadoes. 3. A priſon for petty malefactors.

(2.) CAGE is by ſome derived from the Italian *gaggia*, of the Latin CAVEA, which ſignifies the ſame: *a caveis theatralibus in quibus includebantur feræ*.

(3.) CAGE, in carpentry, ſignifies an outer work of timber, incloſing another within it. In this ſenſe we ſay *the cage of a wind mill*. The cage of a ſtair caſe denotes the wooden ſides or walls which incloſe it.

(4.) CAGES, CAVEÆ, in antiquity, were places in the ancient amphitheatres, (§ 2.) wherein wild beaſts were kept, ready to be let out for ſport. Theſe beaſts were uſually brought to Rome thus up in oaken or beechen cages, artfully formed, and covered or ſhaded with boughs, that the creatures, deceived with the appearance of a wood, might fancy themſelves in their foreſt. The fiercer ſort were pent in iron cages, leſt wooden priſons ſhould be broke through. The *caveæ* were a ſort of iron cages different from dens, which were under ground and dark; whereas the *caveæ* being airy and light, the beaſts ruſhed out of them with more alacrity and fierceneſs than if they had been pent under ground.

* To CAGE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To incloſe in a cage.—

He ſwoln, and pamper'd with high fare,
Sits down, and ſnorts, *caged* in his baſket-chair. *Donne*.

CAGEAN, or CAGAYAN, a province of the iſland of Lytzen, or Manilla, in the Eaſt Indies. It is the largeſt in the iſland, being 80 leagues in length, and 40 in breadth. The principal city is called *Nova Segovia*, and 15 leagues eaſtward from this city lies cape Bajador. Doubling that cape, and coaſting along 20 leagues from N. to S. the province of Cagean ends, and that of Illocos begins. The peaceable Cageans who pay tribute are about 9000; but there are many not ſubdued. The whole province is fruitful: the men apply to agriculture, and are of a martial diſpoſition; and the women to ſeveral works in cotton. The mountains afford food for a vaſt number of bees, in conſequence of which wax is ſo plenty, that the poor burn it inſtead of oil. They make their candles in the following manner: they leave a ſmall hole at each end of a hollow ſtick for the wick to run through; and then, ſtopping the hole at one end, fill it with wax at the top: when cold, they break the mould, and take out the candle. On the mountains there is abundance of braſil, ebony, and other valuable woods. In the woods are ſtore of wild boars and other beaſts; but not ſo good as thoſe of Europe. There are alſo abundance of deer, which they kill for their ſkins and horns to ſell to the Chineſe.

CAGEANS, the people of CAGEAN.

CAGGAW, in botany, a name given by the people of Guinea, to a plant which they boil in water, and uſe the decoction to waſh the mouth with, as a cure for the toothach. Its leaves are ſmooth and ſhining, like thoſe of the laurel, but they are thin, and bend like thoſe of the bay.

CAGHRYARIFF, a town of Ireland, in Clare.

CAGLA, *n. ſ.* in old records, a cage.

CAGIT, in natural hiſtory, a name given by

the people of the Philippine Islands, to a species of parrot, very common in their woods; it is of a middling size, and is all over of a fine green colour.

CAGLI, an ancient episcopal town of Italy, in the duchy of Urbino, situated at the foot of the Apennine mountains. Lon. 14. 10. E. Lat. 43. 35. N.

CAGLIANO, a town of Germany, in the bishopric of Trent, near Roveredo. The Austrian general, Beaulieu, made it his head quarters in June, 1796.

(1.) CAGLIARI, an ancient, large, and rich town, capital of the island of Sardinia. It is seated on the declivity of an hill, is an university, an archbishopric, and the residence of the viceroy. It has an excellent harbour, and a good trade; but is a place of no great strength. It was taken, with the whole island, by the English in 1708, who transferred it to the emperor Charles VI: but it was retaken by the Spaniards in 1717, and about two years afterwards ceded to the duke of Savoy in lieu of Sicily; whence he has the title of *king of Sardinia*. Lon. 9. 14. E. Lat. 39. 37. N.

(2.) CAGLIARI, Paul, called also *Paulo Veronese*, an excellent painter, born at Verona in 1532. Gabriel Cagliari his father was a sculptor, and Antonio Badile his uncle was his master in painting. He was esteemed the best of the Lombard painters, and styled *Il pittor felice*, the happy painter. There is scarcely a church in Venice where some of his performances are not to be seen. De Piles says "his picture of the marriage at Cana, is almost the triumph of painting itself." Philip II. of Spain, sent for him to paint the Escurial, and made him great offers; but Paul excused himself from leaving his own country, where his reputation was so well established, that most of the princes of Europe ordered their ambassadors to procure something of his hand at any rate. Titian himself used to say, he was the ornament of his profession. And Guido Reni being asked which of his predecessors he would choose to be, were it in his power, after Raphael and Correggio, named Paul Veronese. He died of a fever at Venice, in 1588, and had a tomb and a statue of brass erected to his memory in the church of St Sebastian.

(3.) CAGLIARIS, Gabriel and Charles, the sons of Paul, and heirs of his great wealth, lived happily together, and joined in finishing several of their father's imperfect pieces, with good success.

CAGUI, in zoology, a synonyme of two species of monkeys. See SIMIA.

(1.) CAHIER, a town of Ireland, in Kerry county, Munster, N. E. of Valentia.

(2.) CAHIER, or CAHIR, } a village of Ireland, in Tipperary, 8 miles S. E. of Cashel, and 85 S. of Dublin.

CAHIRCANAWAY DRUNGAND, a range of very high hills in the county of Kerry, Ireland; over which a road passes, hanging in a tremendous manner over the bay of Castlemayn, resembling that on Penmanmawr in N. Wales, but more rocky and dangerous.

CAHIRCONCLISH, two villages of Ireland: 2. in King's County: and 2. in Limerick.

CAHIRCONRIGH, a comical mountain of Ireland, in Kerry, Munster, more than 700 yards above the sea level, and forms a fort of peninsula between the Bays of Castlemayn and Tralee.

CAHIRDONEL, a town of Kerry, Ireland.

CAHIRELLY, a village in Limerick.

CAHIREGAN, } two towns of Ireland, in
CAHIRMEE, } Cork, Munster.

CAHIRMORRES, in Galway, Ireland.

CAHIR-TRANT, the W. point of Ventry harbour, in Kerry, Munster.

CAHILLO, in ichthyology, a name given by some authors to the LUPUS MARINUS, or wolf-fish.

CAHORS, a considerable town of France, in the department of Lot, and ci-devant province of Quercy. It is seated on a peninsula made by the river Lot, and built partly on a craggy rock. The principal street is very narrow; and terminates in the market place, in which is the town-house. The cathedral is a Gothic structure, and has a large square steeple. It has a university, and is 20 miles N. W. of Toulouse. The fortifications are regular, and the town is surrounded with thick walls. Lon. 1. 32. E. Lat. 44. 26. N.

CAHYS, a dry measure for corn, used in some parts of Spain, particularly at Seville and at Cadiz. It is near a bushel of our measure.

(1.) CAIA, in Roman antiquity, a common name among the women, as Caius was among the men. Hence the custom of the bride saying, on being introduced into her husband's house, *Ubi tu Caius, ego Caia*, i. e. "Where you are master, I will be mistress." See BRIDE, § 2.

(2.) CAIA, in the Turkish military orders, an officer serving in the post of a deputy or lieutenant, and acting for the body of the janissaries.

CAJANA, or } the capital of Cajania,
CAJANABURG, } Sweden, situated on the E. part of the lake Cajania, in Lon. 27. 45. E. Lat. 64. 15. N.

CAIANI, in ecclesiastical history, a sect of heretics, thus denominated from one Caianus of Alexandria, their leader, otherwise called ARTHARTODOCETÆ.

(1.) CAJANIA, a lake in Sweden.

(2.) CAJANIA, a province of Sweden, the same with EAST BOTHNIA. See BOTHNIA.

CAIAPHAS, high priest of the Jews, succeeded Simon the son of Camith about A. D. 16, as Calmet thinks, in 25, and married the daughter of Annas, who was conjoined with him in the priestly office. His iniquitous conduct with regard to our Saviour, with his strong, though misdesigned expression of the necessity of one dying to save others, are recorded by the evangelists. About two years after our Saviour's death, Caiaphas and Pilate were both deposed by Vitellius, then governor of Syria, and afterwards emperor; whereupon Caiaphas, unable to bear this disgrace, superadded to the stings of his conscience, killed himself, A. D. 35. See ANNAS.

CAIAZZO, anciently CALATIA, a town of Naples, in the province of Lavoro, 16 m. N. E. of Naples. Lon. 15. 0. E. Lat. 41. 15. N.

CAIC, } or CAIQUE, in sea language, a small
CAICA, } to denote the skiff, or sloop, belonging to a galley. The Cossacks give the same

to a ſmall kind of bark uſed in the navigation of the Black Sea. It is equipped with 40 or 50 ſoldiers: their employment is a kind of piracy.

CAICOS, iſlands of America, lying N. of St Domingo; between Lon. 112. 10. and 113. 16. W. Lat. 21. 40. N.

CAICUS, a river of Aſiatic Turkey, which falls into the Archipelago.

CAJEPUT, an oil brought from the Eaſt Indies, reſembling that of Cardamom.

CAIER, a river in Caermarthen-ſhire.

(1.) CAIETA, in ancient geography, a port and town of Latium, ſo called from Æneas's nurſe; now called GAETA.

(2.) CAIETA, a town in Naples.

CAJETAN, Cardinal, was born at Cajeta, in Naples, in 1469. His proper name was *Thomas de Vio*; but he adopted that of *Cajetan* from the place of his nativity. He defended the authority of the Pope, which ſuffered greatly at the council of Nice, in a work entitled *Of the Power of the Pope*; and for this work he obtained the biſhopric of Cajeta. He was afterwards raiſed to the archiepiſcopal ſee of Palermo, and in 1517 was made a cardinal by Pope Leo X. The year after, he was ſent as legate into Germany, to quiet the commotions raiſed againſt indulgences by Martin Luther; but Luther, under protection of Frederic elector of Saxony, ſet him at defiance; for though he obeyed the cardinal's ſummons in repairing to Augſburg, yet he rendered all his propoſals ineffectual. Cajetan was employed in ſeveral other negociations and tranſactions, being as ready at buſineſs as at letters. He died in 1534. He wrote Commentaries upon Ariſtotle's philoſophy, and upon Thomas Aquinas's theology; he made a literal tranſlation of the Old and New Teſtament.

CAIFONG, or } a large, populous, and rich
CAIFUM, } town of Aſia, in China, ſeated in the middle of a large and well cultivated plain. It ſtands in a bottom; and when beſieged by the rebels in 1642, they ordered the dykes of the river Hohangho to be cut, which drowned the city, and deſtroyed 300,000 of its inhabitants. Lon. 113. 25. E. Lat. 35. 0. N.

CAILLE, Nicholas Louis DE LA, an eminent mathematician and aſtronomer, was born at a ſmall town in the dioceſe of Rheims, in 1713. His father had ſerved in the army; and in his retirement ſtudied mathematics; and amuſed himſelf with mechanic exerciſes, wherein he proved the happy author of ſeveral inventions of conſiderable uſe to the public. Nicholas, almoſt in his infancy, took a fancy to mechanics, which proved of great ſervice to him in his maturer years. He was ſent young to ſchool at Mantes ſur Seine, where he diſcovered early tokens of genius. In 1728, he went to Paris; where he ſtudied the belles lettres, philoſophy, and mathematics. Afterwards he ſtudied divinity at Navarre, was ordained a prieſt, and officiated in the church of the college Mazarin ſeveral years; but he never entered into orders, apprehending that his aſtronomical studies might too much interfere with his religious duties. In 1739, he was conjoined with Monſieur Thury, ſon of M. Caſſini, in verifying the meridian of the royal obſervatory through the whole kingdom of France. In November the ſame year, whilſt he was engaged day and night in the operations which this grand undertaking required, and at a great diſtance from Paris, he was, without any ſolicitation, elected into the vacant mathematical chair, which the celebrated M. Varignon had ſo worthily filled. Here he began to teach about the end of 1740; and an obſervatory was erected for his uſe in the college, and furniſhed with the beſt inſtruments. In May, 1741, he was admitted into the royal academy of ſciences as an adjoint member for aſtronomy. Beſides many excellent papers in their memoirs, he publiſhed Elements of geography, mechanics, optics, and aſtronomy. He carefully computed all the eclipſes of the ſun and moon that had happened ſince the Chriſtian æra, which were printed in a book publiſhed by two Benedictines, entitled *l'Art de verifier les dates*, &c. Paris, 1750, in 4to. Beſides theſe, he compiled a volume of aſtronomical ephemerides, from 1745 to 1755; another from 1755 to 1765; a third from 1765 to 1775; an excellent work entitled *Aſtronomiæ fundamenta noviſſimis ſolis et ſtellarum obſervationibus ſtabilita*; and the moſt correct ſolar tables that ever appeared. Having gone through a ſeven years ſeries of aſtronomical obſervations in his own obſervatory, he formed a project of going to obſerve the ſouthern ſtars at the Cape of Good Hope. This was highly approved of by the academy, and by the prime miniſter Comte de Argenſon, and readily agreed to by the ſtates of Holland. Upon this, he drew up a plan of the method he propoſed to purſue in his ſouthern obſervations; ſetting forth, that, beſides ſettling the places of the fixed ſtars, he propoſed to determine the parallax of the moon, Mars, and Venus. But whereas this required correſpondent obſervations to be made in the northern parts of the world, he ſent to thoſe of his correſpondents who were expert in practical aſtronomy previous notice, in print, whatever obſervations he deſigned to make at ſuch and ſuch times for the ſaid purpoſe. At length, on the 21ſt of Nov. 1750, he ſailed for the Cape, and arrived there on the 19th April, 1751. He forthwith got his inſtruments on ſhore; and, with the aſſiſtance of ſome Dutch artificers, ſet about building an aſtronomical obſervatory, in which his inſtruments were properly diſpoſed, as ſoon as it was fit to receive them. The ſky at the Cape is generally pure and ſerene, unleſs when a S. E. wind blows. But this often happens, and when it does, it is attended with ſome ſtrange and terrible effects. The ſtars look bigger, and ſeem to caper; the moon has an undulating tremor; and the planets have a ſort of beard like comets. Two hundred and twenty-eight nights did our aſtronomer ſurvey the face of the ſouthern heavens; during which ſpace, which is almoſt incredible, he obſerved more than 10,000 ſtars; and whereas the ancients filled the heavens with monſters and old wives tales, the abbe de la Caille choſe rather to adorn them with the inſtruments and machines which modern philoſophy has made uſe of for the diſcovery of nature. See the Planiſphere in his *Cælum Auſtrale Stelliferum*. With no leſs ſucceſs did he attend to the parallax of the moon, Mars, Venus, and the ſun. Having thus executed the

pur-

purpose of his voyage, and no preſent opportunity offering for his return, he thought of employing the vacant time in another arduous attempt; no leſs than that of taking the meaſure of the earth, as he had already done that of the heavens. This indeed had, through the munificence of the French king, been done before by different ſets of learned men both in Europe and America; ſome determining the quantity of a degree under the equator, and others under the arctic circle: but it had not as yet been decided whether in the ſouthern parallels of latitude the ſame dimenſions obtained as in the northern. His labours were rewarded with the ſatisfaction he wiſhed for; having determined a diſtance of 410,814 feet from a place called *Klip Fontyn* to the Cape, by means of a baſe of 38,802 feet, 3 times actually meaſured; whence he diſcovered a new ſecret of nature, namely that the radii of the parallels in S. latitude are to the ſame as thoſe of the correſponding parallels in N. latitude. About the 33d degree of S. lat. he found a degree on the meridian to contain 342,222 Paris feet. He returned to Paris the 27th Sept. 1754; having in his almoſt four years abſence expended no more than 9144 livres on himſelf and his companion; and at his coming into port, he refuſed a bribe of 100,000 livres, offered by one that thirſted leſs after glory than gain, to be ſharer in his immunity from cuſtom houſe ſearches. After receiving the congratulatory viſits of his more intimate friends and the aſtronomers, he drew up a reply to ſome ſtrictures, which profeſſor Euler had publiſhed relative to the meridian, and then he ſettled the reſults of the compariſon of his own with the obſervations of other aſtronomers for the parallaxes. That of the ſun he fixed at 9½″; of the moon, at 56′ 56″; of Mars in his oppoſition, 36″; of Venus 38″. He alſo ſettled the laws whereby aſtronomical refractions are varied by the different denſity or rarity of the air, by heat or cold, and dryneſs or moiſture. And he ſhowed an eaſy method practicable by common navigators, of finding the longitude at ſea by means of the moon, which he illuſtrated by examples ſelected from his own obſervations during his voyages. His fame was now eſtabliſhed upon a firm baſis, and he was unanimouſly elected a member of the royal ſociety at London; of the inſtitute of Bologna; of the imperial academy at Peterſburg; and of the royal academies of Berlin, Stockholm, and Gottingen. In 1760, he was attacked by a ſevere fit of the gout; which, however, did not interrupt his ſtudies; for he then planned out a new and immenſe work, no leſs than a hiſtory of aſtronomy through all ages, with a compariſon of the ancient and modern obſervations, and the conſtruction and uſe of the inſtruments employed in making them. In order to purſue this talk, in a ſuitable retirement, he obtained a grant of apartments in the royal palace of Vincennes; and whilſt his aſtronomical apparatus was erecting there, he began printing his catalogue of the ſouthern ſtars, and the 3d volume of his Ephemerides. The ſtate of his health was, towards the end of 1763, greatly reduced. His blood grew inflamed; he had pains in the head, obſtructions of the kidneys, loſs of appetite, with an oppletion of the whole habit. His mind remained unaffected, and he reſolutely perſiſted in his ſtudies as uſual. In the month of March, medicines were adminiſtered to him, which rather aggravated than alleviated his ſymptoms; and he was now ſenſible, that the ſame diſtemper which in Africa, ten years before, yielded to a few ſimple remedies, did in his native country bid defiance to the beſt phyſicians. This induced him to ſettle his affairs; his MSS. he committed to the care and diſcretion of his eſteemed friend M. Maraldi. It was at laſt determined that a vein ſhould be opened: but this brought on an obſtinate lethargy, of which he died, aged 49.

CAIMACAN, or CAIMACAM, in the Turkiſh affairs, a dignity in the Ottoman empire, anſwering to lieutenant, or rather deputy amongſt us. There are uſually two Caimacans; one reſides at Conſtantinople, as governor thereof; the other attends the grand vizir in quality of his lieutenant, ſecretary of ſtate, and firſt miniſter of his council, and gives audience to ambaſſadors. Sometimes there is a 3d caimacan, who attends the ſultan, whom he acquaints with any public diſturbances, and receives his orders concerning them.

(1.)* CAIMAN. *n. ſ.* The American name of a crocodile.

(2.) CAIMAN ISLANDS, American iſlands lying ſouth of Cuba, and N. W. of Jamaica, between 81° and 86° of lon. W. and in 21° of lat. N. They are moſt remarkable on account of the fiſhery of tortoiſe, which the people of Jamaica carry home alive, keeping them in pens for food, and killing them as they want them.

CAIN, the eldeſt ſon of Adam and Eve, and the firſt man born into this world. He is generally ſtiled the firſt *murderer*, but although it is certain, that he killed his brother Abel, it appears by no means equally certain that he intended his Death, except that of the beaſts ſacrificed by Abel, was then hardly known; and the extent of ſuffering, which the human body could bear, without inducing death, was totally unknown. It ſeems therefore probable, that Cain had killed his brother in a fit of paſſion, when he intended nothing more than a ſevere drubbing. This ſeems farther confirmed by the puniſhment inflicted on him, by the Searcher of hearts; which was only baniſhment, a puniſhment often inflicted ſince for manſlaughter. He is the firſt builder on record. Philo pretends that he built 7 cities. *Alfred. Chron.* p. 2[illegible].

(1.) CAINAN, or KENAN, the ſon of Enoch, great grandſon of Adam, and the 4th of the Antediluvian patriarchs, was born A. M. 325; begat Mahalaleel in 395, and died in 1235, aged 910.

(2.) CAINAN, the name of an ideal perſonage, introduced into St Luke's genealogy of our Saviour, (ch. iii. 36.) probably by the miſtake of ſome tranſcriber, as the ſon of Arphaxad. But that no ſuch perſon ever exiſted appears evident from Gen. x, 24. xi, 12. and I Chron. i, 18.

CAINIANS, or CAINITES, } a ſect of heretics in the 2d } century, ſo called on account of their great reſpect for Cain. They pretended that the virtue which produced Abel was of an order inferior to that which had produced Cain, and that this was the reaſon why Cain had the victory over Abel and killed him; for they admitted a great number of æons, which they call-

ed *virtues*, of different ranks and orders. The honoured thoſe who carry in Scripture the moſt ſible marks of reprobation; as the inhabitants f Sodom, Eſau, Korah, Dathan, and Abiram. They had, in particular, a very great veneration or the traitor Judas, under pretence, that through im the death of Jeſus Chriſt had ſaved mankind. They had a forged goſpel of Judas, to which they aid great reſpect.

CAINITO, in botany, the name given by Plumier to the ſtar-appie. See CHRYSOPHYLLUM.

CAINON, in ancient geography, a city of Syria, ſaid by St Auguſtine to have been named after Cain.

CAINS, in the iſland of Candia, denote Greeks revolted, and retired to the Venetians, either at anda or Spina Longa; who, in time of war, burn, illage, and commit all manner of cruelties on heir ancient brethren under the Turks. When cain is taken, there is no mercy for him; they ither impale him, or put him to the ganche.

* *To* CAJOLE. *v. a.* [*cageoller*, Fr.] To flatter; o ſooth; to coax: a low word.—

Thought he, 'tis no mean part of civil
State prudence, to *cajole* the devil. *Hudibras.*

The one affronts him, while the other *cajoles* and ities him; takes up his quarrel, ſhakes his head t it, claſps his hand upon his breaſt, and then roteſts and proteſts. *L'Eſtrange.*—

My tongue that wanted to *cajole*
I try'd, but not a word wou'd troll. *Rymer.*

* CAJOLER. *n. ſ.* [from *cajole*.] A flatterer; a heedler.

* CAJOLERY. *n. ſ.* [*cajolerie*, Fr.] Flattery.

CAIOSTER, a town in Lincolnſhire, 55 m. om London.

CAJOU, CASHEW, or CASSU. See ANACARDIUM.

CAIOUS, a river of Turkey, in Aſia, which un into the Mediterranean.

CAIQUE. See CAIC.

CA IRA, [Fr. pronounced *Sa ira*,] The name, r rather chorus, of a political French ſong, very opular all over France, in the beginning of the evolution. The words literally ſignify, *Come on, will do*,—or *Come, it will go on*, and are ſaid o have been uſed almoſt proverbially by the late r Franklin, during and after the American reolution, every time he heard any piece of news vourable to liberty; from which circumſtance ey were adopted as the chorus of the French volution ſong. Songs, however, as well as ates, are ſubject to revolutions. This ſong and the arſeilloiſe hymn, another popular French ſong, ere both prohibited from being ſung in public, the French directory, ſoon after the laſt revoition in July 1794, in conſequence of the overated zeal of ſome individuals, who had occaoned riots about them, at the theatres in Paris, milar to thoſe that took place in our own country about the King's Anthem.

CAIRINA, in ornithology, a name given by me authors to the Muſcovy duck. See ANAS, . 29.

(1.) CAIRN, [Gael. a ſtone or rock,] a village of cotland, in Wigtonſhire, about 4 m. from Lochran.

(2.) CAIRN-BAY, a ſafe and commodious bay on the coaſt of Wigtonſhire, contiguous to the village; (N. 1.) which has anchoring ground for ſhips of any burden. Veſſels entering or coming from the Frith of Clyde fly to it for ſhelter in ſtormy weather.

CAIRNGORM, a mountain of Scotland, in Strathſpey, Inverneſs-ſhire, famous for its rock cryſtals of various tints, from a dark brown to a fine yellow topaz colour.

CAIRNHILL, a hill of Ireland, in Meath.

CAIRNKINNOW, a high mountain of Scotland, in Dumfries-ſhire; from the top of which may be ſeen Airſhire, Clydeſdale, Annandale, Galloway, Cumberland and Weſtmoreland.

CAIRNLOUGH, a town of Antrim, Ireland.

CAIRNPAT, a mountain of Scotland, 800 feet above the level of the ſea, ſuppoſed to be the 2d higheſt in Galloway. England, Ireland, Iſle of Man, and part of the Highlands of Scotland, are ſeen from the top of it.

CAIRNS, or CARNES, the vulgar name of thoſe heaps of ſtones which are to be ſeen in many places of Britain, particularly Scotland and Wales. They are compoſed of ſtones of all dimenſions thrown together in a conical form, a flat ſtone crowning the apex: ſee BARROWS, § 92, and *Plate* LIV. Various cauſes have been aſſigned by the learned for theſe heaps of ſtones. They have ſuppoſed them to have been, in times of inauguration, the places where the chieftain elect ſtood to ſhow himſelf to beſt advantage to the people; or the place from whence judgment was pronounced; or to have been erected on the road ſide in honour of Mercury; or to have been formed in memory of ſome ſolemn compact, particularly where accompanied by ſtanding pillars of ſtones; or for the celebration of certain religious ceremonies. Such might have been the reaſons, in ſome inſtances, where the evidences of ſtone cheſts and urns are wanting: but theſe are ſo generally found that they ſeem to determine the moſt uſual purpoſe of the piles in queſtion to have been for ſepulchral monuments. Even this deſtination might render them ſuitable to other purpoſes; particularly religious, to which by their nature they might be ſuppoſed to give additional ſolemnity. According to Toland, fires were kindled on the tops of flat ſtones, at certain times of the year, particularly on the eves of the 1ſt of May and the 1ſt of November, for the purpoſe of ſacrificing; at which time all the people having extinguiſhed their domeſtic fires rekindled them from the ſacred fires of the cairns. In general, therefore, theſe accumulations appear to have been deſigned for the ſepulchral protection of heroes and great men. The ſtone cheſts, the repoſitory of the urns and aſhes, are lodged in the earth: ſometimes only one, ſometimes more, are found thus depoſited; and Mr Pennant mentions an inſtance of 17 being diſcovered under the ſame pile. Cairns are of different ſizes, ſome of them very large. Mr Pennant deſcribes one in the iſland of Arran, 114 feet over, and of a vaſt height. They may juſtly be ſuppoſed to have been proportioned in ſize to the rank of the perſon, or to his popularity; the people of a whole diſtrict aſſembled to ſhow their reſpect to the deceaſed; and, by an active honouring of his memory, ſoon accumula-

ted heaps equal to thoſe that aſtoniſh us at this time. But theſe honours were not merely thoſe of the day; as long as the memory of the deceaſed endured, not a paſſenger went by without adding a ſtone to the heap: they ſuppoſed it would be an honour to the dead, and acceptable to his manes. To this moment there is a proverbial expreſſion among the Highlanders alluſive to the old practice: a ſuppliant will tell his patron, *Curri mi cloch ar do chairne*, "I will add a ſtone to your cairn;" meaning, When you are no more, I will do all poſſible honour to your memory. Cairns are to be found in all parts of our iſlands, in Cornwall, Wales, and all parts of North Britain; they were in uſe among the northern nations; Dahlberg, in his 323 plate, has given the figure of one. In Wales they are called *carneddau*; but the proverb taken from them there, is not of the compliment-al kind: *Karn ar dy ben*, or, "A cairn on your head," is a token of imprecation.

CAIRNSAIGH, [Celtic. *i. e.* the hill of peace,] a mountain of Scotland, in Ayrſhire.

CAIRNY, a pariſh of Scotland, in Aberdeenſhire, conſiſting of the united pariſhes of Bo'ARY, RATHVEN, and part of DRUMDELGY. It is part of the lordſhip of Strathbogie, which king Robert Bruce took from the Cummins, and gave to Sir Adam Gordon. The population in 1792, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Alexander Chalmers, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2600, which was 90 below the number in 1755. In winter it contains about 3000 black cattle, beſides ſome ſheep. The ſoil is good and would produce much corn, if farming were encouraged.

(1.) CAIRO, or } the capital of Egypt, ſituated
CAIRO, GRAND, } in a plain at the foot of a mountain. It was founded by Jawhar, a Magrebian general, in the year of the Hegira 358. He had laid the foundation of it under the horoſcope of Mars; and for that reaſon gave his new city the name of *Al Kahirah*, or the *Victorious*, an epithet applied by the Arab aſtronomers to that planet. In 362 it became the reſidence of the kaliffs of Egypt, and of conſequence the capital of that country, and has ever ſince continued to be ſo. It is divided into the New and Old cities. See N. 1. and 2. Lon. 31. 23. E. Lat. 30. 3. N.

1. CAIRO, NEW, which is properly Cairo, is ſeated in a ſandy plain about two miles and a half from the old city. It ſtands on the weſtern ſide of the Nile, from which it is not ¼ of a mile diſtant. It is extended along the mountain on which the caſtle is built, for the ſake of which it was removed hither, to be under its protection. However the change is much for the worſe, as well with regard to air as water, and the pleaſantneſs of the proſpect. Bulac is the port of Cairo. See BULAC. Some travellers have made Cairo of a moſt enormous magnitude, by taking in Bulac, with the old city and the new; the real circumference of it, however, is not above ten miles, but it is extremely populous. The firſt thing that ſtrikes a traveller is the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, and the appearance of the houſes. Theſe are ſo daubed with mud on the out ſide, that one would think they were built with nothing elſe. Beſides, as the ſtreets are unpaved, and always full of people, walking in them is very inconvenient, eſpecially to ſtrangers. To remedy this, there are a great number of aſſes, always ready to be hired for a penny a mile. The owners drive them along and give notice to the crowd to make way. The Chriſtians in this, as well as other parts of the Turkiſh dominions, are not permitted to ride upon horſes. The number of the inhabitants can only be gueſſed at; but it muſt be very great, for in ſome years the plague will carry off 200,000, without their being much miſſed. The houſes are from 1 to 2 or 3 ſtories high, and flat at the top; where they take the air, and often ſleep all night. The higher ranks have a court on the inſide, like a college. The common run of houſes have very little room, and even among great people it is uſual for 20 or 30 to lie in the ſame hall. Some houſes will hold 300 perſons of both ſexes, among whom are 20 or 30 ſlaves, and thoſe of ordinary rank have generally 3 or 4. There is a canal called HALIS, which runs along the city from one end to the other, with houſes on each ſide, which make a large ſtraight ſtreet. There are alſo ſeveral lakes, which are called *birks* in the language of the country. The principal of theſe, which is near the caſtle, is 580 paces in diameter. The moſt elegant houſes in the city are built on its banks; but what is extraordinary, eight months in the year it contains water, and the other four it appears with a charming verdure. When the quantity of water is ſufficient, it is always crowded with gilded boats, barges, and barks, in which people of condition take their pleaſure towards night, at which time curious fire-works are exhibited with variety of muſic. New Cairo is ſurrounded with walls built with ſtone, on which are handſome battlements, and at every diſtance of a hundred paces, there are very fine towers, which have room for a great number of people. The walls were never very high, and are in many places gone to ruin. The baſha lives in the caſtle, which was built by Saladin 700 years ago. It ſtands in the middle of the famous mountain, MOKTTAM, which terminates here, after ſtretching along the banks of the Nile from Ethiopia. This caſtle is the only place of defence in Egypt; and yet the Turks take no notice of its decay, inſomuch that in proceſs of time it will become a heap of rubbiſh. The principal part in it is a magnificent hall, environed with 12 columns of granite, of a prodigious height and thickneſs, which ſuſtain an open dome, under which Saladin diſtributed juſtice to his ſubjects. Round the dome there is an inſcription in relievo, which mentions the date and by whom it was built. From this place the whole city of Cairo may be ſeen, and above 30 miles along the Nile, with the fruitful plains near it; as well as the moſques, pyramids, villages, and gardens, with which their fields are covered. Theſe granite pillars were the work of antiquity, for they were got out of the ruins of Alexandria. There are likewiſe in the moſques and in the principal houſes no leſs than 40,000 more, beſides great magazines, where all kinds are to be had at very low rates. A janiſſary happened to find five in his garden, as large as thoſe in the caſtle; but could not find any machine of ſtrength ſufficient to move them, and therefore had them ſawed in pieces to make mill-ſtones!

18

is believed that there have been 30 or 40,000 of
ese pillars brought from Alexandria, where there
e yet many more to be had. Cairo has 3 gates,
hich are very magnificent; and about 300 pub-
moſques, ſome of which have ſix minarets.
he moſque of Aſhar hath ſeveral buildings ad-
ning, which were once a famous univerſity, and
,000 ſcholars and ſtudents were maintained on
e foundation; but has now not above 1400, and
oſe are only taught to read and write. All the
ſques are built upon the ſame plan, and differ
ly in magnitude. The entrance is through the
incipal gate into a large ſquare, open on the
, but well paved. Round this are covered
lleries, ſupported by pillars; under which they
their prayers, in the ſhade. On one ſide of
ſquare there are particular places with baſons
water, for the conveniency of performing the
lutions injoined by the Koran. The moſt re-
rkable part of the moſque, beſides the minaret,
the dome. This is often bold, well proportion-
, and of an aſtoniſhing magnitude. The inſide
nes are carved like lace, flowers, and melons.
ey are built ſo firm, and with ſuch art, that
y will laſt 600 or 700 years. About the out-
rd circumference there are large Arabic inſcrip-
ns, in relievo, which may be read by thoſe
o ſtand below, though they are ſometimes of
wonderful height. The khanes or caravanſeras
e numerous and large, with courts in the mid-
, like their houſes. Some are ſeveral ſtories
gh, and are always full of people and merchan-
e. The Nubians, the Abyſſinians, and other
frican nations, which come to Cairo, have one
themſelves, where they always meet with lod-
ng. Here they are ſecure from inſults, and their
ſets are ſafe. Beſides theſe, there is a BAZAR,
here all ſorts of goods are to be ſold. This is
a long broad ſtreet; and yet the crowd is ſo
eat, one can hardly paſs along. At the end of
is ſtreet is another ſhort one, but pretty broad,
ith ſhops full of the beſt ſort of goods, and pre-
ous merchandiſe. At the end of this ſhort ſtreet
ere is a great khane, where all ſorts of white
ves are to be ſold. Farther than this is another
ane, where a great number of blacks, of both
xes, are expoſed to ſale. Not far from the beſt
arket-place is an hoſpital, and a moſque for mad
ople. They alſo receive and maintain ſick peo-
e into this hoſpital, but they are poorly looked
ter. The increaſe of the Nile generally begins
May, and in June the inhabitants proclaim a-
ut the city how much it is riſen. Over againſt
d Cairo the baſha has a houſe, wherein the wa-
r enters to a column, which has lines at the diſ-
nce of every inch, and marks at every two feet
far as 30. When the water riſes to 22 feet, it
thought to be of a ſufficient height; when it
ſes much higher, it does a great deal of miſchief.
here is much pomp and ceremony uſed in let-
ng the water into the canal above-mentioned.
he baſha gives the firſt ſtroke towards the remo-
l of the dike or dam. When the water has fill-
d the canal and lakes in the city, and the nume-
ous ciſterns that are in the moſques and private
ouſes, it is let into a vaſt plain, to the N. E. the
tent of which is 50 miles. When the country
covered with water, it is no unpleaſant ſight to
viewthe towns appearing like little iſlands, and
the people paſſing and repaſſing in boats. New
Cairo lies 100 miles S. from the mouth of the Nile.

2. CAIRO, OLD, lies on the E. ſide of the Nile, and has ſcarce any thing remarkable but the granaries of Joſeph; which are nothing but a high wall, lately built, which includes a ſquare ſpot of ground, where they depoſite wheat, barley, and other grain, which is a tribute to the baſha, paid by the owners of land. This has no other covering but the heavens, and therefore the birds are always ſure to have their ſhare. There is likewiſe a tolerably handſome church, which is made uſe of by the Copts, who are Chriſtians and the original inhabitants of Egypt. Joſeph's well is in the caſtle, and was made by Mohammed about 700 years ago. It is called JOSEPH'S WELL, becauſe they attribute every thing extraordinary to that great prime miniſter of Egypt. It is cut in a rock, and is 280 feet in depth. The water is drawn up to the top by oxen, placed on platforms, at proper diſtances, which turn about the machines that raiſe it. The deſcent is ſo gradual that, though there are no ſteps, the oxen can deſcend and aſcend with eaſe.

(II.) CAIRO, INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, &c. OF. The inhabitants of Cairo are a mixture of Moors, Turks, Jews, Greeks, and Copths, or Coptis. The only difference between the habit of the Moors and Coptis is their turbans; thoſe of the Moors being white, and of the Coptis white ſtriped with blue. The common people generally wear a long black looſe frock, ſewed together all down before. The Jews wear a frock of the ſame faſhion, made of cloth; and their caps are like a high crowned hat, without brims, covered with the ſame cloth, but not ſo taper. The Jewiſh women's are not very unlike the men's, but more light and long. The Greeks are habited like the Turks, only their turbans differ. Proviſions of all kinds are exceedingly plenty; for 20 eggs may be bought for a *parrah* or penny, and bread is ſix times as cheap as with us. They have almoſt all ſorts of fleſh and fiſh; particularly tame buffaloes, which are very uſeful. They bring goats into the ſtreets in great numbers, to ſell their milk. Their gardens are well ſtocked with fruit trees of various kinds, as well as roots, herbs, melons, and cucumbers. The moſt common animal food is mutton. The goats are very beautiful, and have ears two feet in length; but their fleſh is in no great eſteem.

CAIROAN, or } a city of Africa, in the king-
CAIRWAN, } dom of Tunis, ſeated in a ſandy barren ſoil, about 5 miles from the gulph of Capres. It has neither ſpring, well, nor river; and therefore the inhabitants are obliged to preſerve rain water in tanks and ciſterns. It was built by the Aglabites; and is the ancient CYRENE, but hath now loſt its ſplendor. There is ſtill, however, a very ſuperb moſque, and the tombs of the kings of Tunis are yet to be ſeen. It lies 80 miles S. of Tunis. Lon. 9. 12. E. Lat. 35. 40. N.

CAISHOW, a diſtrict in Buckinghamſhire, ſo named from its ancient inhabitants the CASSII.

CAISSE D' ESCOMPTE, [Fr. *i. e.* box or office of diſcount,] a bank eſtabliſhed at Paris by the old government of France, with a view to reſtore

public credit, a ſhort time before the revolution. It was at firſt under the direction of the celebrated M. Neckar, in 1789; but was ſuppreſſed by the convention, on the motion of Cambon, 24th Aug. 1793.

(1.) * CAISSON. *n.ſ.* [Fr.] 1. A cheſt of bombs or powder, laid in the enemy's way, to be fired at their approach. 2. A wooden caſe in which the piers of bridges are built within the water.

(2.) CAISSON ſignifies alſo a covered waggon to carry bread, or ammunition.

CAISTOR, a town in Lincolnſhire.

CAITAIA, in zoology, the name of an American monkey, remarkable for its ſweet ſmell, having ſomewhat of a ſcent of muſk; its hair is long and of a whitiſh yellow colour; its head is round; its forehead depreſſed, and very ſmall; its noſe ſmall and flatted, and its tail arched. It is eaſily tamed, but very clamorous and quarrelſome.

CAITHNESS, otherwiſe called the county of WICK, is the moſt northern county of Scotland. It is bounded on the E. by the ocean, and by Strathnaver and Sutherland on the S. and S. W. from theſe it is divided by the mountains Orde, and a continued ridge of hills as far as Knockfin, and thence by the whole courſe of the river Hallowdale. On the N. it is waſhed by the Pentland frith, which divides it from the Orkneys. It extends 35 miles from N. to S. and about 20 from E. to W. The coaſt is rocky, and remarkable for a number of bays and promontories. Of theſe, the principal are Sandſide head to the W. pointing to the opening of Pentland frith; Orcas, now Holborn head, and DUNNET HEAD, both pointing northward to the frith. SCRIBISTER bay, on the N. W. is a good harbour, where ſhips may ride ſecurely. RICE bay, on the eaſt ſide, extends 3 miles in breadth; but is of dangerous acceſs, on account of ſome ſunk rocks at the entrance. At the bottom of this bay appear the ruins of two ſtrong caſtles, the ſeat of the Earl of Caithneſs, called *Caſtle Sinclair*, and Gernego, joined to each other by a draw-bridge. Duncan's bay, otherwiſe called *Dunſby-head*, is the N. E. point of Caithneſs, and the moſt extreme promontory in Britain. At this place, the breadth of the frith does not exceed 12 miles. It is the ordinary ferry to the Orkneys. Here is likewiſe Clythneſs pointing E. and Noſhead pointing N. E. The ſea in this place is very impetuous, being in continual agitation from violent counter-tides, currents, and vortices. The only iſland belonging to this county is that of STROMA, in the Pentland frith, two miles from the main land. The county of Caithneſs, though chiefly mountainous, flattens towards the ſea coaſt, where the ground is arable, and produces good harveſts of oats and barley, ſufficient for the natives, and yielding a ſurplus for exportation. Caithneſs is well watered with ſmall rivers, brooks, lakes, and fountains, and affords a few woods of birch, but is in general bare of trees; and even thoſe the inhabitants plant are ſtunted in their growth. Lead is found at Dunnet, copper at Old Urk, and iron ore at ſeveral places; but theſe advantages are not improved. The air of Caithneſs is temperate, though in the latitude of 58°, where the longeſt [illegible] in ſummer laſts 18 hours; and when the ſun ſets, he makes ſo ſmall an arch of a circle below the horizon, that the people enjoy twilight until he riſes again. The fuel uſed by the inhabitants conſiſts of peat and turf, although the ground yields in great plenty. The foreſts of Moravins and Berridale afford abundance of red deer and roe-bucks: the country is well ſtored with hares, rabbits, grouſe, heathcocks, pheaſants, and all ſorts of game; beſides a peculiar ſpecies of birds called SNOW-FLEETS; which are about the ſize of a ſparrow, exceedingly delicious, and come hither in large flights about the middle of February, and depart in April. The hills are covered with ſheep and black cattle; which are ſo numerous, that a fat cow has been ſold for 40s. The rocks along the coaſts are frequented by eagles, hawks, and all kinds of ſea fowl, whoſe eggs and young are taken in vaſt quantities by the natives. The rivers and lakes abound with trout, ſalmon and eels; and the ſea affords a very advantageous fiſhery. Divers obeliſks and ancient monuments appear in this diſtrict, and ſeveral Romiſh chapels are ſtill ſtanding. The laſt private war in Scotland was occaſioned by a diſpute relating to this county. An earl of Breadalbane married an heireſs of Caithneſs: the inhabitants would not admit her title, but ſet up another perſon in oppoſition. The earl, according to the cuſtom of thoſe times, deſigned to aſſert his right by force of arms: he raiſed an army of 1500 men; but thinking the number too great, he diſmiſſed one 500, and then another. With the remainder he marched to the borders of Caithneſs. He had added ſtratagem to force. He knew that the enemy's army waited for him on the other ſide of the promontory of Ord. He knew alſo, that whiſky was then the nectar of Caithneſs; and therefore ordered a ſhip laden with that liquor to paſs round and be purpoſely ſtranded on the ſhore. The directions were punctually obeyed; and the crew in a ſeeming fright eſcaped in their boats to the invading army. The Caithneſs men made a prize of the ſhip; but making too free with the liquor, became an eaſy prey to the earl, who attacked them during their intoxication, and gained the county, which he diſpoſed of very ſoon after the conqueſt. Caithneſs is well peopled with a race of hardy inhabitants, who employ themſelves chiefly in fiſhing, and breeding ſheep and black cattle. They are remarkably induſtrious; for between Wick and Dunbeath, one continued track of rugged rocks, extending 12 miles, they have found ſeveral little harbours for their fiſhing boats, and cut artificial ſteps from the beach to the top of the rocks, where they have erected houſes in which they cure and dry the fiſh for market. The county ſends out in ſome years about 20,000 head of black cattle; but in bad ſeaſons the farmers are and ſalt vaſt numbers for ſale. Great numbers of ſwine are alſo reared; but the rev. Dr Monro, miniſter of Caniſbay, ſays "the damage they do in winter to the graſs and corn lands, as they are allowed to roam at large, far exceeds any advantages that can accrue from them." (*Sir J. Sinc. Stat. Acc.* viii. 150.) Theſe animals ſeem to be a peculiar ſpecies of ſwine. They are ſhort, high-backed, long-briſtled, ſharp, ſlender, and long-noſed; have long erect ears, and moſt ferocious looks.

ks. Here are neither barns nor granaries: the
orn is threſhed out, and preſerved in the chaff in
ks: which are ſtacks, in the ſhape of bee hives,
atched quite round, where it will keep good for
ro years. Vaſt numbers of ſalmon are taken at
ſle-hill, Dunnet, Wick, and Thurſo. A mi-
ulous draught occurred at this laſt place; not
s than 1500 being taken at one tide, within the
mory of man; and Mr Smollet informs us,
t, in the neighbourhood, above 300 good ſal-
on have been taken at one draught of the net.
November, great numbers of ſeals are taken in
e caverns that open into the ſea, and run ſome
ndreds of yards under ground. The entrances
theſe caverns are narrow, but the inſide lofty
d ſpacious. The ſeal-hunters enter theſe in
all boats with torches, which they light as ſoon
they land, and then with loud ſhouts alarm the
mals, which they kill with clubs as they at-
pt to paſs. This is a hazardous employment;
ſhould the wind blow hard from ſea, theſe ad-
turers are inevitably loſt. Sometimes a large
ck of ſeals, 12 feet long, have been killed on
coaſt. During the ſpring, great quantities of
op-fiſh reſort to this coaſt, and are the prey of
ſeals, as appears from the number of ſkins of
ſe fiſhes which at that ſeaſon float aſhore. At
ain times alſo the ſeals ſeem to be viſited by a
at mortality; for, at thoſe times, multitudes
them are ſeen dead in the water. Much lime-
ne is found in this country, which when burnt
nade into a compoſt with turf and ſea plants,
ultitudes (which were formerly *unlimited*,) ſtill
ill leſs or more in many parts of this county,
l till they be totally aboliſhed, muſt prove im-
ble obſtructions to its improvement. Mr Gun,
niſter of Latheron, juſtly obſerves, they are
ith flaviſh and detrimental to the tenants. They
d to hurt their morals, as well as to hinder in-
ſtry and improvement." (*Stat. Acc.* xvii. 26.)
t can be more diſgraceful than to ſee women
ding in droves of 60 or 70 to the fields with
ets of dung on their backs, filled at pleaſure
m the dunghills by their lords and maſters?
ch at leaſt was the ſlavery the people were un-
within theſe 20 years. But the public-ſpirited
rtions of Sir J. Sinclair are making rapid im-
vements in this county, and every where.
Emancipation, (ſays Dr Moriſon, above quoted,)
very where prevailing, and the monſter *Feudaliſm*
iding his head in ſhame." *Stat. Acc.* viii. 148.

CAITIFF. *n. ſ.* [*cattivo*, Ital. a ſlave; whence
ame to ſignify a bad man, with ſome implica-
n of meanneſs; as *knave* in Engliſh, and *fur* in
m; ſo certainly does ſlavery deſtroy virtue.—
"Ημισυ τοι αρετης αποαινυται ευλιον ημαρ. *Homer.*
A ſlave and a ſcoundrel are ſignified by the ſame
rds in many languages.] A mean villain; a deſ-
able knave: it often implies a mixture of wic-
neſs and miſery.—

Vile *caitiff*, vaſſal of dread and deſpair,
Unworthy of the common breathed air;
Why liveſt thou, dead dog, a longer day,
And doſt not unto death thyſelf prepare? *Spenſ.*

'Tis not impoſſible
But one, the wickedeſt *caitiff* on the ground
May ſeem as ſhy, as grave, as juſt, as abſolute,
As Angelo. *Shakeſpeare.*

The wretched *caitiff*, all alone,
As he believ'd, began to moan,
And tell his ſtory to himſelf. *Hudibras.*

CAITIFNESS, *n. ſ. obſ.* Slavery. *Chauc.*

CAITISNED, *adj. obſ.* Chained. *Chauc.*

CAITIVE, *adj. obſ.* Miſerable.

(1.) CAIUS, a Roman prænomen. See CAIA.

(2.) CAIUS, Dr John. See KAYE.

(1.) * CAKE. *n. ſ.* [*caeb*, Teut.] 1. A kind of delicate bread.—You muſt be ſeeing chriſtenings? do you look for ale and *cakes* here, you rude raſcals? *Shakeſp.*—

My *cake* is dough, but I'll in among the reſt,
Out of hope of all, but my ſhare of the feaſt.
Shakeſpeare.

The diſmal day was come, the prieſts prepare
Their leaven'd *cakes*, and fillets for my hair.
Dryden.

2. Any thing of a form rather flat than high; by which it is ſometimes diſtinguiſhed from a loaf.—There is a *cake* that groweth upon the ſide of a dead tree, that hath gotten no name, but it is large and of a cheſnut colour, and hard and pithy. *Bacon's Nat. Hiſt.* 3. Concreted matter; coagulated matter.—

Then when the fleecy ſkies new clothe the wood,
And *cakes* of ruſtling ice come rolling down the flood. *Dryden.*

(2.) CAKES are of various compoſitions, ſuch as *ſeed-cakes*, made of flour, butter, cream, ſugar, coriander and caraway ſeeds, mace, and other ſpices and perfumes baked in the oven; *plum-cakes*, made much after the ſame manner, only with fewer ſeeds, and the addition of currants; *pan-cakes*, made of a mixture of flower, eggs, &c. fried; *cheeſe-cakes*, made of cream, eggs, and flour, with or without cheeſe curd, butter, almonds, &c. *oaten-cakes*, made of fine oaten flour, mixed with yeſt and ſometimes without, rolled thin, and laid on an iron or ſtone to bake over a ſlow fire; *ſugar-cakes*, made of fine ſugar beaten and ſearced with the fineſt flour, adding butter, roſe-water, and ſpices; *roſe-cakes*, *placentæ roſaceæ*, leaves of roſes dried and preſſed into a maſs, ſold in the ſhops for epithems. The ancient Hebrews had ſeveral ſorts of cakes, which they offered in the temple. They were made of the meal either of wheat or barley; they were kneaded ſometimes with oil and ſometimes with honey. Sometimes they only rubbed them over with oil when they were baked, or fried them with oil in a frying pan upon the fire. In the ceremony of Aaron's conſecration, cakes unleavened, of fine wheaten flour, tempered with oil, made part of the offering. *Exod.* xxix. 2.

* *To* CAKE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To harden, as dough in the oven.—This burning matter, as it ſunk very leiſurely, had time to *cake* together, and form the bottom, which covers the mouth of that dreadful vault that lies underneath it. *Addiſon on Italy.*—

This is that very Mab,
That plaits the manes of horſes in the night,
And *cakes* the elflocks in foul ſluttiſh hairs. *Shak.*

He rins'd the wound,
And waſh'd away the ſtrings and clotted blood,
That *cak'd* within. *Addiſon.*

CAKET, a town of Perſia, in the province of Gurgiſtan, near Mount Caucaſus. Its trade conſiſts chiefly in ſilks. Lon. 46. 15 E. Lat. 43. 32. N.

(1.) CALA, a ci-devant barony of France, in Maine.

(2.) CALA, or } a town of France, in the depart-
CALA, St, } ment of Maine.

CALABA, in botany, a name given by Plumier to a genus of plants, called by Linnæus CARYOPHYLLUS.

(1.) CALABASH, in botany. See CUCURBITA.

(2.) CALABASH, in commerce, [from *Calabacca*, Span. which ſignifies the ſame,] a light kind of veſſel formed of the ſhell of a gourd, emptied and dried, ſerving to put divers kinds of goods in, as pitch, roſin, and the like. The Indians both of the North and South Sea, put the pearls they have fiſhed in calabaſhes, and the negroes on the coaſt of Africa do the ſame by their gold-duſt. The ſmaller calabaſhes are alſo frequently uſed by theſe people as a meaſure, by which they ſell theſe precious commodities to the Europeans. The ſame veſſels likewiſe ſerve to hold liquors; and anſwer as cups, and bottles, for ſoldiers and pilgrims.

(3.)* CALABASH TREE.—It hath a flower conſiſting of one leaf, divided at the brim into ſeveral parts; from whoſe cup riſes the pointal, in the hinder part of the flower; which afterwards becomes a fleſhy fruit, having an hard ſhell. They riſe to the height of twenty-five or thirty feet in the Weſt Indies, where they grow naturally. The ſhells are uſed by the negroes for cups, as alſo for making inſtruments of muſic, by making a hole in the ſhell, and putting in ſmall ſtones, with which they make a ſort of rattle. *Miller.*

(4.) CALABASH TREE. See CRESCENTIA.

CALABASH TREE, AFRICAN. See ADANSONIA.

CALABER, a ſpecies of ſquirrel.

CALABRIA, a country of Italy in the kingdom of Naples, which has been almoſt entirely deſolated by the earthquakes of 1783. The reiterated ſhocks extended from Cape Spartivento to Amantea above the gulf of St Eufemia, and alſo affected that part of Sicily which lies oppoſite to the ſouthern extremity of Italy. Thoſe of the 5th and 7th Feb. and 28th March, were the moſt violent, and completed the deſtruction of every building throughout the above-mentioned ſpace. Not one ſtone was left upon another ſouth of the narrow iſthmus of Squillace; and what is more diſaſtrous, a very large proportion of the inhabitants was killed by the falling of their houſes, near 40,000 lives being loſt. Some were dug out alive after remaining a ſurpriſing length of time buried among the rubbiſh. Meſſina became a maſs of ruins; its beautiful palazzata was thrown in upon the town, and its quay cracked into ditches full of water. Reggio almoſt deſtroyed; Tropea greatly damaged; every other place in the province levelled to the ground. Before and during the conculſion the clouds gathered, and then hung immoveable and heavy other the earth. At Palmi the atmoſphere had ſo fiery an aſpect, that many people thought part of the town was burning. It was afterwards remembered, that an unuſual heat had affected the ſkins of ſeveral perſons juſt before the ſhock; the rivers aſſumed a muddy aſh-coloured tinge, and a ſulphureous ſmell was almoſt general. A frigate paſſing between Calabria and Lipari felt ſo ſevere a ſhock, that the ſeamen was thrown from the helm, and the cannons were raiſed up to their carriages, while all around the ſea exhaled a ſtrong ſmell of brimſtone. Stupendous alterations were occaſioned in the face of the country; rivers choaked up by the falling in of the hills, were converted into lakes, which if not ſpeedily drained by ſome future convulſion, or opened by human labour, will ſtagnate and the air with peſtilential vapours, and deſtroy the remnants of population. Whole acres of ground, with houſes and trees upon them, were broken off from the plains, and waſhed many furlongs down the deep hollows which the courſe of the rivers had worn; there, to the aſtoniſhment and terror of beholders, they found a new foundation to reſt upon, either in an upright or an inclining poſition. In ſhort, every ſpecies of phenomenon, incident to theſe deſtructive commotions of the earth, was to be ſeen in its utmoſt extent and variety in the ruinated country. Their Sicilian majeſties, with the utmoſt expedition, diſpatched veſſels loaded with every thing that could be thought of on the occaſion for the relief and accommodation of the diſtreſſed Calabrians; a general officer went from Naples with engineers and troops to direct the operations of the perſons employed in clearing the way and rebuilding the houſes, and to defend the property of all the ſufferers. The king ordered this officer to take all the money the royal treaſures could ſupply or borrow; for, rather than it ſhould be wanting on this preſſing call, he was determined to part with his plate, nay, the very furniture of his palace. A meſſenger ſent off from a town near Reggio on the 8th Feb. travelled 4 days without ſhelter, and without being able to procure a morſel of bread; he ſupported nature with a piece of cheeſe which he had brought in his pocket, and the vegetables he was lucky enough to find near the road. To add to all their other ſufferings, the Calabrians found themſelves and the miſerable wreck of their fortunes expoſed to the depredations of robbers and pirates. Villains landed from boats and plundered ſeveral places, and thieves went even from Naples in ſearch of booty; In order to ſtrike greater terror, they dreſſed themſelves like Miſſionaries; but were diſcovered and driven off. To the accumulated diſtreſs ſucceeded a moſt inclement ſeaſon, which obſtructed every effort made to alleviate it; and almoſt daily earthquakes kept the inhabitants in continual dread, not of being deſtroyed by the fall of houſes, for none were left, but of being ſwallowed up by the ſplitting of the earth, or buried in the waves by ſome ſudden undation. See EARTHQUAKE. Calabria is divided into ULTERIOR and CITERIOR.

1. CALABRIA CITERIOR, or CITRA, [or THER CALABRIA] is one of the 12 provinces of Naples; and is bounded on the S. by Calabria Ulterior, on the N. by Baſilicata, and on the W. and E. by the ſea: Coſenza is the capital.

2. CALABRIA ULTERIOR, or ULTRA, [or THER CALABRIA], is waſhed by the Mediterranean ſea on the E. S. and W. and bounded by Calabria Citra on the N. Reggio is the capital.

CALABRIANS, the people of CALABRIA.
CALABRINI, in botany. See LONCHITIS.
CALACINE, or CALLACHENE, in ancient geography, an extenſive diſtrict of Aſſyria, N. E. of the Tigris, and S. of the Gordian mountains of Armenia.
CALADE, in the menage, the ſloping declivity of a manege ground, upon which we ride down a horſe ſeveral times, putting him to a ſhort gallop, with his fore hams in the air, to learn him to ſtop or bend his haunches, and form his ſtop upon the aids of the calves of the legs, the ſtay of the bridle, and the caveſon ſeaſonably given.
CALAE, CALAEM, or CALAEMUM, a ſpecies of Indian tin, which, by force of fire, is tranſmutable into ceruſs, like that made of lead.
CALAGORINA, or CALAGURIS, called alſo NASICA, in ancient geography, a city of the Vaſcones in the Hither Spain; now called CALAHORRA.
CALAH, an ancient city of Aſſyria, built ſoon after the deluge by Aſhur; from which the adjacent country was named CALACINE.
CALAHORRA, an epiſcopal town of Spain, in New Caſtile, ſeated on a fertile ſoil, on the ſide of a hill which extends to the banks of the river Ebro. It is 60 m. N. W. of Saragoſſa. Lon. 2, 7. W. Lat. 42. 12. N.
CALAINUS. See CALLIMUS.
(1.) CALAIS, a ſtrong town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais, (N. 4.) and the levant province of Lower Picardy, with a citadel and a fortified harbour. It is built in the form of a triangle, one ſide of which is towards the ſea. The citadel is as large as the town, and has but one entrance. It is a trading place, with handſome ſtreets and ſeveral churches. The number of inhabitants is reckoned 4000. Calais was taken by Edward III. in 1347. Hither he marched his victorious army from Creſcy, and inveſted the town on the 8th Sept. But finding that it could not be taken by force without the deſtruction of great multitudes of his men, he turned the ſiege into a blockade; and having made ſtrong entrenchments to ſecure his army from the enemy, and to protect them from the inclemency of the weather, and ſtationed a fleet before the harbour to prevent the introduction of proviſions, he reſolved to wait with patience till the place fell into his hands by famine. The beſieged, diſcovering his intention, turned 1700 women, children, and old people, out of the town, to ſave their proviſions; and Edward had the goodneſs, after entertaining them with a dinner, and giving them two-pence a piece, to ſuffer them to paſs. The garriſon and inhabitants of Calais having at length conſumed all their proviſions, and even eaten all the horſes, dogs, cats, and vermin, in the place, the governor John de Vienne appeared upon the walls, and offered to capitulate. Edward, greatly incenſed at their obſtinate reſiſtance, which had detained him 11 months under their walls, at an immenſe expence both of men and money, ſent Sir Walter Mauny, an illuſtrious knight, to acquaint the governor, that he would grant them no terms; but that they muſt ſurrender at diſcretion. At length, however, at the ſpirited remonſtrances of the governor, and the perſuaſions of Sir Walter Mauny, Edward conſented to grant their lives to all the garriſon and inhabitants, except ſix of the principal burgeſſes, who ſhould deliver to him the keys of the city, with ropes about their necks. When theſe terms were made known to the people of Calais, they were plunged into the deepeſt diſtreſs; and after all the miſeries they had ſuffered, they could not think, without horror of giving up ſix of their fellow citizens to certain death. In this extremity, when the whole people were drowned in tears, and uncertain what to do, Euſtace de St Pierre, one of the richeſt merchants in the place, ſtepped forth, and voluntarily offered himſelf to be one of the 6 devoted victims. His noble example was ſoon imitated by other 5 of the moſt wealthy citizens. Theſe true patriots, barefooted and bareheaded, with ropes about their necks, were attended to the gates by the whole inhabitants, with tears, bleſſings, and prayers, for their ſafety. When they were brought into Edward's preſence, they laid the keys of the city at his feet, and falling on their knees implored his mercy in ſuch moving ſtrains, that all the noble ſpectators melted into tears. The king's reſentment was ſo ſtrong for the many loſſes he had ſuffered in this tedious ſiege, that he was in danger of forgetting his uſual humanity; when the queen, falling upon her knees before him, earneſtly begged and obtained their lives. This excellent princeſs conducted theſe virtuous citizens, to her own apartment, entertained them honourably, and diſmiſſed them with preſents. Edward took poſſeſſion of Calais Aug. 4th; and to ſecure a conqueſt of ſo great importance, he found it neceſſary to turn out all the ancient inhabitants, who had diſcovered ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native prince, and to people it with Engliſh ſubjects. Calais remained ſubject to England till the inglorious reign of queen Mary, when it was retaken by the duke of Guiſe. This general began to inveſt Calais, Jan. 1, 1557; and, by various judicious manœuvres, recovered in 8 days, a fortreſs which coſt the victorious Edward III. a whole year's ſiege, and which had been now 210 years in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, without ſo much as a ſingle attempt to retake it. There are very different accounts given of this matter: Some Engliſh hiſtorians ſay, that king Philip penetrating the deſign of the French upon this fortreſs, gave notice of it in England, and offered to take the defence of it upon himſelf; but that this, out of jealouſy, was refuſed, it being believed to be only an artifice, to get a place of ſuch conſequence into his own hands. The truth ſeems to be this: The ſtrength of Calais conſiſted in its ſituation and outworks, which required a very numerous garriſon; and this being attended with a very large expence, the beſt part of the troops had been ſent to join Philip's army, ſo that the governor had not above 500 men, and there were not more than 250 of the townſmen able to bear arms. As to ammunition, artillery, and proviſions, the French found abundance there, but with ſo ſlender a garriſon, that it was impoſſible to make a better defence; and therefore, when lord Wentworth, the governor, was tried by his peers for the loſs of the place, he

was

was acquitted. The duke obliged all the Engliſh inhabitants to quit Calais; and beſtowed the government of it upon des Termes. It was bombarded in 1696 by the Engliſh, but with little effect. The fortifications of Calais are good; but its greateſt ſtrength is its ſituation among the marſhes, which may be overflowed at the approach of an enemy. The harbour is not ſo good as formerly, nor will it admit veſſels of any great burden. In times of peace, there are packet-boats going twice a week between Dover and Calais. It is 21 m. E. S. E. of Dover and 152 N. of Paris. Lon. 1. 56. E. Lat. 50. 58. N.

(2.) CALAIS, in fabulous hiſtory, the twin brother of ZETHES. They were ſaid to have been the ſons of Boreas and Orythyia, and to have had wings. They went on the voyage to Colchis with the Argonauts, delivered Phineus from the harpies, and were ſlain by Hercules.

(3.) CALAIS, ST, a town of France, in the department of Sarte. Lon. 0. 43. E. Lat. 47. 55. N.

(4.) CALAIS, STRAITS OF, a department of France, bounded on the E. by the department of the North; on the S. by that of Somme; on the W. by the Britiſh Channel, and on the N. by the Straits of Dover. It is formed partly out of the ci-devant province of Artois, and partly from that of Picardy. Calais, (N. E.) St Omers, Bethune, Heſdin, Arras, and Bapaume, are its chief towns.

(1.) * CALAMANCO. *n. ſ.* [a word derived, probably by ſome accident, from *calamancus*, Lat. which, in the middle ages, ſignified a hat.] A kind of woollen ſtuff.—He was of a bulk and ſtature larger than ordinary, had a red coat, ſlung open to ſhew a *calamanco* waiſtcoat. *Tatler.*

(2.) CALAMANCO is manufactured in England and Brabant. It has a fine gloſs; and is checkered in the warp, whence the checks appear only on the right ſide. Some calamancos are quite plain, others have broad ſtripes adorned with flowers, ſome with plain broad ſtripes, ſome with narrow ſtripes, and others watered.

CALAMARIÆ. See BOTANY, *Index.*

CALAMATA, or CALAMETA, a conſiderable town of European Turky, in the Morea, and province of Belvedera. It was taken by the Venetians in 1685; but the Turks retook it with all the Morea. It ſtands on the river Spinarza, 8 miles from the ſea. Lon. 22. 15. E. Lat. 37. 8. N.

CALAMBA, or } in commerce, a kind of wood
CALAMBAC, } brought from China, uſually ſold under the denomination of AGALLOCHUM, or ALOES WOOD.

CALAMIANES, 3 ſmall iſlands of Aſia, between Borneo and the Philippines; remarkable for the birds neſts gathered there for food. See BIRDS-NESTS, § 4.

CALAMIFEROUS, *adj.* a denomination given by ſome to CULMIFEROUS plants.

CALAMINARIS LAPIS. See CALAMINE, § 2.

(1.) * CALAMINE, or *Lapis Calaminaris. n. ſ.* A kind of foſſile bituminous earth, which, being mixed with copper, changes it into braſs.—We muſt not omit thoſe, which, though not ſo much beauty, yet are of greater uſe, *viz.* loadſtones, whetſtones of all kinds, limeſtones, *calamine*, or *lapis calaminaris*. *Locke.*

(2.) CALAMINE, CALAMY, LAPIS CALAMINARIS, or CADMIA FOSSILIS is a ſtone or mineral, containing zinc, iron, and ſometimes other ſubſtances. It is conſiderably heavy, and the more ſo the better; moderately hard and brittle; of a conſiſtence between ſtone and earth: the colour is ſometimes whitiſh or grey; ſometimes yellowiſh, or of a deep yellow; ſometimes red; ſometimes brown or blackiſh. It is plentiful in ſeveral places of Europe, as Hungary, Tranſylvania, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Bohemia, Saxony, Goſlar, France, and England, particularly in Derbyſhire, Glocesterſhire, Nottinghamſhire, and Somerſetſhire; alſo in Wales. The calamine of England, however, is by the beſt judges allowed to be ſuperior in quality to that of moſt other countries. It ſeldom lies very deep, being chiefly found in clayey grounds near the ſurface. In ſome places it is mixed with lead ores. It is the only true ore of zinc, and is uſed as an ingredient in making braſs. Newmann relates various experiments with this mineral, the only reſult of which was to ſhow, that it contained iron as well as zinc. The moſt remarkable are the following. A ſaturated ſolution of calamine in the marine acid, concentrated by evaporating part of the liquor, exhibits in the cold an appearance of fine cryſtals, which on the application of warmth diſſolve and diſappear. A little of this concentrated ſolution tinges a large quantity of water of a bright yellow colour; and at the ſame time depoſites by degrees a fine, ſpongy, browniſh precipitate. Glue diſſolved in this ſolution, and afterwards inſpiſſated, forms an extremely ſlippery tenacious maſs, which does not become dry, and, were it not too expenſive, might be of uſe for entangling flies, catterpillars, &c. Sulphur boiled in the ſolution ſeems to acquire ſome degree of tranſparency. This mineral is an article in the materia medicia; but, before it comes to the ſhops, is uſually calcined, in order to ſeparate any arſenical or ſulphureous matter which in its crude ſtate it is ſuppoſed to contain, and to render it more eaſily reducible into a fine powder. In this ſtate it is employed in collyria againſt defluxions of thin acrid humours upon the eyes, for drying up the moiſt running ulcers, and healing excoriations. It is the baſis of an officinal epulotic CERATE. Though the lapis calaminaris is the only native ore of zinc, there is another ſubſtance from which that ſemi-metal is alſo obtained; called CADMIA FORNACUM. See CADMIA, N. I. § i. 2—5.

(3.) CALAMINE, or CALAMO, in geography, an iſland in the Archipelago, near the coaſt of Aſia.

(1.) * CALAMINT. *n. ſ.* [*calamintha*, Lat.] The name of a plant.

(2.) CALAMINT. See MELISSA.

(3.) CALAMINT, WATER. See MENTHA.

CALAMIST. *n. ſ.* One who plays on a reed.

CALAMISTRUM. See PILULARICA.

(1.) CALAMITA, or CALAMITIS, is uſed to denote the magnet or loadſtone.

(2.) CALAMITA ALBA, in natural hiſtory, the name of an earth dug in Spain and Italy, of a hard texture, a white colour, and ſtyptic taſte. They pretend that this attracts fleſh as the magnet does iron, and thence call it MAGNES CARNEUS.

(1.) CALAMITIS, in natural hiſtory, the name

given

ven by ſome to the oſteocolla, which, when in ſmall pieces, ſometimes pretty exactly reſembles e barrel of a quill; others have called ſome of e foſſile coralloides by this name, there being equently in them the reſemblance of ſeveral ills cemented together, in ſtone.

(2.) CALAMITIS. See CADMIA, No. I. § i, 2.

* CALAMITOUS. *adj.* [*calamitoſus*, Lat.] 1. iſerable; involved in diſtreſs; oppreſſed with ſelicity; unhappy; wretched: applied to men. This is a gracious proviſion God Almighty hath ade in favour of the neceſſitous and *calamitous*; : ſtate of ſome, in this life, being ſo extremely retched and deplorable, if compared with others. *Hamy.* 2. Full of miſery; diſtreſsful: applied to ternal circumſtances.—What *calamitous* effects air of this city wrought upon us the laſt year, u may read in my diſcourſe of the plague. *Harvey on Conſumption.*—

Strict neceſſity
Subdues me, and *calamitous* conſtraint!
Left on my head both ſin and puniſhment,
However inſupportable, be all
Devolv'd. *Milton.*

Much rather I ſhall chuſe
To live the pooreſt in my tribe, than richeſt,
And be in that *calamitous* priſon left. *Milton.*
In this ſad and *calamitous* condition, deliverance om an oppreſſour would have even revived them. *Hib.*

* CALAMITOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *calamitous*.] Miſery; diſtreſs.

CALAMITUS, in old records, a gag for a dog.

* CALAMITY. *n. ſ.* [*calamitas*, Lat.] 1. Miſfortune; cauſe of miſery; diſtreſs.—Another ill cident is drought, and the ſpindling of the corn, hich with us is rare, but in hotter countries ommon; inſomuch as the word *calamity* was ſt derived from *calamus*, when the corn would t get out of the ſtalk. *Bacon.* 2. Miſery; diſtreſs.—

This infinite *calamity* ſhall cauſe
To human life, and houſhold peace confound.
Milton.

From adverſe ſhores in ſafety let her hear
Foreign *calamity*, and diſtant war;
Of which, great heav'n, let her no portion bear.
Prior.

CALAMO. See CALAMINE, No. 3.

(1.) * CALAMUS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A ſort of reed ſweet-ſcented wood, mentioned in ſcripture ith the other ingredients of the ſacred perfumes. is a knotty root, reddiſh without, and white ithin, which puts forth long and narrow leaves, d brought from the Indies. The prophets ſpeak it as a foreign commodity of great value. Theſe eet reeds have no ſmell when they are green, t when they are dry only. Their form differs t from other reeds, and their ſmell is perceived on entering the marſhes. *Calmet.*—Take thou ſo unto thee principal ſpices of pure myrrh, of eet cinnamon, and of ſweet *calamus*. *Exodus*, x. 23.

(2.) CALAMUS, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria claſs plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 5th order, Tripetaloideæ. The calyx is ſpathaceous, there is no corolla, the fruit is a dry monoſpermous berry, imbricated backwards. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

CALAMUS ROTANG. The ſtem is without branches, has a crown at top, and is every where beſet with ſtraight ſpines. This is the true Indian cane, which is not viſible on the outſide; but the bark being taken off diſcovers the ſmooth ſtick, which has no marks of ſpine on the bark, and is exactly like thoſe which the Dutch ſell to us; keeping this matter very ſecret, leſt travellers going by ſhould take as many canes out of the woods as they pleaſe. Sumatra is ſaid to be the place where moſt of theſe ſticks grow. Such are to be choſen as are of proper growth between two joints, ſuitable to the faſhionable length of canes as they are then worn; but ſuch are ſcarce. The calamus rotang is one of ſeveral plants from which the drug called DRAGON'S BLOOD is obtained.

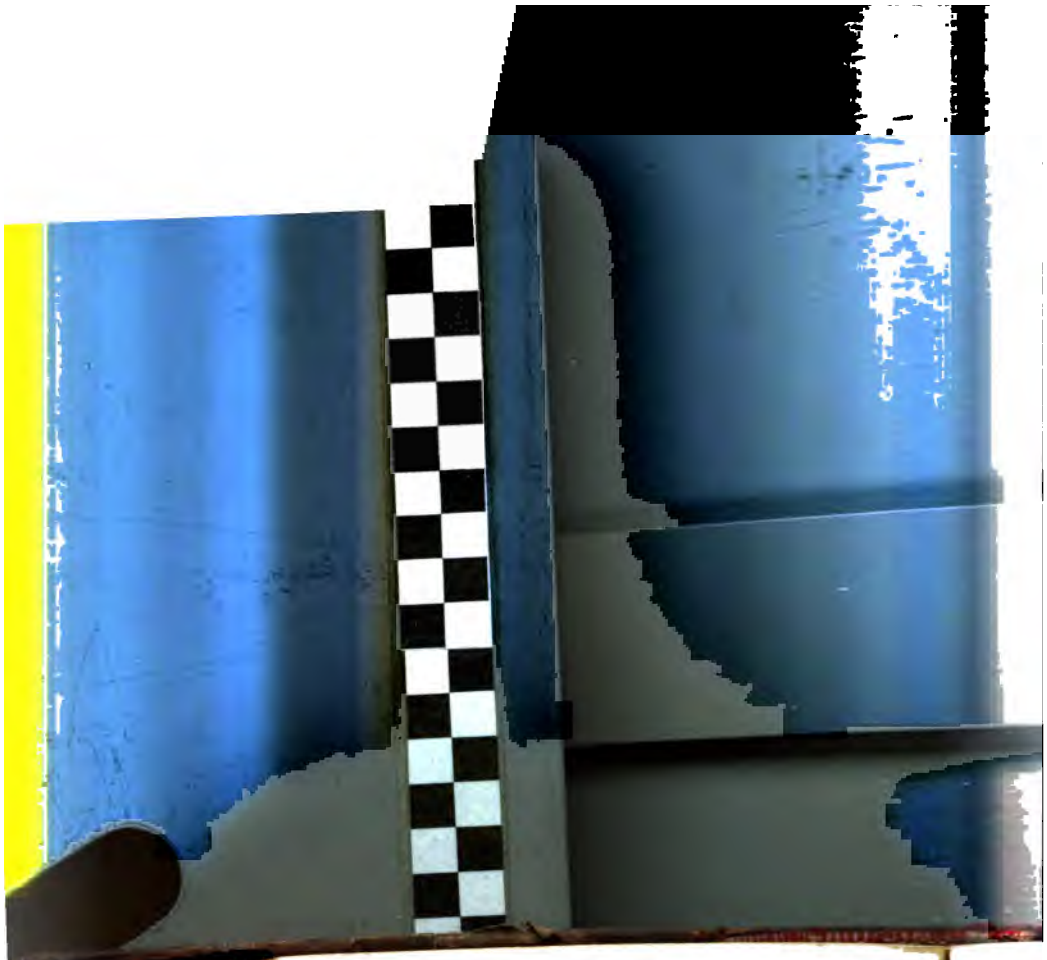
(3.) CALAMUS, in the ancient poets, denotes a ſimple kind of pipe, the muſical inſtrument of the ſhepherds, uſually made either of an oaten ſtalk or a reed.

(4.) CALAMUS, AROMATICUS, or SWEET-SCENTED FLAG, in the materia medica, a ſpecies of flag called *acorus* by Linnæus. See No. 1. and ACORUS.

(5.) CALAMUS SCRIPTORIUS, in antiquity, a reed orruſh to write with. The ancients made uſe of ſtyles to write on tables covered with wax; and of reed, or ruſh, to write on parchment, or Egyptian paper.

(1.) CALAMY, Edmund, an eminent preſbyterian divine, born at London in 1600, and educated at Cambridge, where his attachment to the Arminian party excluded him from a fellowſhip. Dr Felton biſhop of Ely, however, made him his chaplain; and, in 1639, he was choſen miniſter of St Mary Aldermary, in London. Upon the opening of the long parliament, he diſtinguiſhed himſelf in defence of the Preſbyterian cauſe; and had a principal hand in writing the famous *Smectymnus*, which he ſays, gave the firſt deadly blow to epiſcopacy. The authors of this tract were 5, the initials of thoſe names formed the name under which it was publiſhed, viz. Stephen Marſhal, Edmund Calamy, Thomas Young, Matthew Newcomen, and William Sparſtow. He was afterwards an active member in the aſſembly of divines, was a ſtrenuous oppoſer of ſectaries, and uſed his utmoſt endeavours to prevent thoſe violences committed after the king was brought from the iſle of Wight. In Cromwell's time, he lived privately, but was aſſiduous in promoting the king's return; for which he was afterwards offered a biſhopric, but refuſed it. He was ejected for nonconformity in 1662; and died of grief at the ſight of the great fire of London, in 1666.

(2, 3.) CALAMY, Edmund, grandſon of the preceding, by his eldeſt ſon Mr Edmund Calamy, who was ejected out of the living of Moxton in Eſſex on St Bartholomew's day 1662. He was born in London, April 5th 1671. After having learned the languages, and gone through a courſe of natural philoſophy and logic, at a private academy in England, he ſtudied philoſophy and civil law, at the univerſity of Utrecht, and attended the lectures of the learned Grævius. While he reſided there, an offer of a profeſſor's chair in the univerſity



university of Edinburgh was made him by principal Carstairs, sent over on purpose to find a person properly qualified for the office. This he declined, and returned to England in 1691, bringing with him letters from Grævius to professors Pocock and Bernard, who obtained leave for him to prosecute his studies in the Bodleian library. He entered into an examination, of the controversy between the conformists and the nonconformists; which determined him to join the latter; and coming to London in 1692, he was unanimously chosen assistant to Mr Matthew Sylvester, at Blackfriars; and in 1674, ordained at Mr Annesly's meeting house. In 1702, he was chosen one of the lecturers in Salter's-hall; and in 1703, succeeded Mr Vincent Alsop in Westminster. He drew up the table of contents to Mr Baxter's history of his life and times, which was sent to the press in 1696; made some remarks on the work itself, and added to it an index; and, reflecting on the usefulness of the book, he saw the expediency of continuing it, as it came no lower than 1684. Accordingly he composed an abridgement of it, with an account of many other ministers who were ejected after the restoration; their apology, containing the grounds of their nonconformity; and a continuation of their history till 1691. This work was published in 1702. He afterwards published a moderate defence of nonconformity, in tracts, in answer to Dr Hoadley. In 1709, he made a tour to Scotland; and had the degree of D. D. conferred on him by the universities of Edinburgh, Aberdeen, and Glasgow. In 1713, he published a second edition of his Abridgement of Baxter's history, in which, among other additions, there is a continuation of the history through king William's reign, and queen Anne's down to the passing of the occasional bill; and in the close is subjoined the reformed liturgy, which was drawn up and presented to the bishops in 1661, "that the world may judge, (he says) how fairly the ejected ministers have been often represented as irreconcileable enemies to all liturgies." In 1718, he wrote a vindication of his grandfather and others, against certain reflections cast upon them by Mr Echard in his History of England; and in 1728, appeared the Continuation of the account of the ministers, lecturers, masters, and fellows of colleges, and schoolmasters, who were ejected, after the restoration. He died June 3d 1732, greatly regretted both by the dissenters, and members of the established church, with many of whom he lived in great intimacy. Besides the pieces already mentioned, he published many sermons. He was twice married, and had 13 children.

(4) CALAMY. See CALAMINE, § 2.

CALANDRE, a name given by the French writers to an insect that does vast mischief in granaries. It is properly of the scarab or beetle class; it has two antennæ formed of many round joints, and covered with a soft and short down; from the anterior part of the head there is thrust out a trunk, which is so formed at the end, that the creature easily makes way with it through the coat or skin that covers the grain, and gets at the farina on which it feeds; the inside of the also the place where the female deposites her eggs, that the young progeny may be born with provision about them. When the female has pierced a grain of corn for this purpose, she deposites in it one egg, or at the utmost two, but she most frequently lays them single; these eggs hatch into small worms, which are usually found with their bodies rolled up in a spiral form, and after eating till they arrive at their full growth, they are changed into chrysales, and from these in about a fortnight comes out the perfect calandre. The female lays a considerable number of eggs; and the increase of these creatures would be very great; but while in the egg state, and even while in that of the worm, they are subject to be eaten by mites; these little vermin are always very plentiful in granaries, and they destroy the far greater number of these larger animals.

CALANGAY. See ABACAY.

CALANGIUM, in old records, a challenge.

CALAO. See BUCEROS, N. 1.

CALARY, a town of Ireland, in Wicklow.

CALAS, John, a most unfortunate Protestant merchant at Thoulouse, inhumanly butchered under form of law, cruelly prostituted to gratify the sanguinary impulse of ignorant Popish zeal. He had lived 40 years at Thoulouse. His wife was an English woman of French extraction: they had 5 sons; one of whom, Lewis, had turned Catholic, through the persuasions of a Catholic maid who had lived 30 years in the family. In October 1761, the family consisted of Calas, his wife, Mark Anthony their son, Peter their 2d son, and this maid. Anthony was educated for the bar; but being of a melancholy turn, was continually dwelling on passages from authors on the subject of suicide; and one night in that month hanged himself on a bar laid across two folding doors in their shop. The crowd collected by the confusion of the family on so shocking a discovery, took it into their heads, that he had been strangled by the family to prevent his changing his religion, and that this was a common practice among protestants. The officers of justice adopted the popular tale, and were supplied by the mob with what they accepted as evidences of the fact. The fraternity of white penitents got the body, buried it with great ceremony, and performed a solemn service for him as a martyr; the Franciscans did the same; and after these formalities no one doubted the guilt of the devoted heretical family. They were all condemned to the torture, to bring them to confession: they appealed to the parliament; who, as weak and as wicked as the subordinate magistrates, sentenced the father to the torture ordinary and extraordinary, to be broken alive upon the wheel, and then to be burned to ashes. A diabolical decree! which, to the disgrace of humanity, was actually carried into execution. Peter Calas, the other son was banished for life; and the rest were acquitted. The distracted widow found some friends, and among the rest M. Voltaire, who laid her case before the council of state at Versailles, and the parliament of Thoulouse were ordered to transmit the proceedings. Then the king and council unanimously agreed to annul the capitoul, or chief magistrate of Thoulouse, was degraded and fined; old Calas was declared to have been innocent; and every imputation

guilt was removed from the family, who alſo received from the king and clergy conſiderable gratuities.

(1.)* CALASH. *n. ſ.* [*caleche*, Fr.] A ſmall carriage of pleaſure.—

Daniel, a ſprightly ſwain, that us'd to flaſh
The vig'rous ſteeds, that drew his lord's *calaſh*.
King.

—The ancients uſed *calaſhes*, the figures of ſeveral of them being to be ſeen on ancient monuments. They are very ſimple, light, and drove by the traveller himſelf. *Arbuthnot on Coins.*

(2.) CALASH, or CALESH, is made with very low wheels, and is for the moſt part richly decorated, and open on all ſides for the conveniency of the air and proſpect, or at moſt incloſed with light mantlets of wax-cloth to be opened and ſhut at pleaſure. In the Philoſophical Tranſactions there is a deſcription of a new ſort of calaſh going on two wheels, not hung on traces, yet eaſier than the common coaches, over which it has this further advantage, that whereas a common coach will overturn if one wheel go on a ſurface a foot and an half higher than the other, this will admit of a difference of 3¼ feet without danger of overturning. It alſo turns over and over; that is, after the ſpokes being ſo turned, that they are parallel to the horizon, and one wheel flat over the head of him that rides in it, and the other flat under him, it will turn once more, by which the wheels are placed *in ſtatu quo*, without any diſorder to the horſe or rider.

CALASIO, Marius, a Franciſcan, and profeſſor of Hebrew at Rome. He publiſhed there, in 1621, a concordance of the Bible, which conſiſted of 4 great volumes in folio. This work has been highly approved and commended both by Proteſtants and Papiſts, and is indeed a moſt admirable work. For beſides the Hebrew words in the Bible, which are in the body of the book, with the Latin verſion over againſt them; there are, in the margin, the differences between the ſeptuagint verſion and the vulgate; ſo that at one view may be ſeen wherein the 3 Bibles agree, and wherein they differ. Moreover, at the beginning of every article there is a kind of dictionary, which gives the ſignification of each Hebrew word; affords an opportunity of comparing it with other oriental languages, viz. with the Syriac, Arabic, and Chaldee; and is extremely uſeful for determining more exactly the true meaning of the Hebrew words.

CALASIRIS, or CALASSIS, } in antiquity, a linen tunic fringed at the bottom, and worn by the Egyptians under a white woollen garment: which laſt they pulled off when they entered the temples, being only allowed to appear there in linen.

CALATA-FIMI, a town of Sicily in the valley of Mazara.

CALATA-GIRONA, a town of Sicily ſeated on a craggy mountain, in the valley of Noto, near the river Drillo.

CALATAJUD, or CALATAJUND, } a large and handſome town of Spain, in the kingdom of Arragon; ſituated at the confluence of the rivers Xalon and Xiloca, at the end of a very fertile valley, with a good caſtle on a rock. Long. 2. 9. W. Lat. 41. 22. N.

CALATA-NICETTA, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Noto, ſeated on a mountain, near the river Salſo.

CALATA-XIBETO, a town of Sicily, in Noto, ſeated among the mountains, near the ſource of the river Ditana.

(1.) CALATHUS, in antiquity, a kind of hand baſket made of light wood or ruſhes; uſed by the women ſometimes to gather flowers, but chiefly, after the example of Minerva, to put their work in. The figure of the calathus, as repreſented on ancient monuments, is narrow at the bottom, and widening upwards like that of a top. Pliny compares it to that of a lily. The Calathus or work baſket of Minerva is no leſs celebrated among the poets than her diſtaff.

(2.) CALATHUS was alſo the name of a cup for wine uſed in ſacrifices.

CALATIA. See CAJAZZO.

CALATOR, [from καλεω, to call,] in antiquity, a cryer, appointed to publiſh any thing aloud, or call the people together. Such miniſters the pontifices had, whom they uſed to ſend before them, when they went to ſacrifice on holidays, to adverti ſe the people to leave off work. The magiſtrates alſo uſed *calatores*, to call the people to the comitia, *curiata centuriata*. The officers in the army alſo had *calatores*; as had alſo many private families, to invite their gueſts to entertainments.

(1.) CALATRAVA, a city of Spain in New Caſtile, ſituated on the river Guadiana, 45 miles S. of Toledo. Lon. 4. 20. W. Lat. 39. 6. N.

(2.) CALATRAVA, KNIGHTS OF, a military order in Spain, inſtituted under Sancho III. king of Caſtile, upon the following occaſion. When that prince took the ſtrong fort of Calatrava from the moors of Andaluſia, he gave it to the templars, who, wanting courage to defend it, returned it him again. Then Don Reymond, of the order of Ciſtercians, accompanied with ſeveral perſons of quality, made an offer to defend the place, which the king thereupon delivered up to them, and inſtituted that order. It increaſed ſo much under the reign of Alphonſus, that the knights deſired to have a grand maſter, which was granted. Ferdinand and Iſabella afterwards, with the conſent of pope Innocent VIII. re-united the grand-maſterſhip of Calatrava to the Spaniſh crown; ſo that the kings of Spain are now become perpetual adminiſtrators thereof. The knights of Calatrava bear a croſs gules, flowerdeliſed with green, &c. Their rule and habit was originally that of the Ciſtercians.

CALATUM, the ancient name of TADCASTER.

CALAUREA, an epithet of Diana.

CALAURIA, in ancient geography, an iſland of Greece in the Saronic bay, over againſt the port of Troezen, at the diſtance of 40 ſtadia. Hither Demoſthenes went twice into baniſhment; and here he died. Neptune was ſaid to have accepted this iſland from Apollo in exchange for Delos. The city ſtood on a high ridge nearly in the middle of the iſland, commanding an extenſive view of the gulph and its coaſts. There was

his holy temple. The prieſteſs was a virgin, who was diſmiſſed when marriageable. Seven of the cities near the iſland held a congreſs at it, and ſacrificed jointly to the deity. Athens, Ægina, and Epidaurus were of this number, with Nauplia, for which place Argos contributed. The Macedonians, when they had reduced Greece, were afraid to violate the ſanctuary, by forcing from it the fugitives, his ſuppliants. Antipater commanded his general to bring away the orators, who had offended him, alive; but Demoſthenes could not be prevailed on to ſurrender. His monument remained in the 2d century, within the incloſure of the temple. The city of Calauria has been long abandoned. Traces of buildings, and of ancient walls, appear nearly level with the ground; and ſome ſtones, in their places, each with a ſeat and back, forming a little circle, once perhaps a bath. The temple, which was of the Doric order, and not large, as may be inferred from the fragments, is reduced to an inconſiderable heap of ruins. The iſland is now called PORO.

CALAURITIS, in the ancient materia medica, a ſort of litharge, brought from Calauria.

CALBARI, or CALBARY, } the name of, 1. a river; 2. a territory; and 3. a village of Africa, in the kingdom of Benin.

CALBEN, a town of Germany, in the old march of Brandenburg, between Domitz and Magdeburg, 32 m. from each. It has a good caſtle.

CALBENDRA, a town in Cornwall, near Tregony.

CALCADA, or SANTO DOMINGO DE LA CALCADA, a town of Spain in old Caſtile, ſeated at the foot of a mountain, near Laglera, in a fruitful valley, 48 m. E. of Burgos. Lon. 3. 12. W. Lat. 42. 36. N.

CALCADIS, in the materia medica, a name given by the Arabians to white vitriol.

CALCAGIUM, in middle age writers, a tax paid towards making or repairing a common cauſeway.

CALCANEUM, } or CALCAR, the OS CAL-
CALCANEUS, } CIS, or heel bone. See ANATOMY, § 160.

CALCANTHUM, red vitriol. See VITRIOL.

(1.) CALCAR, a very ſtrong town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and duchy of Cleves. It belongs to the king of Pruſſia, and is ſeated near the Rhine. Lon. 5. 42. E. Lat. 51. 45. N.

(2.) CALCAR, in anatomy. See CALCANEUM.

(3.) CALCAR, in glaſs-making, a ſmall oven, or reverberatory furnace, in which the firſt calcination of ſand and ſalt of potaſhes is made for the turning them into what is called FRIT. This furnace is made in the faſhion of an oven 10 feet long, 7 broad in the wideſt part, and 2 deep. On one ſide of it is a trench ſix inches ſquare, the upper part of which is level with the calcar, and ſeparated only from it at the mouth by bricks 9 inches wide. Into this trench they put ſea coal. the flame of which is carried into every part of the furnace, and is reverberated from the roof upon the frit, over the ſurface of which the ſmoke is very black, and goes out at the mouth of the calcar; the coals burn on iron grates, and the aſhes fall through.

(4.) CALCAR, John DE, a celebrated painter, was the diſciple of Titian, and perfected himſelf by ſtudying Raphael. Among other pieces he drew a nativity, repreſenting the angels around the infant Jeſus; and ſo ordered the diſpoſition of his picture, that the light all proceeds from the child. He died at Naples, in 1546, in the flower of his age. He deſigned the anatomical figures of Veſal, and the portraits of the painters of Veſal.

CALCAREOUS, *adj.* partaking of the nature and qualities of CALX or lime.

CALCAREUS LAPIS, lime-ſtone. See CALX.

CALCEA, in old records, a road made with ſtones.

CALCEARIUM, in antiquity, a largeſs beſtowed on Roman ſoldiers for buying ſhoes. In monaſteries, *calcearium* denoted the daily ſervice of cleaning the ſhoes of the religious.

CALCEATA, in old records, a cauſeway.

* CALCEATED, *adj.* [*calceatus*, Lat.] Shod; fitted with ſhoes.

CALCEDEN, a town in Warwickſhire, near Coventry.

CALCEDON. See CHALCEDON.

CALCEDONIANS, a denomination given by Coptic writers to the MELCHITES, on account of their adherence to the council of Calcedon. See COPHTI, MONOPHYSITES, &c.

(1.) * CALCEDONIUS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A kind of precious ſtone.—*Calcedonius* is of the agate kind, and of a miſty grey, clouded with blue, or with purple. *Woodward on Foſſils.*

(2.) CALCEDONIUS LAPIS. See CHALCEDONY.

(3.) CALCEDONIUS, or CALCEDON, is alſo a term uſed by the jewellers for a defect in ſome precious ſtones; when, in turning them, they find white ſpots, or ſtains, like thoſe of the calcedony. This defect is frequent in granates and rubies. The lapidaries uſually remedy it by hollowing the bottom of the ſtone.

CALCEDONY. See CHALCEDONY.

CALCENA, a term uſed by ſome medical writers for a morbid tartareous humour in the body.

CALCEOLUS, in botany, the name given by Tournefort to the lady's ſlipper. See CYPRIPEDIUM.

CALCEOLARIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the diandria claſs of plants. The corolla is ringent and inflated; the capſule has two cells, and two valves; the calyx is four-parted and equal.

CALCETUM, in old records, a cauſeway.

CALCHACCA, a name given by ſome botaniſts to the CASSIA LIGNEA. See LAURUS.

CALCHAS, in fabulous hiſtory, a famous diviner, who followed the Greek army to Troy. He foretold that the ſiege would laſt ten years; and that the fleet, which was detained in the port of Aulis by contrary winds, would not ſail till Agamemnon's daughter had been ſacrificed to Diana. After the taking of Troy, he retired to Colophon; where, it is ſaid, he died of grief, becauſe he could not divine what another of his profeſſion, called MOPSUS, had diſcovered.

CALCHOCRUM, in botany, a name by which ſome authors call the FUMARIA or FUMITORY.

CAL

CALCHOPHONOS LAPIS, among the ancients, a name given to a ſtone of a black colour, and conſiderable hardneſs, which, when cut into thin plates, and ſtruck againſt by any other hard body, gave a ſound like that of braſs: it ſeems to have been one of the hard black marbles.

CALCIFRAGA, in botany, a name given by authors to ſamphire, and ſea fennel. See CRITHMUM.

CALCIFRAGUS, *i. e. ſtone-breaking*, an appellation given by ſome to the SCOLOPENDRIUM; by others to pimpernel, on account of their lithontriptic quality. See ANAGALLIS.

* *To* CALCINATE. See *To* CALCINE. In gardening, by baking without melting, the heat doth theſe degrees; firſt, it indurateth, then maketh fragile, and, laſtly it doth *calcinate*. *Bacon's Natural Hiſtory*.

(1.) * CALCINATION. *n. ſ.* [from *calcine*; *calcination*, Fr.] Such a management of bodies by fire, as renders them reducible to powder; therefore it is called chymical pulverization. This is the next degree of the power of fire beyond that of fuſion; for when fuſion is longer continued, not only the more ſubtile particles of the body itſelf fly off, but the particles of fire likewiſe inſinuate themſelves in ſuch multitudes, and are ſo blended through its whole ſubſtance, that the fluidity, firſt cauſed by the fire, can no longer ſubſiſt. From this union ariſes a third kind of body, which, being very porous and brittle, is eaſily reduced to powder; for, the fire having penetrated every where into the pores of the body, the particles are both hindered from mutual contact, and divided into minute atoms. *Quincy*.—Divers reſidences of bodies are thrown away, as ſoon as the diſtillation or *calcination* of the body that yieldeth them is ended. *Boyle*.—This may be effected, but not without a *calcination*, or reducing it by art into a ſubtile powder. *Brown's Vulgar Errours*.

(2.) CALCINATION, See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

CALCINATO, a town of Italy, in Mantua, memorable for a victory gained over the Imperialiſts by the French in 1706. Lon. 9. 55. E. Lat. 45. 25. N.

* CALCINATORY. *n. ſ.* [from *calcinate*.] A veſſel uſed in calcination.

(1.) * *To* CALCINE. *v. a.* [*calciner*, Fr. from *calx*, Lat.] 1. To burn in the fire to a calx, or friable ſubſtance. See CALCINATION.—The ſolid bodies ſeem to be earth, bound together with ſome oil; for if a bone be *calcined*, ſo as the leaſt force will crumble it, being emerſed in oil, it will grow firm again. *Arbuthnot on Aliments*. 2. To burn up.—

Fiery diſputes that union have *calcin'd*,
Almoſt as many minds as men we find. *Denham*.

(2.) * *To* CALCINE. *v. n.* To become a calx by heat.—This chryſtal is a pellucid fiſſile ſtone, clear as water, and without colour, enduring a red heat without loſing its tranſparency, and, in a very ſtrong heat, *calcining* without fuſion. *Newton's Opticks*.

CALCIS os. See ANATOMY, § 160.

CALCITRAPA, and CALCITRAPOIDES, } in botany, ſynonimes of the CENTAUREA.

CALCOGRAPHIST, *n. ſ.* an engraver on braſs.

CALCOGRAPHY, *n. ſ.* [from χαλκος, braſs, and γραφω, to write,] the art of writing on braſs.

CALCUA. See ATREBATES, N. 2.

CALCULARII, in antiquity, a ſort of jugglers who practiſed ſlight of hand. Their art conſiſted in laying ſeveral calculi, or counters on the table, then covering them with cups, and ſhifting and changing them with dexterity, like what is practiſed by our jugglers.

CALCULARY, a congeries of little ſtrong knots diſperſed through the whole parenchyma of a pear. The calculary is moſt obſerved in rough-taſted or choak-pears. The knots lie more contiguous and compact together towards the pear, where they ſurround the ACETARY. About the ſtalks they ſtand more diſtant; but towards the cork, or ſtool of the flower, they ſtill grow cloſer, and there at laſt gather into the firmneſs of a plumb ſtone. The calculary is no eſſential part, but rather a diſeaſe of the fruit; the ſeveral knots whereof it conſiſts being only ſo many concretions or precipitations out of the ſap, as we ſee in urines, wines, and other liquors.

(1.) * *To* CALCULATE. *v. a.* [*calculer*, Fr. from *calculus*, Lat. a little ſtone or bead, uſed in operations of numbers.] 1. To compute; to reckon: as, he *calculates* his expences. 2. To compute the ſituation of the planets at any certain time.—

A cunning man did *calculate* my birth,
And told me that by water I ſhould die.
Shakeſ. Hen. VI.

Why all theſe fires, why all theſe gliding ghoſts,
Why old men fools, and children *calculate*,
Why all theſe things change from their ordinance? *Shakeſ.*

—Who were there then in the world, to obſerve the births of thoſe firſt men, and *calculate* their nativities, as they ſprawled out of ditches? *Bentley*. 3. To adjuſt; to project for any certain end.—The reaſonableneſs of religion clearly appears, as it tends ſo directly to the happineſs of men, and is, upon all accounts, *calculated* for our benefit. *Tillotſon*.

(2.) * *To* CALCULATE. *v. n.* To make a computation.

(1.) * CALCULATION. *n. ſ.* [from *calculate*.] 1. A practice, or manner of reckoning; the art of numbering.—Cypher, that great friend to *calculation*; or rather, which changeth *calculation* into eaſy computation. *Holder on Time*. 2. A reckoning; the reſult of arithmetical operation.—If then their *calculation* be true, for ſo they reckon. *Hooker*.—Being different from *calculations* of the ancients, their obſervations confirm not ours. *Brown's Vulgar Errours*.

(2.) CALCULATION, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) See ARITHMETIC.

(3.) CALCULATION is particularly uſed for the computations in aſtronomy and geometry, for making tables of logarithms, ephemerides, finding the time of eclipſes, &c. See ASTRONOMY, GEOMETRY, and LOGARITHMS.

(1.) * CALCULATOR. *n. ſ.* [from *calculate*.] A computer; a reckoner.

(2.) CALCULATOR is alſo a name given to Mr Ferguſon's Orrery. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*

CALCULATORES. See CALCULUS, § 2.

* CALCULATORY. *adj.* [from *calculate*.] Belonging to calculation.

* CALCULE. *n. s.* [*calculus*, Lat.] Reckoning; compute: obsolete.—The general *calcule*, which was made in the last perambulation, exceeding eight millions. *Howel's Vocal Forest.*

CALCULONES, computists. See CALCULUS, § 2.

* CALCULOSE. } *adj.* [from *calculus*, Lat.]
* CALCULOUS. } Stony; gritty.—The volatile salt of urine will coagulate spirits of wine; and thus, perhaps, the stones, or *calculose* concretions in the kidney or bladder, may be produced. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*—I have found, by opening the kidneys of a *calculous* person, that the stone is formed earlier than I have suggested *Sharp.*

(1.) * CALCULUS. *n. s.* [Lat.] The stone in the bladder.

(2.) CALCULUS, in antiquity, [*i. e.* a little stone or pebble,] was used in making computations, taking suffrages, playing at tables, and the like. In after times, pieces of ivory, and counters struck of silver, gold, &c. were used in lieu thereof, but still retaining the ancient names. Computists were by the lawyers called CALCULONES, when they were either slaves or newly freed men; those of a better condition were named CALCULATORES or NUMERARII: ordinarily there was one of these in each family of distinction. The Roman judges anciently gave their opinions by calculi, which were white for absolution, and black for condemnation. Hence CALCULUS ALBUS, in ancient writers, denotes a favourable vote, either in a person to be absolved and acquitted of a charge, or elected to some dignity or post; as CALCULUS NIGER did the contrary. This usage is said to have been borrowed from the Thracians, who marked their happy or prosperous days by *white*, and their unhappy by *black*, pebbles, put each night into an urn. Besides the diversity of colour, there were some calculi also which had characters engraven on them, as those which were in use in taking the suffrages in the senate and at assemblies of the people. These calculi were made of thin wood, polished and covered over with wax. Their form is still seen in some medals of the Cassian family; and the manner of casting them into the urns, in the medals of the Licinian family. The letters marked upon these calculi were A, V.R—C, or N.L. See A, § 3. Calculus is also used in ancient grammatic writers for a kind of weight equal to two grains of cicer. Some make it equivalent to the siliqua, which is equal to 3 grains of barley. Two calculi made the CERATIUM.

(3.) CALCULUS, in medicine, implies a stone either in the kidneys or bladder: calculus in the bladder (§ 1.) is called LITHIASIS; and in the kidneys, NEPHRITIS. See MEDICINE and SURGERY. Human calculi are commonly formed of different strata or incrustations; sometimes smooth and heavy like mineral stones; but oftener rough, spongy, light, and full of inequalities or protuberances: chemically analysed, or distilled in an open fire, they nearly yield the same principles as [illegible]elf, or at least an empyreumatic volatile [illegible]atter, together with a great deal of air. They never have naturally, any foreign matter for a basis, but they may by accident; an instance of which is related by Dr Percival. A bougie had unfortunately slipped into the bladder, and upon it a stone of a considerable size was formed in less than a year. This stone had so much the appearance of chalk, that the Doctor was induced to try whether it could be converted into quicklime. His experiment succeeded, both with that and some other calculi; from which he conjectures, that hard waters which contain calcareous earth may contribute towards the formation of these calculi. Dr Beddoe, in his *Observations on the Nature and cure of Calculus*, &c. (p. 9, 10.) recommends the following formula as "extremely beneficial in calculous complaints;" and adds "that it may, without injury be taken in very large quantities, and continued for a great length of time.—Take natron or sal sodæ in crystals; pound it coarsely, and expose it to a warm dry air, till it entirely crumbles into a white powder: make this powder into pills with a quantity of soap, rather more than equal to the weight of the calcined alkali."

(4.) CALCULUS ALBUS. See § 2.

(5.) CALCULUS DIFFERENTIALIS is a method of differencing quantities, or of finding an infinitely small quantity, which being taken infinite times, shall be equal to a given quantity; or, it is the arithmetic of the infinitely small differences of variable quantities.—The foundation of the calculus is an infinitely small quantity, or an infinitesimal, which is a portion of a quantity incomparable to that quantity, or that is less than any assignable one, and therefore accounted as no thing; the error accruing by omitting it being less than any assignable one. Hence two quantities, only differing by an infinitesimal, are reputed equal. Thus, in astronomy, the diameter of the earth is an infinitesimal, in respect of the distance of the fixed stars; and the same holds in abstract quantities. The term, infinitesimal, therefore, is merely relative, and involves a relation to another quantity; and does not denote any real *ens*, or being. Now infinitesimals are called *differentials*, or *differential quantities*, when they are considered as the differences of two quantities. Sir Isaac Newton calls them *moments*: considering them as the momentary increments of quantities, *e. g.* of a line generated by the flux of a point, or of a surface by the flux of a line. The differential calculus, therefore, and the doctrine of fluxions, are the same thing under different names; the former given by M. Leibnitz, and the latter by Sir Isaac Newton: each of whom lay claim to the discovery. There is, indeed, a difference in the manner of expressing the quantities resulting from the different views wherein the two authors consider the infinitesimals; the one as moments, the other as differences: Leibnitz, and most foreigners, express the differentials of quantities by the same letters as variable ones, only prefixing the letter *d*: thus the differential of *x* is called *d x*; and that of *y*, *d y*: now *d x* is a positive quantity, if *x* continually increase; negative, if it decrease. The English, with Sir Isaac Newton, instead of *d x* write *ẋ* (with a dot over it;) for *d y*, *ẏ*, &c. which foreigners object against, on account of that confusion of points which they imagine

agine arises when differentials are again differ- ed; besides that the printers are more apt to erlook a point than a letter. The rules for differencing quantities are the very same as those r finding their fluxions. See FLUXIONS.

(6.) CALCULUS EXPONENTIALIS is a method differencing exponential quantities, or of find- and summing up the differentials or moments exponential quantities; or at least bringing em to geometrical constructions.—By exponen- l quantity, is here understood a power, whose ponent is variable; e. g. x^x a^x. x^y. where the ponent x does not denote the same in all the ints of a curve, but in some stands for 2, in o- ers for 3, in others for 5, &c.—To difference exponential quantity; is the same problem as find its fluxion. See FLUXIONS.

(7.) CALCULUS INTEGRALIS, or SUMMATO- US, is a method of integrating, or summing up oments, or differential quantities; i. e. from a fferential quantity given, to find the quantity om whose differencing the differential results.— he integral calculus, therefore, is the inverse of e differential one: and is similar to the *inverse ethod of fluxions*, the rules of which also apply the *calculus integralis*. See FLUXIONS.

(8.) CALCULUS LITERALIS, or LITERAL CAL- ULUS, is the same with specious arithmetic, or LGEBRA, so called from its using the letters of e alphabet; in contradistinction to numeral a- thmetic, which uses figures. See ALGEBRA.

(9.) CALCULUS MINERVÆ, among the ancient wyers, denoted the decision of a cause, wherein e judges were equally divided. The expression taken from the history of Orestes, represented y Æschylus and Euripides; at whose trial, be- re the Areopagites, for the murder of his mo- er, the votes being equally divided for and a- inst him, Minerva interposed, and gave the cast- g calculus or vote in his behalf. M. Cramer, rofessor at Marpurg, has a discourse *De Calculo inervæ*; wherein he maintains, that all the effect n entire equality of voices can have, is to leave e cause *in statu quo*.

(10.) CALCULUS NIGER. See § 2.

(11.) CALCULUS SUMMATORIUS. See § 7.

(12.) CALCULUS TIBURTINUS, a sort of figur- d stone, found in great plenty about the cata- cts of the Anio, and other rivers in Italy; of a hite colour, and in shape oblong, round, or e- higated. They are a species of the *striæ lapideæ*, nd so like sugar plums, that it is a common jest t Rome to deceive the unexperienced by serving hem up at deserts.

(1.) CALCUTTA, the capital of Bengal, and he seat of the governor general of the British do- minions in the East Indies; is situated on the river Hoogly, the W. arm of the Ganges, about 100 m. rom the sea. It is a modern city, built on the te of a village called GOVINDPOUR. The Eng- ish first obtained the Mogul's permission to settle n this place in 1690; and Mr Job Channock, the ompany's agent, chose the spot on which the city tands, on account of a large shady grove; though n other respects it was the worst he could have itched upon; for 3 miles to the N. coast, there s a salt-water lake, which overflows in September, nd when the flood retires in December, leaves behind such a quantity of fish and other putrescent matter, as renders the air very unhealthy. The custom the Gentoos have, of throwing the dead bodies of their poor people into the river, is also very disgustful, and undoubtedly adds to the unhealthiness of the place. Calcutta is now become a large and populous city, being supposed to contain at least 500,000 inhabitants. The part inhabited by the English is elegantly built, but the greatest part is built after the general fashion of the cities of India: their streets are exceedingly confined, narrow, and crooked, with a vast number of ponds, reservoirs, and gardens interspersed. A few of them are paved with brick. The houses are built, some with brick, others with mud, and a still greater number with bamboos and mats; all which different kinds of fabrics, intermixed, form a very uncouth appearance. The brick houses are seldom above two stories high, but those of mud and bamboos are only one storey, and are covered with thatch. The roofs of the brick houses are flat and terraced. These, however, are much fewer in number than the other two kinds; so that fires, which often happen, do not sometimes meet with a brick house to obstruct their progress in a whole street. Within these 35 years Calcutta has been greatly improved both in appearance and in the salubrity of its air: the streets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled; thereby removing a vast surface of stagnant water, the exhalations of which were particularly hurtful. The citadel is named FORT WILLIAM, and is superior as a fortress to any in India; but is now on too extensive a scale to answer the purpose for which it was intended, viz. the holding a post in case of extremity. It was begun on this extended plan by Lord Clive immediately after the battle of Plassey. The expence attending it was supposed to amount to two millions Sterling. Calcutta is the emporium of Bengal. Its flourishing state is in a great measure owing to the unlimited toleration of all religions; the Pagans being suffered to carry their idols in procession, the Mahommedans not being discountenanced, and the Roman Catholics being allowed a church. The mixture of European and Asiatic manners, that may be observed in Calcutta, is curious: coaches, phætons, single-horse chaises, with the pallankeens and hackeries of the natives, the passing ceremonies of the Hindoos, and the different appearances of the fakirs, form a sight more novel and extraordinary, perhaps, than any city in the world can present. Calcutta lies 1030 miles N. E. by N. of Madras. Lon. 88. 28. E. Lat. 22. 23. N.

(2.) CALCUTTA, EXPIATORY PENANCE PERFORMED IN. About a mile from the town is a plain, where the natives annually undergo a very strange kind of penance on the 9th of April; some for the sins they have committed, others for those they *may* commit, and others in consequence of a vow made by their parents. This ceremony is performed in the following manner. Thirty bamboos, each about the height of 20 feet, are erected in the plain above mentioned. On the top of these they contrive to fix a swivel, and another bamboo of 30 feet or more crosses it, at both ends of which hangs a rope. The people pull down one end of this rope, and the devotee placing himself

himſelf under it, the Brahmin pinches up a large piece of ſkin under both the ſhoulder blades, ſometimes in the breaſts, and thruſts a ſtrong iron hook through each. Theſe hooks have lines of Indian graſs hanging to them, which the prieſt makes faſt to the rope at the end of the croſs bamboo, and at the ſame time puts a ſaſh round the body of the devotee, laying it looſely in the hollow of the hooks, leſt, by the ſkin giving way, he ſhould fall to the ground. The people then haul down the other end of the bamboo; by which the devotee is immediately lifted up 30 feet or more from the ground, and they run round as faſt as their legs can carry them. Thus the devotee is thrown out the whole length of the rope, where, as he ſwings, he plays a thouſand antic tricks; being painted and dreſſed in a very particular manner, on purpoſe to make him look more ridiculous. Some of them continue ſwinging half an hour, others leſs. The devotees undergo a preparation of four days for this ceremony. On the firſt and third they abſtain from all kinds of food; but eat fruit on the other two. During this time of preparation they walk about the ſtreets in their fantaſtical dreſſes, dancing to the ſound of drums and horns; and ſome, to expreſs the greater ardour of devotion, run a wire of iron quite through their tongues, and ſometimes through their cheeks.

(3.) CALCUTTA, HISTORY OF THE CAPTURE OF. Before the war of 1755, Calcutta was commonly garriſoned by 300 Europeans, who were frequently employed in conveying the company's veſſels from Patna, loaded with ſalt-petre, piece goods, opium, and raw ſilk. The trade of Bengal alone ſupplied rich cargoes for 50 or 60 ſhips annually, beſides what was carried on in ſmall veſſels to the adjacent countries. This flouriſhing ſtate of Calcutta probably was one motive for the Nabob Surajah Dowlah to attack it in 1756; when he marched againſt it with all his forces, amounting to 70,000 horſe and foot, with 400 elephants, and inveſted the place on the 15th of June. Previous to any hoſtilities, however, he wrote a letter to Mr Drake the governor, offering to withdraw his troops, on condition that he would pay him his duty on the trade for 15 years paſt, defray the expence of his army, and deliver up the black merchants who were in the fort. This being refuſed, he attacked one of the redoubts at the entrance of the town; but was repulſed with great ſlaughter. On the 16th he attacked another advanced poſt, but was likewiſe repulſed with great loſs. He renewed the attempt however on the 18th, when the troops abandoned theſe poſts, and retreated into the fort; on which the Nabob's troops entered the town, and plundered it for 24 hours. An order was then given for attacking the fort; for which purpoſe a ſmall breaſt-work was thrown up, and a twelve-pounders mounted upon it; but without firing oftener than two or three times an hour. The governor calling a council of war, was informed, that there was not ammunition in the fort to ſerve 3 days; in conſequence of which the principal ladies were ſent on board the ſhips lying before fort. They were followed by the governor, declared himſelf a quaker, and left the place to be defended by Mr John Zephaniah Holwell, the ſecond in council. Beſides the governor, 4 the council, 8 gentlemen in the company's ſervi 40 officers, and 100 ſoldiers, with 52 free mechants, captains of ſhips, &c. eſcaped on boa the ſhips, where were alſo 59 ladies, with 33 ch dren. The whole number left in the fort were about 250 effective men, with Mr Holwell, 4 captains, 5 lieutenants, 6 enſigns, and 5 ſerjeants; alſo 14 ſea captains, and 29 gentlemen of the factory. Mr Holwell then having held a council of war, divided 3 cheſts of treaſure among the diſcontented ſoldiers; making them large promiſes alſo, if they behaved with courage and fidelity; after which he boldly ſtood on the defence of the place, notwithſtanding the immenſe force which oppoſed him. The attack was very vigorous; the enemy having got poſſeſſion of the houſes, galled the Engliſh from thence, and drove them from the baſtions; but they themſelves were ſeveral times diſlodged by the fire from the fort, which killed upwards of 12,000 men, with the loſs of only 5 Engliſh ſoldiers the firſt day. The attack, however, was continued till the afternoon of the 20th; when many of the garriſon being killed and wounded, and their ammunition almoſt exhauſted, a flag of truce was hung out. Mr Holwell intended to have availed himſelf of this opportunity to make his eſcape on board the ſhips, but they had fallen ſeveral miles down from the fort without leaving a ſingle boat to facilitate the eſcape of thoſe who remained. In the mean time, the back gate was betrayed by the Dutch guard, and the enemy, entering the fort, killed all they firſt met, and took the reſt priſoners. The fort was taken before 4 in the evening; and, in an hour after, Mr Holwell had three audiences of the Nabob, the laſt being in the durbar or council. In all of theſe the governor had the moſt poſitive aſſurances that no harm ſhould happen to any of the priſoners; but the Nabob was ſurpriſed and enraged at finding only 5000 l. in the fort, inſtead of the immenſe treaſures he expected; and to this, as well as perhaps to the reſentment of the jemmidaars or officers, of whom many were killed in the ſiege, we may impute the ſhocking cataſtrophe that followed. See § 4.

(4.) CALCUTTA, HORRID CATASTROPHE AT THE BLACK HOLE OF. As ſoon as it was dark, the Engliſh priſoners, to the number of 146, were directed by the jemmidaars who guarded them to collect themſelves into one body, and ſit down quietly under the arched veranda, or piazza, to the weſtward of the Black Hole priſon. Another guard was placed at the ſouth end of this veranda, to prevent the eſcape of any of them. About 500 gunmen, with lighted matches, were drawn up on the parade; and ſoon after the factory was in flames to the right and left of the priſoners, who had various conjectures on this appearance. The fire advanced with rapidity on both ſides; and the Engliſh began to ſuſpect that they were to be ſuffocated between the two fires. On this they ſoon came to a reſolution of ruſhing on the guard, ſeizing their ſcymitars, and attacking the troops upon the parade, rather than be thus tamely roaſted to death: but Mr Holwell advanced, and found the Moors were only ſearching for

a pla-

face to confine them in. At that time Mr Hol- l might have made his eſcape, by the aſſiſtance Mr Leech, the company's ſmith, who had eſ- ed when the Moors entered the fort, and re- ed juſt as it was dark, to tell Mr Holwell he provided a boat, and would inſure his eſcape, e would follow him through a paſſage few e acquainted with, and by which he then en- d. This might eaſily have been accompliſhed, ie guard took little notice of it: but Mr Hol- told Mr Leech, he was reſolved to ſhare the of the gentlemen and the garriſon; to which Leech gallantly replied, that "then he was ved to ſhare Mr Holwell's fate, and would leave him." The guard on the parade ad- ed, and ordered them all to riſe and go into barracks. Then, with their muſkets preſent- they ordered them to go into the Black Hole m; while others, with clubs and ſcymitars, fed upon them ſo ſtrong, that they were obli- to give way and enter; the reſt following like rent. Few among them, the ſoldiers excep- had the leaſt idea of the dimenſions of the e; elſe they would at all events have ruſhed u- the guard, and been cut to pieces, as the leſſer It was about 8 o'clock when theſe 146 un- py perſons, exhauſted by continual action and gue, were thus crammed together in a cloſe ry night, into a dungeon about 18 feet ſquare, up to the E. and S. the only quarters from ch air could reach them, by dead walls, and wall and door to the N. open only to the by two windows, ſtrongly barred with iron, n which they could receive ſcarce any circula- of freſh air. They had been but few minutes fined before every one fell into a perſpiration rofuſe, that no idea can be formed of it. This ught on a raging thirſt, which increaſed in pro- tion as the body was drained of its moiſture. ious expedients were thought of to give more

Every man was ſtripped, and every hat put motion: they ſeveral times ſat down on their as; but each time ſeverals fell, and were in- ſtly ſuffocated or trod to death. Before 9, their ſt grew intolerable, and reſpiration difficult. arts were again made to force the door; but in vain. "Water, water," became the ge- al cry. Some water was brought; but theſe plies, like water ſprinkled on fire, only ſerved raiſe and feed the flames. The confuſion be- ne general and horrid, from the cries and ra- gs for water. This ſcene of miſery proved en- tainment to the brutal wretches without, who plied them with water, that they might have ſatisfaction of ſeeing them fight for it, as they raiſed it; and held up lights to the bars, that y might loſe no part of the inhuman diverſion. fore 11 o'clock, one third of the whole were ad. Thirſt grew intolerable: but Mr Holwell pt his mouth moiſt by ſucking the perpiration t of his ſhirt ſleeves, and catching the drops as y fell from his head and face. By half an hour er 11 moſt of the living were in an outrageous irium. They found that water heightened their eaſineſſes; "Air, air," was the general cry. ery inſult that could be deviſed againſt the ard, all the opprobrious names that the vice- and his officers could be loaded with, were re- peated, to provoke the guard to fire upon them. Every man had eager hopes of meeting the firſt ſhot. Then a general prayer to heaven, to haſten the approach of the flames to the right and left of them, and put a period to their miſery. Some expired on others; while a ſteam aroſe from the living as well as the dead, which was very offen- ſive. About two in the morning, they crowded ſo much to the windows, that many died ſtand- ing, being ſo preſſed all round, that they could not fall down. When the day broke, the ſtench ariſing from the dead bodies was intolerable. At that juncture, the Soubah, who had received an account of the havoc death had made among them, ſent one of his officers to enquire if the chief ſurvived. Mr Holwell was ſhown to him; and a little before 6 o'clock an order came for their releaſe. Thus they had remained in this in- fernal priſon from 8 at night until 6 in the morn- ing, when the poor remains of 146 ſouls, only 23, came out barely alive, and moſt of them in a high putrid fever. The dead bodies were dragged out of the hole by the ſoldiers, and thrown promiſcu- ouſly into the ditch of an unfiniſhed ravelin, which was afterwards filled with earth.

(5.) CALCUTTA, IMPROVED STATE OF. The injuries which Calcutta ſuffered at this time, (§ 4.) were ſoon repaired. It was retaken by Admiral Watſon and Colonel Clive, early in 1757. The victory of Plaſſey followed: the inhuman Surajah Dowlah was defeated, depoſed, and put to death; and Meer Jaffier, who ſucceeded him in the Na- bobſhip, engaged to pay an enormous ſum for the indemnification of the inhabitants. Since that time the immenſe acquiſition of territory by the Britiſh in this part of the world, with the conſtant ſecurity enjoyed by this city, have given an op- portunity of embelliſhing and improving it very much. One of the greateſt of theſe improvements was that of Sir William Jones; who, on the 15th Jan. 1784, inſtituted a ſociety for inquiring into the hiſtory civil and natural, the antiquities, arts, ſciences, and literature of Aſia; and thus the lite- rature of Europe, and along with it, it is to be hoped, the arts of humanity, beneficence, and peace, have at length obtained a footing in the rich empire of Indoſtan, ſo long a prey to the ra- pine and violence of tyrants and uſurpers.

CALDA, [contract. for *calida aqua*,] hot water, anciently much uſed among the Romans, as a drink, partly for pleaſure, and partly for health.

CALDARIA JUDICIARIA, in our ancient barbarous cuſtoms, the method of trial by boiling water. See ORDEAL.

(1.) CALDARIUM, in the ancient baths, de- noted, 1. A brazen veſſel or ciſtern, placed in the hypocauſtum, full of hot water, to be drawn thence into the *piſcina* or bath, to give it the ne- ceſſary degree of heat: 2. A ſtove, or ſudatory, being a cloſe vaulted room, wherein by hot dry fumes, without water, people were brought to a profuſe ſweat.

(2.) CALDARIUM ÆS, denotes POT METAL.

CALDBECK, a village E. of Cumberland.

CALDCOT, the name of 11 Engliſh villages: viz. 1. in Bucks, in Newport pariſh: 2. ſeven m. from Cambridge: 3. in Cheſhire, N. W. of Mal- pas: 4. in Hertfordſhire, near Aſhwell and Hinx- worth:

worth: 5. in Gloucestershire: 6. in Monmouthsh. 7. in Northumberland: 8. in Rutlandshire: 9. in Warwickshire, near Granborough: 10. in ditto, near Weddington; and, 11. in Yorksh. near Leeds.

(1.) CALDER, anciently called BORIVON, or *Brea Buven*, now *Calder*, (from *caille*, a wood, and *dor*, water, Gael.) a parish of Scotland in Invernesshire, 4 miles long and 2 broad: except a part of it, which runs up from the centre to the high country, about 8 miles, and thus makes it resemble the letter T. It is partly flat and partly hilly; and agreeably to its name abounds with wood and water. The climate is excellent: the soil is fertile, and produces almost all kinds of plants and vegetables, that grow by nature or cultivation in the N. of Scotland. The number of acres is estimated at 26,000, of which about 4500 are arable, 18,000 moor and moss, and the remainder under wood, broom, and pasture. The population in 1791, according to the rev. Mr Alexander Grant's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1062, and had increased 180 since 1755. There were 420 horses, 2100 black cattle, 6300 sheep, and 400 goats in the parish, in 1791. Services are totally abolished on the property of Mr Campbell of Calder, the chief heritor.

(2.) CALDER, a river in Lanarkshire, which separates the parishes of Blantyre and Kilbride. Its banks afford iron stone of an excellent quality.

(3.) CALDER, a rivulet in the above parish, (N° 1.) which runs through CALDER WOOD, (N° 19.) and sometimes overflows its banks.

(4.) CALDER, a village in the parish, (N° 1.) containing about 20 families.

(5.) CALDER, a village in Cumberland.

(6.) CALDER, or CADDER. See CADDER.

(7-9.) CALDER, the name of 3 rivers in Lancashire: of which the 1st runs into the Ribble at Whaley: the 2d into the Wear, near Garstang: and the 3d entering the S. W. side of Yorkshire, runs E. and joins the Aire.

(10.) CALDER COMITIS, the ancient name of that whole district, which then constituted but one parish, but is now divided into 35 viz. EAST, MID, and WEST CALDER. See N° 11, 14, 17, 17, 18.

(11, 12.) CALDER, EAST, 1. a parish of Scotland, in the county of Mid Lothian. It abounds in lime-stone. In one quarry belonging to the E. of Morton, the stratum is 60 feet thick. 2. A village in the parish.

(13.) CALDER HOUSE, the seat of Lord Torphichen, is situated a little W. of MID CALDER, (N° 15.) and is memorable in the ecclesiastical history of Scotland, as the place where the sacrament of the Lord's supper was first dispensed after the Reformation, by the celebrated reformer, John Knox. Lord Torphichen has a picture of Mr Knox in his hall, with an inscription on the back of it, mentioning this fact.

(14.) CALDER, MID, a parish of Scotland in Mid Lothian, 7 miles long from N. to S. and not above 3 broad from E. to W. The climate is very healthy, and the soil light. It makes good returns of oats, barley, turnips, and potatoes, and produces luxuriant crops of hay. The population in 1792, as stated by the rev. Mr Wilson in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1351 souls, and had increased 491 since 1755. The parish feeds 200 horses, 480 black cattle, and 2300 sheep, besides some swine. It abounds with free-stone, lime-stone, and iron-stone, and is supposed to contain coals. It has also a mineral spring.

(15.) CALDER, MID, a town in the above parish, (N° 14.) pleasantly situated, 10 miles W. from Edinburgh. It contained 761 inhabitants in 1792. It has 2 fairs, on the 2d Tues. of May and Oct. and a weekly market. It is well situated for manufactures, but has none at present except a paper mill.

(16.) CALDER WATER. See N° 2.

(17, 18.) CALDER, WEST: 1. a parish, and a village of Scotland, lying W. of MID CALDER, (N° 14, 15.) but of which it will be seen CALDER, we have no particulars deserving the Statistical Account.

(19.) CALDER WOOD, a most romantic wood in the parish of CALDER, (N° 1.) consisting of trees of all sorts, and the ruins of Mid Calder, (N° 15.) but of which as well as of Calder, we have no particulars deserving the Statistical Account.

(20.) CALDER WOOD, a plantation of very extensive in the parish of MID CALDER, (N° 15.) but formerly stretching to the length of 7 miles. It consists of oaks, birches, firs, and beeches.

CALDERIA, a town of Italy, near Valentia, born at Calderia. He read lectures upon poetry and literature at Rome with great reputation. He was the first who ventured to write upon the most difficult of the ancient poets. He died very young in 1477.

CALDERON, Don Pedro, De la Barca, a Spanish officer, who, after having signalized himself in the military profession, quitted it for the ecclesiastical, and then commenced dramatic writer. His dramatic works made 9 vols in 4to. The Spanish writers have compared him to Shakespeare. He flourished about 1640.

CALDERWOOD, David, a famous divine of the church of Scotland, and a distinguished writer in behalf of the Presbyterians, was descended of a good family in that kingdom. Being early destined for the ministry, he applied with great diligence to the study of the Scriptures in the original tongues, the works of the fathers, councils, and the best writers on church history. He was settled about 1604 at Crelling near Jedburgh. King James I. of Great Britain, being desirous of bringing the church of Scotland nearer to a conformity with that of England, laboured much to restore the episcopal authority, and extend the powers of the bishops then in Scotland. This design was very warmly opposed by many of the ministers, particularly by Mr Calderwood; and when James Law, bishop of Orkney, came to the presbyteries of Merse and Teviotdale, to exert his jurisdiction by a paper dated May 5, 1616. But the king, seeing the earl of Dunbar, then lord treasurer of Scotland, with Dr Abbot, archbishop of Canterbury, and two other divines, into that kingdom, with instructions to use every method to persuade both the clergy and laity of his sincere desire to promote the good of the church, and of his zeal for the Protestant religion. Mr Calderwood did not allow of the

'embly at Glaſgow, June 8th, 1610, in which 'd Dunbar prefided as commiſſioner; but con- 'ered every thing tranſacted in it as null and id. In May following, king James went to ıtland; and on the 17th June held a parliament Edinburgh: when the clergy met in one of the urches, to adviſe with the biſhops. This aſ- nbly was contrived in order to reſemble the gliſh convocation. Mr Calderwood was preſent it, but declared publicly that he did not take r ſuch meetings to reſemble a convocation; l being oppoſed by Dr Whitford and Dr Ha- lton, who favoured the biſhops, he took his ve of them in theſe words: "It is abſurd to men ſitting in ſilks and ſattins, and to cry po- ty in the kirk, when purity is departing." e parliament proceeded in the mean while in diſpatch of buſineſs; and Mr Calderwood, h ſeveral other miniſters, being informed that ill was depending to empower the king, with advice of the archbiſhops, biſhops, and ſuch a mber of the miniſtry as he ſhould think proper, conſider and conclude as to matters decent for external policy of the church, not repugnant the word of God; and that ſuch concluſions uld have the ſtrength and power of eccleſiaſti- laws. Againſt this they proteſted, for 4 rea- ıs: "1. Becauſe their church was ſo perfect, it, inſtead of needing reformation, it might be attern to others: 2. General aſſemblies, as now abliſhed by law, and which ought always to atinue, might by this means be overthrown: Becauſe it might be a means of creating ſchiſm, l diſturb the tranquillity of the church: 4. Be- ıſe they had received aſſurances, that no at- npts ſhould be made to bring them to a confor- ty with the church of England. They deſire refore, that all thoughts of paſſing ſuch a law ght be laid aſide: but in caſe this be not done, y proteſt for themſelves and their brethren who ll adhere to them, that they can yield no obe- ıce to this law when it ſhall be enacted, be- ıſe it is deſtructive of the liberty of the church; l therefore ſhall ſubmit to ſuch penalties, and dergo ſuch puniſhments, as may be inflicted on ım for diſobeying that law." This proteſt was ſented to the clerk regiſter, who refuſed to ıd it before the ſtates in parliament. However, ough not read, it had its effect; for although bill had the conſent of parliament, yet the king ıſed it to be laid aſide, and not long after call- a general aſſembly at St Andrews. Soon after parliament was diſſolved, and Mr Calderwood is ſummoned to appear before the high com- ſſion court at St Andrews, on the 8th of July lowing, to anſwer for his mutinous and ſeditı- behaviour. July 10th, the king came to that) in perſon; when Mr Calderwood, being call- upon, and refuſing to comply with what the g in perſon required of him, was committed to iſon. Afterwards the privy council ordered n to baniſh himſelf out of the king's dominions fore Michaelmas next; and not to return with- it licence. Having applied to the king for a orogation of his ſentence without ſucceſs, be- uſe he would neither acknowledge his offence, r promiſe conformity for the future, he retired Holland, where, in 1623, he publiſhed his ce- lebrated piece, entitled *Altare Damaſcenum*. Mr Calderwood having, in 1624, been afflicted with a long fit of ſickneſs, and nothing having been heard of him for ſome time, one Patrick Scot, as Calderwood himſelf informs us, took it for granted that he was dead; and thereupon wrote a recantation in his name, as if, before his deceaſe, he had changed his ſentiments. This impoſture being detected, Scot went over to Holland, and ſtaid 3 weeks at Amſterdam, where he made a diligent ſearch for the author of *Altare Damaſcenum*, with a deſign to have diſpatched him. But Calderwood had privately retired into his own country, where he lived ſeveral years. Scot gave out that the king had furniſhed him with the matter for the pretended recantation, and that he only put it in order. During his retirement, he collected all the memorials relating to the eccleſiaſtical affairs of Scotland, from the beginning of the reformation to the death of king James; which collection is ſtill preſerved in the univerſity library of Glaſgow; that which was publiſhed under the title of "The true hiſtory of Scotland," is only an extract from it. In the advertiſement prefixed to the laſt edition of his Altare Damaſcenum mention is made of his being miniſter of Pencaitland near Edinburgh in 1638; but we find nothing ſaid there, or any where elſe, of his death. He was a man of ſound learning and quick parts.

(1.) CALDEY, an iſland in Pembrokeſhire, 2 m. S. W. of Fenby.

(2.) CALDEY MAGNA, (3.) CALDEY PARVA, } Two villages in Cheſhire, ſeated on the Dee, near Hyle Lake.

CALDICOT, in the pariſh of Guiting-Power, Glouceſterſhire.

CALDMERTON, a town in Northumberland.

CALDMORE, in Staffordſhire, N. of Walſal.

(1.) * CALDRON. *n. ſ.* [*chauldron*, Fr. from *calidus*, Lat.] A pot; a boiler; a kettle.—

> In the midſt of all
> There placed was a *caldron* wide and tall,
> Upon a mighty furnace, burning hot. *Fairy Q.*
> Some ſtrip the ſkin, ſome portion out the ſpoil;
> The limbs, yet trembling, in the *caldrons* boil;
> Some on the fire the reeking entrails broil.
> *Dryden's Æneid.*

—In the late eruptions, this great hollow was like a vaſt *caldron*, filled with glowing and melted matter, which, as it boiled over in any part, ran down the ſides of the mountain. *Addiſon.*

(2.) CALDRONS are much larger than "pots, boilers, or kettles," (§ 1.) and are commonly made of copper; having a moveable iron handle, whereby to hang them on the chimney hook.

(3.) CALDRONS, BOILING IN, (*caldoriis decoquere*,) is a capital puniſhment ſpoken of in writers of the middle age, decreed to divers ſorts of criminals, but chiefly to debaſers of the coin. One of the torments, inflicted on the ancient Chriſtian martyrs, was boiling in caldrons of water, oil, &c.

CALDWALL, Richard, a learned Engliſh phyſician, born in Staffordſhire about 1513. He ſtudied phyſic at Oxford; and was examined, admitted into, and made cenſor of, the college of phyſicians at London, all in one day. Six weeks

after he was choſen one of the elects; and in 1570, was elected preſident. He wrote ſeveral medical pieces, and tranſlated a book on the art of ſurgery, written by one Horatio More, a Florentine phyſician. We learn from Cambden, that Caldwall founded a chirurgical lecture in the college of phyſicians, and endowed it with a handſome ſalary. He died in 1585.

CALDWELL, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. near Bedford: 2. in Stapenhill pariſh, Derbyſh. 3. in Worceſterſhire, near Kidderminſter: and 4. in Yorkſhire, near Forcet.

(1.) CALE, or KALE, a ſpecies of BRASSICA.

(2.) CALE, SEA. See CRAMBE.

CALEA, in botany, a genus of the polygamia æqualis order, belonging to the ſyngeneſia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, Compoſitæ. The receptacle is paleaceous, the pappus hairy, and the calyx imbricated. There are 3 ſpecies.

CALE-ACTE. See ARTEMISIUM, N. 1.

(1.) CALEB, the ſon of Jephunneh, of the tribe of Judah, one of the 12 ſpies who were ſent to view the land of Canaan, and the only one who joined with Joſhua in giving a favourable report of it. Num. xiii and xiv. His capture of Hebron, defeat of the Anakims, and portioning of his daughter Achſah, are recorded in Joſh. xiv, 6–15. xv, 13–19, and Judg. i, 9–15. This hero had 3 ſons and a numerous poſterity. He is to be diſtinguiſhed from the two following. See N° 2 & 3.

(2.) CALEB, or CHELUBAI, the ſon of Hezron, had 3 wives, 2 concubines, and a numerous poſterity. 1 Chron. ii.

(3.) CALEB, the ſon of Hur, and grandſon of Caleb, N. 2. His poſterity peopled the whole country about Bethlehem, Kirjath-jearim, &c.

(4.) CALEB, or CALEB-EPHRATAH } a city of Judah, where Caleb, (N. 2.) and his wife Ephratah dwelt. To the elders of this town, David ſent part of the ſpoils he took from the Amalekites. 1 Sam. xxx, 14.

* CALECHE. The ſame with CALASH.

(1.) CALEDONIA, the ancient name of Scotland. From the teſtimonies of Tacitus, Dio, and Solinus, we find, that the ancient Caledonia comprehended all that country lying N. of the Forth and Clyde. In proportion as the Silures or Cimbri advanced toward the N. the Caledonians, being circumſcribed within narrower limits, were forced to emigrate into the iſlands on the weſtern coaſts of Scotland. It is in this period, probably, we ought to place the firſt great migration of the Britiſh Gaël into Ireland; that kingdom being much nearer to the promontory of Galloway and Cantire, than many of the Scottiſh iſles are to the continent of North Britain. To the country which the Caledonians poſſeſſed, they gave the name of *Caël-doch*; which is the only appellation the Scots, who ſpeak the Gaelic language, know for their own diviſion of Britain. *Caël-doch* is a compound, made up of *Gaël* or *Catl*, the firſt colony of the ancient Gauls who emigrated into Britain, and *doch*, a diſtrict or diviſion of a country. The Romans, by tranſpoſing the letter *l* in *Cael*, and by ſoftening into a Latin termination the *ch* of *doch*, formed the well known name of Caledonia. This appears to be a much more natural etymology than that of Camden, from the old Britiſh word *kaled*, *hard*, becauſe the people were a hardy ruſtic race.

(2.) CALEDONIA, the name of a ſettlement made by the Scots on the W. ſide of the gulph of Darien, in 1698; out of which they were ſtarved at the requeſt of the Eaſt India company; for the Engliſh government who at firſt encouraged the ſettlement, afterwards prohibited the other colonies from ſending them any proviſions; ſo they were obliged to leave it in 1700. Such are the bleſſed fruits of monopolies. This piece of barbarous policy, with the maſſacre of Glenco, ſtamp indelible infamy on the reign and character of K. William III.

(3.) CALEDONIA, NEW, an iſland in the ſouth ſea, diſcovered by captain Cook, and next to New Holland and New Zealand, the largeſt that has yet been diſcovered in that ſea. It extends from 19°. 37′. to 22°. 30′. Lat. S. and from 164°. 37′ to 167°. 14′. Lon. E. Its length from N. W. to S. W. is about 80 leagues; but its greateſt breadth does not exceed 10 leagues. This iſland is diverſified by hills and valleys of various ſize and extent. From the hills iſſue abundance of rivulets, which contribute to fertilize the plains. Along its N. E. ſhore the land is flat; and being well watered, and cultivated by the inhabitants after their manner, appeared to great advantage to captain Cook's people. Were it not, indeed, for thoſe fertile ſpots on the plains, the whole country would be a dreary waſte: the mountains and higher parts of the land are in general incapable of cultivation. They conſiſt chiefly of rocks, many of which are full of mundic; the little ſoil that is upon them is ſcorched and burnt up by the ſun; it is, however, covered with coarſe graſs and other plants, and here and there covered with trees and ſhrubs. The country in general bears a great reſemblance to thoſe parts of New South Wales, which lie under the ſame parallel of latitude. Several of its natural productions are the ſame, and the woods are without underwood, as in that country. The whole coaſt ſeems to be ſurrounded by reefs and ſhoals, which render all acceſs to it extremely dangerous; but at the ſame time guard the coaſts againſt the wind and ſea; rendering it eaſily navigable along the coaſt by canoes, and cauſing it abound with fiſh. Every part of the coaſt ſeems to be inhabited; the plantations in the plains are laid out with great judgment, and cultivated with much labour. They begin their cultivation by ſetting fire to the graſs, &c. with which the ground is covered, but have no notion of preſerving its vigour by manure; they, however, recruit it by letting it lie for ſome years untouched. On the beach was found a large irregular maſs of rock, not leſs than a cube of 12 feet, conſiſting of a cloſe-grained ſtone, ſpecked full of granates ſomewhat bigger than pins heads, from whence it ſeems probable that ſome valuable minerals may be found on this iſland. It differs from all the other iſlands yet diſcovered in the South Sea, in being entirely deſtitute of volcanic productions. Several plants of a new ſpecies were found, particularly a new ſpecies of paſſion flower; and a few young bread fruit trees, not then ſufficiently grown to bear fruit, ſeemed to have

ve come up without culture: plantains and ſu-
r canes are here in ſmall quantity, and the co-
a nut trees are ſmall and thinly planted. Seve-
l CAPUTI, or MELALEUCA trees were alſo found
flower. Muſquetos are very numerous. A great
riety of birds were ſeen of different claſſes, for
e moſt part entirely new; particularly a beau-
ul ſpecies of parrot before unknown to zoolo-
ts. A new ſpecies of fiſh, of the genus called
Linnæus TETRAODON, was caught; and its
er, which was very large, preſented at ſupper.
veral ſpecies of this genus being reckoned poi-
ous, and this ſpecies being remarkably ugly,
eſſrs Forſters hinted their ſuſpicions of its qua-
y; but the temptation of a freſh meal, and the
urances of captain Cook, that he had formerly
ten this identical ſort of fiſh without harm, got
e better of their ſcruples. Its oilineſs, however,
ough it had no other bad taſte, prevented them
om taking above a morſel or two. In a few
urs after they had retired to reſt, they were a-
kened by very alarming ſymptoms, being all
zed with an extreme giddineſs; their hands and
t benumbed, ſo that they were ſcarcely able to
wl; and a great languor and oppreſſion ſei-
g them. Emetics were adminiſtered with ſome
ccſs, but ſudorifics gave the greateſt relief.
me dogs who had eaten the remainder of the
rr were likewiſe taken ill; and a pig which had
ten the entrails died ſoon after, having ſwelled
an unuſual ſize. The effects of this poiſon did
t go entirely off in leſs than ſix weeks. There
e great numbers of turtles on this iſland. The
uſes, or huts, are circular, ſomething like a
e-hive, and full as cloſe and warm; the entrance
by a long ſquare hole, juſt big enough to admit
man bent double: the ſide-walls are about 4½
et high; but the roof is lofty, and peaked to a
int at the top. The framing is of ſmall ſpars,
eds, &c. and both ſides and roof are thick, and
oſe covered with thatch made of coarſe long
raſs. In the inſide of the houſe are ſet up poſts,
which croſs ſpars are faſtened, and platforms
ade, for the conveniency of laying any thing on.
me houſes have two floors, one above another;
e floor is laid with dried graſs, and mats are
read for the principal people to ſit or ſleep on.
theſe there is no paſſage for the ſmoke but
rough the door; they were intolerably ſmoky,
d inſupportably hot to thoſe unaccuſtomed to
em: probably the ſmoke is intended to drive
ut the muſquetos which ſwarm here. They
mmonly erect 2 or 3 of theſe huts near each
ther under a cluſter of lofty fig-trees, whoſe leaves
e impervious to the rays of the ſun. The ca-
es are heavy clumſy veſſels, made of two trees
ollowed out, having a raiſed gunnel about two
ches high, and cloſed at each end with a bulk
ead of the ſame height; ſo that the whole is like
long ſquare trough, about 3 feet ſhorter than
e body of the canoe. Two canoes thus fitted
re faſtened to each other about 3 feet aſunder,
y means of croſs ſpars, which project about a
oot over each ſide. Over theſe is laid a deck
ade of plank and ſmall round ſpars, on which
hey have a hearth, and generally a fire burning;
hey are navigated by one or two latteen ſails, ex-
tended to a ſmall latteen yard, the end of which
is fixed in a notch in the deck.

(4.) CALEDONIA, NEW, INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, &c. OF. The inhabitants are very ſtout, tall, and in general well proportioned; their features mild; their beards and hair black, and ſtrongly frizzled, ſo as to be ſomewhat woolly, in ſome individuals: their colour is a dark cheſnut brown. A few meaſured 6 feet 4 inches. They are remarkably courteous, not at all addicted to pilfering; in which character of honeſty they are ſingular, all the other nations in the South Sea being remarkably thieviſh. Some wear their hair long, and tie it up to the crown of their heads; others ſuffer only a large lock to grow on each ſide, which they tie up in clubs; many others as well as all the women, wear it cropt ſhort. They uſe a kind of comb made of ſticks of hard wood, from 7 to 10 inches long, and about the thickneſs of knitting needles. Theſe combs they alſo wear in their hair on one ſide of their head. Some had a kind of concave cylindrical ſtiff black cap, which appeared to be a great ornament among them, and was ſuppoſed to be worn only by the chiefs and warriors. The men go naked; only tying a ſtring round their middle, and another round their neck. A little piece of a brown cloth made of the bark of a fig-tree, ſometimes tucked up to the belt, and ſometimes pendulous, ſcarcely deſerves the name of a covering; nor indeed does it ſeem intended for it. This piece of cloth is ſometimes of ſuch a length, that the extremity is faſtened to the ſtring round the neck; to this ſtring they likewiſe hang ſmall round beads of a pale green nephritic ſtone. They had alſo coarſe garments made of a ſort of matting; but they ſeemed never to wear them, except when in their canoes and unemployed. The women ſeemed to be in a ſervile ſtate: they were the only perſons who had any employment, and ſeveral of them brought bundles of ſticks and fuel on their backs: thoſe who had children carried them on their backs in a kind of ſatchel. The women alſo dig up the earth to plant it. They are in general of a dark cheſnut, and ſometimes mahogany brown; their ſtature middle-ſized, though ſome are tall, and their whole form rather ſtout, and ſomewhat clumſy. Their dreſs is a ſhort petticoat or fringe, conſiſting of filaments or little cords, about 8 inches long, faſtened to a very long ſtring, which they tie ſeveral times round their waiſt. Theſe filaments lie above each other in ſeveral layers, all round the body, but do not near cover the thigh; they were ſometimes dyed black; but frequently of a dirty grey. There was not a ſingle inſtance, during the ſhips ſtay at this iſland, of the women permitting any indecent familiarity with an European. The general ornaments of both ſexes are ear-rings, necklaces, amulets, and bracelets made of ſhells, ſtones, &c. Notwithſtanding the inoffenſive diſpoſition of the inhabitants of New Caledonia, they are well provided with offenſive weapons; as clubs, ſpears, darts, and ſlings. Their clubs are about 2½ feet long, and variouſly formed; ſome like a ſcythe, others like a pick-ax; ſome with a head like a hawk, others with round heads; but all are neatly made, and orna-

mented with carvings. The ſlings are ſimple, but they form the ſtones into a ſhape, ſomething like an egg. They drive the dart by the aſſiſtance of ſhort cords knobbed at one end and looped at the other, called by the ſeamen *beckets*. Theſe contain a quantity of red wool taken from the great Indian bat. Bows and arrows are wholly unknown among them. Their language bears no affinity to that ſpoken in the other South Sea iſlands, the word *arreekee* and one or two more excepted. This is the more extraordinary, as different dialects of one language were ſpoken not only in the eaſterly iſlands, but at New Zealand. Their only muſical inſtrument is a kind of whiſtle; a little poliſhed piece of brown wood about two inches long, ſhaped like a bell, through apparently ſolid, with a rope fixed at the ſmall end; two holes are made in it near the baſe, and another near the inſertion of the rope, all which communicate with each other; and by blowing in the uppermoſt, a ſhrill ſound like whiſtling is produced. Many of theſe people were obſerved to have prodigiouſly thick legs and arms, which ſeemed to be affected with a kind of leproſy; the ſwelling was extremely hard, but the ſkin was not alike harſh and ſcaly in all thoſe who were afflicted with the diſorder. The preternatural expanſion of the arm or leg did not appear to be a great inconvenience to them; and they very rarely felt any pain in it; but in ſome the diſorder began to form blotches, which are marks of a great degree of virulence. They bury their dead in the ground. The grave of a chief who had been ſlain in battle reſembled a large mole-hill, and was decorated with ſpears, darts, paddles, &c. all ſtuck upright in the ground about it. Lieutenant Pickerſgill was ſhowed a chief whom they named *Tea-heoma*, and ſtyled their *arreekee* or *king*; but nothing further is known of their government, and nothing at all of their religion. They had no idea of goats, hogs, dogs, or cats.

CALEDONIANS, one of the general names of the ancient inhabitants of Scotland, as well as of a particular tribe. When the tribes of North Britain were attacked by the Romans, they entered into aſſociations, that, by uniting their ſtrength they might be more able to repel the common enemy. The particular name of that tribe, which either its ſuperior power or military reputation placed at the head of the aſſociation, was the general name given by the Romans to all confederates. Hence the MOEATÆ, who with other tribes inhabited the diſtricts of Scotland lying S. of the Frith, and the CALEDONIANS, who inhabited the W. and N. W. parts, (particularly Argyll, Lorn, Strathearn, and Perthſhire,) engroſſed all the glory which belonged in common though in an inferior degree, to all the other nations then ſettled in North Britain. For the ſame reaſon the name of *Mæatæ* was entirely forgotten by foreign writers after the 3d century; and even that of *Caledonians* but ſeldom mentioned after the 4th. *Britons*, *Caledonians*, *Mæatæ*, and *Borderers* are the names conſtantly given to the old inhabitants of North Britain, by Tacitus, Herodian, Dio, Spartian, Vopiſcus, and other ancient writers. The ſucceſſors of theſe people are [illegible]ds, Scots, and Attacots, by ſome Roman writers of the 4th century. The origin of the appellation SCOTI and PICTI, introduced by the Roman authors, has occaſioned much controverſy among the antiquarians of theſe days. The diſpute ſeems now to be fully decided by ſome learned critics of the preſent century, whoſe knowledge of the Gaelic language aſſiſted their inveſtigation. See SCOTLAND, PICTS, and HIGHLANDERS.

CALEFACIENTIA, } in medicine, bearing a
CALEFACIENTS, } warming medicines.

(1.) * CALEFACTION. *n. ſ.* [from *calefio*, Lat.] 1. The act of heating any thing. 2. The ſtate of being heated.

(2.) CALEFACTION, may be farther defined, the production of heat in a body from the action of fire, or that impulſe impreſſed by a hot body on others around it. It is uſed in pharmacy, by way of diſtinction from COCTION, which implies BOILING.

* CALEFACTIVE. *adj.* [from *calefacio*, Lat.] That which makes any thing hot; heating.

CALEFACTORINESS, *n. ſ.* Warmth. Bailey.

* CALEFACTORY. *adj.* [from *calefacio*, Lat.] That which heats.

(1.) * To CALEFY. *v. a.* To make hot.

(2.) * To CALEFY. *v. n.* [*calefio*, Latin.] To grow hot; to be heated.—Cryſtal will *calefy* to electricity; that is, a power to attract ſtraws, or light bodies, and convert the needle, if placed. *Browne's Vulgar Errours.*

CALE-HILL, a village near Charing, Kent.

(1.) CALENBERG, a caſtle of Germany, in the principality, No. 2. ſeated on the river Leine, 15 m. S. of Hanover, and ſubject to the Elector. Lon. 9. 43. E. Lat. 52. 20. N.

(2.) CALENBERG, a principality of Lower Saxony, and one of the 4 diviſions of Brunſwick, bounded on the N. by the duchy of Verden, on the E. by the principality of Zell, on the S. by that of Grubenhagen and Wolfenbuttle, and on the W. by Weſtphalia. See BRUNSWICK, N. II. § 1.

(1.) * CALENDAR. *n. ſ.* [*calendarium*, Lat.] A regiſter of the year, in which the months, and ſtated times, are marked, as feſtivals and holidays.

What hath this day deſerv'd? what hath it done,
That it in golden letter ſhould be ſet
Among the high tides, in the *calendar*?

Shakeſp. K. John.

—We compute from *calendars* differing from one another; the compute of the one anticipating that of the other. *Brown.*—

Curs'd be the day when firſt I did appear!
Let it be blotted from the *calendar*.
Leſt it pollute the month!

Dryden's Fables.

(2.) CALENDAR, in aſtronomy and chronology. See KALENDAR.

(3.) CALENDAR, NEW FRENCH, a diſtribution of time entirely new, adopted by the French Convention, ſoon after the abolition of royalty, in 1792; and ſtill continued with very little alteration, by the preſent government of France. In this calendar, the year commences at midnight on the beginning of that day, on which the true equinox falls, by the obſervatory of Paris. The year is divided into 12 equal months, of 30 days each; after which five ſupplementary days are added, to complete the 365 days of the ordinary

mary year. Theſe five days do not belong to any month. They were firſt named SANS-CULLOTTIDES, in honour of the *Sans-Culottes*, or inferior ranks of ſociety; but this name was changed, (and it is the only change made in the calendar,) ſoon after the revolution in July 1794. Each month is divided into three decades of 10 days each; diſtinguiſhed by 1ſt, 2d, and 3d decade. The years which receive an intercalary day, when the poſition of the equinox requires it, which we call emboliſmic, biſſextile, or leap years, the French call olympic; and the period of 4 years, ending with an olympic year, is called an olympiad. The intercalary day, on that occaſion, is placed after the ordinary 5 ſupplementary days, and, being the laſt day of the olympic year, is dedicated to olympic games to be celebrated in honour of the revolution; and to the renovation of the national oath, "To live free or die." The months have all new names, expreſſive of their reſpective relations, either to the ſeaſon of the year, the temperature of the air, or the ſtate of the vegetation. See the TABLE. Each day from midnight to midnight, is divided into 10 parts, each part into 10 others, and ſo on to the laſt meaſurable portion of time. The days of the decade are denominated from the firſt ten numbers, thus; Primdi, Duodi, Tridi, Quatridi, Quintidi, Sextidi, Septidi, Octidi, Nonidi, Decadi. In the almanac, or annual calendar, inſtead of the numerous names of ſaints, in the popiſh calendars, every day is inſcribed with the name of ſome animal, utenſil, work, fruit, flower, or vegetable, ſuited to the day or the ſeaſon. The following table exhibits the names of the months with their ſignification and duration: and will ſuit any year except leap year; when by the intervention of the 29th Feb. the firſt of Germinal happens upon the 20th of March, and every day thereafter one day later than is ſtated in the table, till the 6th ſupplementary day, on the 21ſt Sept. brings the French calendar to its uſual equation with the Gregorian.

TABLE *of the* MONTHS *and* SUPPLEMENTARY DAYS, *according to the* NEW FRENCH CALENDAR.

	NAMES.	SIGNIFICATION.	DURATION.			
AUTUMN.	Vindemiaire,	Vintage month,	from	Sept. 22.	to	Oct. 21.
	Brumaire,	Fog month,	——	Oct. 22.	—	Nov. 20.
	Frimaire,	Sleet month,	——	Nov. 21.	—	Dec. 20.
WINTER.	Niveſe,	Snow month,	——	Dec. 21.	—	Jan. 19.
	Pluvioſe,	Rainy month,	——	Jan. 20.	—	Feb. 18.
	Ventoſe,	Windy month,	——	Feb. 19.	—	March 20.
SPRING.	Germinal,	Sprout month,	——	March 21.	—	April 19.
	Floreal,	Flower month,	——	April 20.	—	May 19.
	Priarial,	Paſture month,	——	May 20.	—	June 18.
SUMMER.	Meſſidor,	Harveſt month,	——	June 19.	—	July 18.
	Thermidor,	Hot month,	——	July 19.	—	Aug. 17.
	Fructidor,	Fruit month,	——	Aug. 19.	—	Sept. 16.

SUPPLEMENTARY DAYS, *dedicated as feaſts to*

Les Vertus,	The Virtues,	Sept. 17.	L'Opinion,	Opinion,	Sept. 20.
Le Génie,	Genius,	Sept. 18.	Les Recompenſes,	Rewards,	Sept. 21.
Le Travail,	Labour,	Sept. 19.			

(4.) CALENDAR OF NATURE. See NATURE, § 3.

(5.) CALENDAR OF PRISONERS, in law, a liſt of all the priſoners names in the cuſtody of each ſheriff. See EXECUTION.

CALENDARIS, an epithet of Juno.

(1.) CALENDARIUM FESTUM. The Chriſtians retained much of the ceremony and wantonneſs of the calends of January, which for many ages was held a feaſt, and celebrated by the clergy with great indecencies, under the names of *feſtum kalendarium*, or *hypodiaconorum*, or *ſtultorum*, *i. e.* the feaſt of fools. The people met maſked in the church, and in a ludicrous way proceeded to the election of a mock pope, who exerciſed a juriſdiction over them ſuitable to the feſtivity of the occaſion. Fathers, councils, and popes long laboured to reſtrain this licence, to little purpoſe. The feaſt of the calends was in uſe as low as the cloſe of the 15th century.

(2.) CALENDARIUM FLORÆ, in botany, a calendar containing an exact regiſter of the reſpective times in which the plants of any given province or climate germinate, expand, and ſhed their leaves and flowers, or ripen and diſperſe their ſeeds. See DEFOLIATIO, EFFLORESCENTIA, FRONDESCENTIA, FRUCTESCENTIA, GERMINATIO, and NATURE, § 3.

(1.) * CALENDER. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A hot preſs; a preſs in which clothiers ſmooth their cloth.

(2.) CALENDER, in geography. See CALLANDER.

(3.) CALENDER, in manufactories, (§ 1.) is uſed to preſs woollen and ſilken ſtuffs and linens, to make them ſmooth, even, and gloſſy, or to give them waves, or water them, as in Mohairs and tabbies. This machine is compoſed of two thick cylinders or rollers, made of very hard and well poliſhed wood, round which the ſtuffs to be calendered are wound: Theſe rollers are placed acroſs between two very thick boards, the lower ſerving as a fixed baſe, and the upper moveable by means of a thick ſcrew with a rope faſtened to a ſpindle which makes its axis: The uppermoſt board is loaded with large ſtones weighing 20,000lb. or more. At Paris there is an extraordinary machine of this kind. The lower table or plank is made of a block of ſmooth marble, and the upper is lined with a plate of poliſhed copper. The alternate motion of the upper board ſometi-

times one way and ſometimes another, together with the prodigious weight laid upon it, gives the ſtuffs their gloſs and ſmoothneſs; or gives them the waves, by making the cylinders on which they are put roll with great force over the undermoſt board. When they would put a roller from under the calender, they only incline the undermoſt board of the machine. The dreſſing alone, with the many turns they make the ſtuffs and linens undergo in the calender, gives the waves, or waters them, as the workmen call it. Mr Chambers is miſtaken, in ſuppoſing, that they uſe rollers with a ſhallow indenture or engraving cut into them.

* *To* CALENDER. *v. a.* [*calendrer*, Fr. *Skinner.*] To dreſs cloth; to lay the nap of cloth ſmooth.

CALENDERI, Santon, the founder of a ſect of Mahometan friars. He went bare-headed, without a ſhirt, and with the ſkin of a wild beaſt thrown over his ſhoulders. He wore a kind of apron before, the ſtrings of which were adorned with counterfeit precious ſtones. See next article.

CALENDERS, a ſect of Derviſes or Mahometan friars, the diſciples of Santon Calenderi. They are rather a ſect of Epicureans than a ſociety of religious. They honour a tavern as much as they do a moſque; and think they pay as acceptable worſhip to God by the free uſe of his creatures, as others do by the greateſt auſterities and acts of devotion. They are called, in Perſia and Arabia, ABDALS, or ABDALLAT, *i. e.* perſons conſecrated to the honour and ſervice of God. Their garment is a ſingle coat, made up of a variety of pieces, and quilted like a rug. They preach in the market places, and live upon what their auditors beſtow on them.

* CALENDRER. *n. ſ.* [from *calender.*] The perſon who calenders.

(1.) * CALENDS. *n. ſ.* [*calendæ*, Lat. It has no *ſingular.*] The firſt day of every month among the Romans.

(2.) CALENDS, in Roman antiquity. See KALENDS.

(3.) CALENDS, GREEK, a proverbial expreſſion among the Romans, adopted into moſt modern languages, ſignifying *never*, becauſe the Greeks had no calends.

(I.) CALENDULA, in botany, the MARIGOLD, a genus of the polygamia neceſſaria order, belonging to the ſyngeneſia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compoſitæ*. The receptacle is naked, there is no pappus, the calyx is polyphyllous and equal, the ſeeds of the diſk membranaceous. Of this there are 8 ſpecies, none of them natives of Europe. The common kind is ſo well known as to need no deſcription; and none of the others merit any, except

CALENDULA FRUCTICOSA, which has lately been introduced from the Cape of Good Hope. It has a ſlender ſhrubby perennial ſtalk, which riſes to the height of 7 or 8 feet, but requires ſupport: this ſends out a great number of weak branches from the bottom to the top, which hang downward unleſs they are ſupported: they are garniſhed with oval leaves, having ſhort flat footſtalks, of a ſhining green colour on their upper ſide, but pale underneath: the flowers come out at the end of the branches, on ſhort naked foot-ſtalks. This is eaſily propagated by cuttings; which may be planted at any time in ſummer in a ſhady border, or ſhaded with mats in the heat of the day; in 5 or 6 weeks they will have taken root, when they ſhould be ſeparately taken up, each put in a ſeparate pot, and placed in the ſhade till they have taken freſh root; then they may be placed, with other hardy exotic plants, in a ſheltered ſituation, where they may remain till the froſt begins, when they muſt be removed into the green-houſe, placing them near the windows, that they may enjoy the free air; for this plant only requires protection from froſt. The ſeeds of the common ſort may be ſown in March or April, where the plants are to remain; and will require no other culture but to keep them clear of weeds, and to thin the plants where they are too thick. The flowers of the common marigold are ſuppoſed to be aperient, attenuating, cardiac, alexipharmac, and ſudorific; they are principally celebrated in uterine obſtructions, the jaundice, and for throwing out the ſmall pox. Their ſenſible qualities, however, give little foundation for theſe virtues: they have ſcarce any taſte, and have no conſiderable ſmell. The leaves of the plant diſcover a viſcid ſweetiſhneſs, accompanied with a more durable ſaponaceous pungency and warmth; theſe ſeem capable of anſwering ſome uſeful purpoſes as a ſtimulating, aperient, and antiſcorbutic medicine.

(II.) CALENDULA, in ornithology, a ſpecies of the MOTACILLA, found in Pennſylvania.

CALENTIUS, Eliſius, a Neapolitan poet and proſe author. He was preceptor to Frederic the ſon of Ferdinand king of Naples, and the earlieſt writer on the illegality of putting criminals to death, for any crime except murder. He died in 1503.

(1.) * CALENTURE. *n. ſ.* [from *calo*, Lat.] A diſtemper peculiar to ſailors in hot climates: wherein they imagine the ſea to be green fields, and will throw themſelves into it. *Quincy.*

And for that lethargy was there no cure,
But to be caſt into a *calenture.* *Denham.*

So, by a *calenture* miſled,
The mariner with rapture ſees,
On the ſmooth ocean's azure bed,
Enamell'd fields, and verdant trees;
With eager haſte, he longs to rove
In that fantaſtic ſcene, and thinks
It muſt be ſome enchanting grove;
And in he leaps, and down he ſinks. *Swift.*

(2.) CALENTURE has been cured by vomiting, bleeding, a ſpare diet, and the neutral ſalts; a ſingle vomit commonly removing the delirium, and the cooling medicines completing the cure. In ſome caſes, however, the ſtimulant plant of cure might be of ſervice.

CALENUS, an epithet applied by Horace and Juvenal to a generous wine, produced in Cales.

CALEPIN, Ambroſius, an Auguſtine monk of Calepio, whence he took his name, in the 16th century. He is author of a dictionary of 8 languages, ſince augmented by Paſſerat and others.

CALES, in ancient geography, a municipal city of ſome note in Campania near Caſilinum.

CALETES, a people of Gallia Celtica, on the confines

confines of Belgica, ſituated between the ſea and the Sequana. They inhabited the country now called CAUX.

(1.) CALETURE, a fort in the iſland of Ceylon, at the mouth of the river, No. 2. The Dutch became maſters of it in 1655; but were afterwards obliged to leave it. Lon. 80. 51. E. Lat. 6. 38. N.

(2.) CALETURE, a river in Ceylon.

(1.) * CALF. *n. ſ. calves* in the *plural*. [*cealf*, Saxon; *kalf*, Dutch.] 1. The young of a cow. —The colt hath about four years growth; and ſo the fawn, and ſo the *calf*. *Bacon's Nat. Hiſtory*.—Acoſta tells us of a fowl in Peru, called condore, which will kill and eat up a whole *calf* at a time. *Wilkins*.—

Ah! Blouzelind, I love thee more by half
Than does their fawns, or cows the new fall'n *calf*. *Gay*.

2. *Calves* of the lips, mentioned by Hoſea, ſignify ſacrifices of praiſe and prayer, which the captives of Babylon addreſſed to God, being no longer in a condition to offer ſacrifices in his temple. *Calmet*.—Turn to the Lord, and ſay unto him, Take away all iniquity, and receive us graciouſly: ſo will we render the *calves* of our lips. *Hoſea*, xiv. 2. 3. By way of contempt and reproach applied to a human being; a dolt; a ſtupid wretch.—

When a child haps to be got,
That after proves an ideot;
When folk perceive it thriveth not,
Some ſilly doating brainleſs *calf*,
That underſtands things by the half,
Says, that the fairy left the oaf,
And took away the other. *Drayt Nym*.

4. The thick plump, bulbous part of the leg. [*kalf*, Dutch.]—

Into her legs I'd have love's iſſue fall,
And all her *calf* into a gouty ſmall. *Suckling*.
—The *calf* of that leg bliſtered. *Wiſeman's Surg*.

(2.) CALF, in zoology. See BOS, No. IV. § 11. 1. A calf ſhould be allowed to ſuck and follow its mother during the firſt 6 or 8 days. After this it begins to eat pretty well, and two or three ſucks in a day will be ſufficient. But if the object be to have it quickly fattened for the market, a few raw eggs every day, with boiled milk, and a little bread, will make it excellent veal in 4 or 5 weeks. This management applies only to ſuch calves as are deſigned for the butcher. When intended to be brought up, they ought to have at leaſt two months ſuck; as the longer they ſuck, they grow the ſtronger and larger. Thoſe that are brought forth in April, May, or June, are the moſt proper for this purpoſe; when calved later in the ſeaſon, they do not acquire ſufficient ſtrength to ſupport them during the winter. There are two ways of breeding calves that are intended to be reared. The one is to let the calf run about with its dam all the year round; which is the method in the cheap breeding countries, and is generally allowed to make the beſt cattle. The other is to take them from the dam after they have ſucked about a fortnight; they are then to be taught to drink ſkim milk, which is to be made but juſt warm, it being very dangerous to give it them too hot. The beſt time of weaning calves is from January to May; they ſhould have milk for 12 weeks after; and a fortnight before that is left off, water ſhould be mixed with the milk in larger and larger quantities. When they have been fed on milk for a month, little wiſps of hay ſhould be placed about them, in cleft ſticks to induce them to eat. In the beginning of April they ſhould be turned out to the graſs: only for a few days they ſhould be taken in for the night, and have milk and water given them; the ſame may alſo be given them in a pale ſometimes in the field, till they are ſo able to feed themſelves that they do not regard it. The graſs they are turned into muſt not be too rank, but ſhort and ſweet, that they may like it, and yet get it with ſome labour. Calves ſhould always be weaned at graſs; for if it be done with hay and water, they often grow big belly'd, and rot. When thoſe among the males are ſelected which are to be kept as bulls, the reſt ſhould be gelded for oxen; the ſooner the better. Between 10 and 20 days is a proper age. About London, almoſt all the calves are fatted for the butcher, as there is a good market for them; and the lands there are not ſo profitable to breed upon as in cheaper countries. The way to make calves fat and fine is, to keep them very clean; give them freſh litter every day; and to hang a large chalk-ſtone, where they can eaſily get at it to lick it, but where it is out of the way of being fouled by the dung and urine. The coops are to be placed ſo as not to have too much ſun upon them, and ſo high above the ground that the urine may run off. Some bleed them once when they are a month old, and a 2d time before they kill them; which is a great addition to the beauty and whiteneſs of their fleſh; the bleeding is by ſome repeated much oftener, but this is ſufficient. Calves are very apt to be looſe in their bowels; which waſtes and very much injures them. The remedy is to give them chalk ſcraped among milk, pouring it down with a horn. If it does not ſucceed, give them bole armeniac in large doſes, and uſe the cold bath every morning. If a cow will not let a ſtrange calf ſuck her, the common method is to rub both her noſe and the calf's with a little brandy; which generally reconciles them.

(3.) CALF, GOLDEN, an idol ſet up and worſhipped by the Iſraelites at the foot of mount Sinai. Our verſion makes Aaron faſhion this calf with a graving tool after he had caſt it in a mould: the Geneva tranſlation makes him engrave it firſt, and caſt it afterwards. Others, render the whole verſe thus; "And Aaron received them (the golden earings), and tied them up in a bag, and got them caſt into a molten calf;" which verſion is authoriſed by the different ſenſes of the word *tzur*, which ſignifies to tie up or bind, as well as to ſhape or form; and of the word *cherret*, which is uſed both for a graving tool and a bag. See AARON. Some of the ancient fathers have been of opinion that this idol had only the face of a calf, and the ſhape of a man from the neck downwards, in imitation of the Egyptian Iſis. Others have thought it was only the head of an ox without a body. But the moſt general opinion is, that it was an entire calf in imitation of the Apis worſhipped by the Egyptians; among whom the Iſraelites had acquired their propenſity to idolatry. This calf Moſes is ſaid to have *burnt with fire, ground*

ground to powder, and ſtrewed upon the water which the people were to drink. How this could be accompliſhed hath been a queſtion. Many have thought, that as gold is indeſtructible, it could only be burnt by the miraculous power of God; but M. Stahl conjectures, that Moſes diſſolved it by means of liver of ſulphur. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*. M. Voltaire, in his *Eſſay on Toleration*, (in other reſpects an excellent work,) argues much upon the *impoſſibility of grinding to powder* ſo ductile a metal as gold; but any goldſmith could have informed him, that nothing is eaſier; for the pureſt gold may at any time be made as brittle as glaſs, by mixing with it a ſmall quantity of braſs:—nay, ſuch an antipathy exiſts between the two metals, that gold, in working, will often become quite unmalleable, by only accidentally touching a piece of braſs, while it is warm. And if we ſuppoſe the Egyptian goldſmiths to have been as fond of profit, as the modern jewellers of Europe, it is probable they might have put braſs pins (a practice now not uncommon) in the joints of the gold ear-rings, which they had ſold or lent to the Hebrew ladies; in which caſe, the whole maſs being melted together, when the calf was made, Moſes would require no miraculous power to enable him to grind it to powder; nor would he even need to throw in any additional quantity of braſs, to render it brittle, when he *burnt*, or *melted* it, (as perhaps the word ſhould be rendered) *with fire*.

(4.) CALF, SEA. See PHOCA.

(1.) CALF-SKINS, in the leather manufacture, are prepared and dreſſed by the tanners, ſkinners, and curriers, who ſell them for the uſe of the ſhoe-makers, ſaddlers, book-binders, and other artificers, who employ them in their ſeveral manufactures. The Engliſh calf-ſkin is much valued abroad, and the commerce thereof very conſiderable in France and other countries; where divers attempts have been made to imitate it, but hitherto in vain. What baffles all endeavours for imitating the Engliſh calf in France is, the ſmallneſs and weakneſs of the calves about Paris; which at 15 days old are not ſo big as the Engliſh ones when newly calved.

(2.) CALF-SKINS DRESSED IN SUMACH are the ſkins of theſe animals curried black on the hair ſide, and dyed of an orange colour on the fleſh ſide, by means of ſumach, chiefly uſed in the making of belts.

CALF'S-SNOUT. See ANTIRRHINUM.

CALHOURN, a village in W. Medina, in the Iſle of Wight.

(1.) CALI, a town of South America, in Popayan, ſeated in the valley, (N. 2.) on the river Cauca. The governor of the province uſually reſides in it. Lon. 77. 5. W. Lat. 3. 15. N.

(2.) CALI, a valley in Popayan.

(3.) CALI. See KALI.

(1.) * CALIBER. *n. ſ.* [*calibre*, Fr.] The bore; the diameter of the barrel of a gun; the diameter of a bullet.

(2.) CALIBER, or CALIPER, properly denotes the diameter of any body; thus we ſay, two columns of the ſame caliber; the caliber of a bullet, &c.

(3.) CALIBER COMPASSES, CALIPER COMPASSES, or CALLIPERS, a ſort of compaſſes made with arched legs to take the diameter of round or ſwelling bodies. See COMPASSES. Caliber compaſſes, are chiefly uſed by gunners, for taking the diameters of the ſeveral parts of a piece of ordnance, or of bombs, bullets, &c. See § 4. Their legs are therefore circular; and move on an arch of braſs, whereon is marked the inches and half inches, to ſhow how far the points of the compaſſes are opened aſunder. The gaugers alſo ſometimes uſe calibers, to embrace the two heads of any caſk, in order to find its length. The calibers uſed by carpenters and joiners, are a piece of board notched triangular-wiſe in the middle for taking meaſures.

(4.) CALIBER COMPASSES, CALIBER RULE, or GUNNER'S CALLIPERS, are inſtruments which in a right line is ſo divided as that the firſt part being equal to the diameter of an iron or leaden ball of 1 lb. weight, the other parts are to the firſt as the diameters of balls of 2, 3, 4, &c. pounds are to the diameter of a ball of 1 lb. The caliber is uſed by engineers, from the weight of the ball given, to determine its diameter, or *vice verſa*. The gunner's callipers conſiſt of two thin plates of braſs joined by a rivet, ſo as to move quite round each other: the length from the centre of the joint is between ſix inches and a foot, and the breadth from one to two inches; that of the moſt convenient ſize is about 9 inches long. Many ſcales, tables, and proportions, &c. may be introduced on this inſtrument; but none are eſſential to it, except thoſe for taking the caliber of ſhot and cannon, and for meaſuring the magnitude of ſaliant and entering angles. The moſt complete and beſt ſort of calipers, however, uſually contain the following articles, viz. 1ſt, the meaſure of convex diameters in inches, &c. 2d, of concave diameters; 3d, the weight of iron ſhot of given diameters; 4th, the weight of iron ſhot for given gun bores; 5th, the degrees of a ſemicircle; 6th, the proportion of troy and avoirdupois weight; 7th, the proportion of Engliſh and French feet and pounds weight; 8th, factors uſed in circular and ſpherical figures; 9th, tables of the ſpecific gravities and weight of bodies; 10th, tables of the quantity of powder neceſſary for the proof and ſervice of braſs and iron guns; 11th, rules for computing the number of ſhot or ſhells in a complete pile; 12th, rules for the fall or deſcent of heavy bodies; 13th, rules for the raiſing of water; 14th, rules for firing artillery and mortars; 15th, a line of inches; 16th, logarithmetic ſcales of numbers, fines, verſed fines, and tangents; 17th, a ſectoral line of equal parts, or the line of lines; 18th, a ſectoral line of plains and ſuperficies; and 19th, a ſectoral line of ſolids.

(5.) CALIBER COMPASSES, DESCRIPTION OF. Theſe are fully exhibited in *Plate* L. *fig.* 1. The 4 faces of this inſtrument are diſtinguiſhed by the letters A, B, C and D.—A and D conſiſt of a circular head and leg; B and C conſiſt only of a leg. On the circular head adjoining to the leg of the face A, are diviſions denominated *ſhot diameters*; which ſhow the diſtance in inches and tenths of an inch of the points of the callipers when they are opened; ſo that if a ball not exceeding ten inches be introduced between them, the bevil edge E marks its diameter among theſe diviſions

(as

Fig. 4. Certhia - Cardinal.
Fig. 7. Culex.
Pl. 1.
Fig. 5.
Fig. 6. Charadrius
New Zealand Plover.
Fig. 3. Cafsida.
Fig. 2. Carabus.
Fig. 1.
Caliber Compafses.

n the circular bevil part E of the face B is a ſcale diviſions diſtinguiſhed by *lb. weight of iron ſhot.* hen the diameter of any ſhot is taken between e points of the callipers, the inner edge of the ; A ſhows its weight in avoirdupoiſe pounds, ovided it be lb. ½, 1, 1½, 2, 3, 4, 5¼, 6, 8, 9, , 16, 18, 24, 26, 32, 36, or 42; the figures areſt the bevil edge anſwering to the ſhort lines the ſcale, and thoſe behind them to the longer okes. This ſcale is conſtructed on the follow- geometrical theorem, *viz.* that the weights ſpheres are as the cubes of their diameters. On lower part of the circular head of the face A ſcale of diviſions marked *bores of guns*; for uſe of which, the legs of the callipers are ſlip- acroſs each other, till the ſteel points touch concave ſurface of the gun in its greateſt adth; then the bevil edge F of the face B will a diviſion in the ſcale ſhowing the diameter of bore in inches and tenths. Within the ſcales *ſhot* and *bore* diameters on the circular part of re diviſions marked *pounders*: the inner fi- s, 1½, 3, 5¼, 8, 12, 18, 26, 36, correſpond the longeſt lines; and the figures 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 24, 32, 42, to the ſhort ſtrokes. When the e of a gun is taken between the points of the lipers, the bevil edge F will either cut or be r one of theſe diviſions, and ſhow the weight iron-ſhot proper for that gun. On the upper f of the circular head of the face A are three ncentric ſcales of degrees; the outer ſcale con- ing of 180 degrees numbered from right to left, 20, &c. the middle numbered the contrary y, and the outer ſcale beginning at the middle h o, and numbered on each ſide to 90 degrees. eſe ſcales ſerve to take the quantity of an angle, ier entering or ſaliant. For an entering or in- al angle, apply the legs of the callipers ſo that outwarp edges coincide with the legs of the en angle, the degree cut by the bevil edge F the outer ſcale ſhows the meaſure of the angle ght: for a ſaliant or external angle, ſlip the s of the callipers acroſs each other, ſo that ir outward edges may coincide with the legs ming the angle, and the degree marked on the ldle ſcale by the bevil edge E will ſhow the aſure of the angle required. The inner ſcale l ſerve to determine the elevation of cannon mortars, or of any oblique plane. Let one of a thread be fixed into the notch on the e B, and any weight tied to the other end: ly the ſtraight ſide of the plate A to the ſide the body whoſe inclination is ſought; hold it this poſition, and move the plate B, till the ead falls upon the line near the centre marked . Then will the bevil edge F cut the degrees the inner ſcale, ſhowing the inclination of that ly to the horizon. On the face C near the nt of the callipers is a little table ſhowing the portion of troy and avoirdupoiſe weights, by ch one kind of weight may be eaſily reduced another. Near the extreme of the face D of callipers are two tables ſhowing the propor- between the pounds weight of London and is, alſo between the lengths of the foot mea- of England and France. Near the extreme the face A is a table containing four rules of the circle and ſphere; and geometrical figures an- nexed to them: the 1ſt is a circle including the proportion in round numbers of the diameter to its circumference; the 2d is a circle inſcribed in a ſquare, and a ſquare within that circle, and ano- ther circle in the inner ſquare; the numbers 28, 22, above this figure exhibit the proportion of the out- ward ſquare to the area of the inſcribed circle; and the numbers 14, 11, below it ſhow the proportion between the area of the inſcribed ſquare and the area of its inſcribed circle. The 3d is a cube in- ſcribed in a ſphere; and the number 89¾ ſhows that a cube of iron, inſcribed in a ſphere of 12 inches in diameter, weighs 89¾. The 4th is a ſphere in a cube, and the 243 expreſſes the weight in pounds of a ſphere inſcribed in a cube whoſe ſide is 12 inches: the 5th repreſents a cylinder and cone of one foot diameter and height: the number in the cylinder ſhows, that an iron cylin- der of that diameter and height weighs 364½ lb. and the number 121.5 in the cone expreſſes the weight of a cone, the diameter of whoſe baſe is 12 inches, and of the ſame height; the ſixth figure ſhows that an iron cube, whoſe ſide is 12 inches, weighs 464 lb. and that a ſquare pyramid of iron, whoſe baſe is a ſquare foot and height 12 inches, weighs 254½ lb. The numbers which have been hitherto fixed to the 4 laſt figures were not ſtrict- ly true; and therefore they have been corrected in the figure here referred to; and by theſe the figures on any inſtrument of this kind ſhould be corrected likewiſe. On the leg B of the callipers is a table ſhowing the weights of a cubic inch or foot of various bodies in pounds avoirdupoiſe. On the face D of the circular head of the calli- pers is a table contained between five concentric ſegments of rings: the inner one marked *Guns* ſhows the nature of the gun or the weight of ball it carries; the two next rings contain the quanti- ty of powder uſed for proof and ſervice to braſs guns, and the two outermoſt rings ſhow the quan- tity for proof and ſervice in iron cannon. On the face A is a table exhibiting the method of com- puting the *number of ſhot or ſhells* in a triangular, ſquare, or rectangular pile. Near this is placed a table containing the principal rules relative to the *fall of bodies*, expreſſed in an algebraic man- ner: nearer the centre we have another table of rules for raiſing water, calculated on the ſuppoſi- tion, that one horſe is equal in this kind of labour to 5 men, and that one man will raiſe a hogſhead of water to 8 feet of height in one minute, and work at that rate for ſome hours. N. B. Hogſheads are reckoned at 60 gallons. Some of the leading principles in gunnery, relating to *ſhooting* in can- non and mortars, are expreſſed on the face B of the callipers. Beſides the articles already enume- rated, the ſcales uſually marked on the ſector are laid down on this inſtrument: thus, the line of inches is placed on the edge of the callipers, or on the ſtraight borders of the faces C, D: the lo- garithmetic ſcales of numbers, fines, verſed-fines, and tangents, are placed along theſe faces near the ſtraight edges: the line of lines is placed on the ſame faces in an angular poſition, and mark- ed *Lin.* The lines of plains or ſuperfices are alſo exhibited on the faces C and D, tending towards

the centre, and marked *Plan*. Finally, the of ſolids are laid on the ſame faces tending to the centre, and diſtinguiſhed by *Sol*.

(6.) CALIBER RULE. See § 4.

CALICAPHA, in botany, a name uſed by for the white thorn. See CRATÆGUS.

* CALICE. *n. ſ.* [*calix*, Lat.] A cup; a lice.—There is a natural analogy between the lution of the body and the purification of the ſ between eating the holy bread and drinking ſacred *calice*, and a participation of the body a blood of Chriſt. *Taylor*.

* CALICO. *n. ſ.* [from *Calicut* in India.] Indian ſtuff made of cotton; ſometimes ſtain with gay and beautiful colours.—I wear the hoc petticoat, and am all in *calicoes*, when the ſine are in ſilks. *Addiſon's Spectator*.

CALICOULAN. See QUILON.

CALICULARIS, in botany, a name given by ſome to the henbane. See HYOSCIAMUS.

(1.) CALICUT, a kingdom of India, on this ſide the Ganges, upon the coaſt of Malabar. It is about 63 miles long, and equally broad. It has many woods, rivers, and marſhes, and is very populous; but does not produce much corn, a-bundance of rice being imported from Canara. The land along the ſea-coaſt is low and ſandy, and produces a number of cocoa trees. The high-er grounds produce pepper and cardamom of a very good quality; various medical drugs; tim-ber for building; white and yellow ſanders; caſ-ſia lignea; caſſia fiſtula; nux vomica, and coccu-lus indicus. The woods abound with parrots and monkeys, as well as different kinds of game. The rivers abound with fiſh, and the mountains produce iron. The *ſamorin*, or king, of Calicut, was once maſter of the coaſt of Malabar; but at his death, he left it by will among 4 of his ne-phews. He who governs Calicut has a palace of ſtone, and there is ſome appearance of grandeur about his court. He carries on a conſiderable trade, which makes the people of Calicut richer than their neighbours. In former times they had ſeveral abſurd cuſtoms, ſome of which are ſtill kept up; particularly the ſamorin's wife muſt be firſt enjoyed by the high prieſt, who may have her 3 nights if he pleaſes. The nobles permit the o-ther prieſts to take the ſame liberty, but the low-er people cannot have that *honour!* A woman may marry any number of huſbands; each of whom has her ten days or more by turns, as they agree among themſelves; and provides her all things neceſſary during that time. When ſhe proves with child, ſhe names the father; who, af-ter the child is weaned, takes care of its educa-tion. Theſe people have no pens, ink, or paper; but write with a bodkin on flags that grow by the ſides of the rivers. By this means the letters are in ſome ſenſe engraved; and ſo tough are the flags, that they will laſt for a great number of years. This was the firſt land diſcovered by the Portu-gueſe in 1498. Part of this territory was ceded to Britain in 1792 by Tippoo Saib.

(2.) CALICUT, a town of Aſia, in the above kingdom, N. 1. It was formerly the moſt flou-riſhing city on the Malabar coaſt. It contains a great number of low houſes, each of which has a gar-den. The Engliſh had a factory here, but it

ıſant breezes, render it of a moderate temature.

2.) CALIFORNIA, ANIMALS, &c. OF. This inſula is ſtocked with all ſorts of domeſtic anis known in Spain and Mexico. Among the ve animals is a ſpecies of deer of the ſize of a ng heifer, and greatly reſembling it in ſhape; head is like that of a deer, and the horns k and crooked like thoſe of a ram. The ſ is large, round, and cloven, the ſkin ſpot, but the hair thinner, and the tail ſharper n thoſe of a deer. Its fleſh is greatly eſteemed. re is another animal peculiar to this country, er and more bulky than a ſheep, but greatly mbling it in figure, and, covered with a fine k or white wool. The fleſh is nouriſhing and cious; and, nothing more is required than the uble of hunting, as theſe animals wander at in droves in the foreſts and on the mouns. Torquemado deſcribes a ſpecies of large, ſometning like a buffalo, of the ſize of a r, and nearly of the figure of a ſtag. Its hair quarter of a yard in length, its neck long and ard, and on its forehead are horns branched thoſe of a ſtag. The tail is a yard in length half a yard in breadth; and the hoofs cloven thoſe of an ox. Venegas tells us, that the ſt is plentifully ſtored with peacocks, buſds, geeſe, cranes, and moſt of the birds com- in other parts of the world. The quantity fiſh which reſort to theſe coaſts are incredible. mon, turbot, barbel, ſkate, mackerel, &c. are ght with very little trouble; together with ur and common oyſters, lobſters, and a variety exquiſite ſhell-fiſh. Plenty of turtle are alſo ght on the coaſts. On the South Sea coaſts ſome ſhell fiſh peculiar to it, and perhaps the ſt beautiful in the world; their luſtre ſurpaſg that of the fineſt pearl, and darting their rays ough a tranſparent varniſh of an elegant vivid e, like the lapis lazuli. The fame of Califor for pearls ſoon drew forth great numbers of ventiurers, who ſearched every part of the ph; and many are ſtill employed in that ſearch, twithſtanding faſhion has greatly diminiſhed the ue of this elegant natural production. Torenado obſerves that the ſea of California affords y rich pearl fiſheries; and that the HOSTIAS beds of oyſters, may be ſeen in 3 or 4 fathom ter, almoſt as plain as if they were on the ſurce. The extremity of the peninſula towards ape St Lucar is more level, temperate, and fer, than the other parts, and conſequently more ndy. In the more diſtant parts, even to the theſt miſſions on the E. coaſt, no large timber s yet been diſcovered. A ſpecies of manna is und in this country, which has all the ſweetneſs refined ſugar, but without its whiteneſs. The tives firmly believe that this juice drops from aven.

3.) CALIFORNIA, HISTORY OF. In 1526, Fernand Cortez having reduced and ſettled Mexico, tempted the conqueſt of California; but was liged to return, without even taking a ſurvey the country, a report of his death having diſſed the Mexicans to a general inſurrection. me other attempts were made by the officers of rtez, but theſe were alſo unſucceſsful; and this valuable coaſt was long neglected by the Spaniards, who, to this day, have but one ſettlement upon it. In 1595, a galleon was ſent to make new diſcoveries on the Californian ſhore; but the veſſel was unfortunately loſt. Seven years after, the count de Monteroy, then viceroy of New Spain, ſent Sebaſtian Biſcayno on the ſame deſign with two ſhips and a tender; but he made no diſcovery of importance. In 1684, the marquis de Laguna, alſo viceroy of New Spain, diſpatched two ſhips with a tender to make diſcoveries on the lake of California. He returned with an indifferent account, but was one of the firſt who aſſerted that California was not an iſland. In 1697, the Spaniards being diſcouraged by their loſſes and diſappointments, the Jeſuits ſolicited and obtained permiſſion to undertake the conqueſt of California. They arrived among the ſavages with curioſities that might amuſe them, corn for their food, and clothes for which they could not but perceive the neceſſity. The hatred theſe people bore the Spaniſh name could not ſupport itſelf againſt theſe demonſtrations of benevolence. They teſtified their acknowledgments, as much as their want of ſenſibility would permit them. The Jeſuits purſued their projects with the warmth and reſolution peculiar to their ſociety. They commenced carpenters, maſons, weavers, and huſbandmen; and by ſuch means ſucceeded in imparting knowledge, and in ſome meaſure a taſte for the uſeful arts, to this ſavage people, who have been all ſucceſſively formed into one body. In 1745, they compoſed 43 villages, ſeparated from each other by the barrenneſs of the ſoil and the want of water. The inhabitants of theſe ſmall villages ſubſiſt principally on corn and pulſe, which they cultivate; and on the fruits and domeſtic animals of Europe, the breeding of which is an object of continual attention. The Indians have each their field, and the property of what they reap; but ſuch is their want of foreſight, that they would ſquander in a day what they had gathered, if the miſſionaries did not diſtribute it to them as they ſtand in need of it. They manufacture ſome coarſe ſtuffs; and the neceſſaries they need are purchaſed with pearls, and with wine nearly reſembling that of Madeira, which they ſell to the Mexicans and to the galleons, but which experience hath ſhown the neceſſity of prohibiting in California. A few ſimple laws are ſufficient to regulate this riſing ſtate. To enforce theſe, the miſſionary chooſes the moſt intelligent perſon of the village; who is empowered to whip and impriſon; the only puniſhments of which they have any knowledge. In all California there are only two garriſons, each conſiſting of 30 men and a ſoldier with every miſſionary. Theſe troops were choſen by the legiſlators, though they are paid by the government. Were the court of Madrid to puſh their intereſt with half the zeal of the Jeſuits, California might become one of the moſt valuable of their acquiſitions, on account of the valuable articles of commerce which it contains. At preſent the little Spaniſh town near Cape St Lucar is uſed for no other purpoſe, than as a place of refreſhment for the Manilla ſhips, and the head reſidence of the miſſionaries.

(4.) CALIFORNIA, INHABITANTS OF. The Ca-

Californians are well made, and very ſtrong. They are ſaid to be extremely puſilanimous, inconſtant, ſtupid, and even inſenſible. Before the Europeans penetrated into California, the natives had no form of religion. The miſſionaries indeed tell us many tales concerning them, but they evidently bear the marks of forgery. Each nation was then an aſſemblage of ſeveral cottages more or leſs numerous, all confederated by alliances, but without any chief. They were ſtrangers even to filial obedience. No kind of dreſs was uſed by the men; but the women made uſe of ſome coverings, and were even fond of ornamenting themſelves with pearls and ſuch trinkets as the country afforded. What moſtly diſplayed their ingenuity was the conſtruction of their fiſhing nets, which are ſaid by the Jeſuits to have even exceeded in goodneſs thoſe made in Europe. They were made by the women, of a coarſe kind of flax procured from ſome plants which grow there. Their houſes were built of branches and leaves of trees; nay, many of them were only incloſures of earth and ſtone, raiſed half a yard high, without any covering; and even theſe were ſo ſmall, that they could not ſtretch themſelves at length in them. In winter they dwelt in caves under ground.

(5.) CALIFORNIA, LAKE OF GULF OF. See § 1.

CALIFORNIANS. See CALIFORNIA, § 4.

CALIGÆ, in Roman antiquity, ſoldiers ſhoes, made like ſandals, without upper leather to cover the ſuperior part of the foot, though otherwiſe reaching to the middle of the leg, and faſtened with thongs. The ſole of the caliga was of wood, like the *ſabot* of the French peaſants, and its bottom ſtuck full of nails; which are ſuppoſed to have been very long in the ſhoes of the ſcouts and ſentinels; whence theſe were called *caligæ ſpeculatoriæ*; as if by mounting the wearer to a higher pitch, they gave a greater advantage to the fight: though others will have the *caligæ ſpeculatoriæ* to have been made ſoft and woolly, to prevent their making a noiſe. From theſe *caligæ* the emperor Caligula took his name, as having been born in the army, and afterwards bred up in the habit of a ſoldier. According to Du Cange, a ſort of *caligæ* was alſo worn by monks and biſhops, when they celebrated maſs pontifically.

CALIGATI, an appellation given by ſome ancient writers to the common ſoldiers in the Roman armies, from the CALIGÆ which they wore.

CALIGATIO. See CALIGO.

* CALIGATION. *n. ſ.* [from *caligo*, Lat. to be dark.] Darkneſs; cloudineſs.—Inſtead of a diminution, or imperfect viſion, in the mole, we affirm an abolition, or total privation; inſtead of *caligation*, or dimneſs, we conclude a cecity, or blindneſs. *Brown.*

* CALIGINOUS. *adj.* [*caliginoſus*, Lat.] Obſcure; dim; full of darkneſs.

* CALIGINOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *caliginous.*] Darkneſs; obſcurity.

CALIGO, or CALIGATIO, in medicine, an opacity, or cloudineſs of the anterior ſurface of the cryſtalline, cauſing a dimneſs or ſuffuſion of ſight.

* CALIGRAPHY. *n. ſ.* [καλλιγραφία.] Beautiful writing.—This language is incapable of *caligraphy*. *Prideaux.*

CALIGULA, the Roman emperor and tyrant, began his reign A. D. 37. with every promiſing appearance of becoming the real father of his people; but at the end of 8 months he was ſeized with a fever, which, it is thought, left a ſtrong impreſſion on his mind: for his diſpoſition totally changed, and he committed the moſt atrocious acts of impiety, cruelty, and folly; ſuch as proclaiming his horſe conſul, feeding it at his table, introducing it to the temple in the veſtments of the prieſts of Jupiter, &c. and cauſing ſacrifices to be offered to himſelf, his wife, and the horſe. After having murdered many of his ſubjects with his own hand, and cauſed others to be put to death without any juſt cauſe, he was aſſaſſinated by a tribune of the people as he came out of the amphitheatre, A. D. 41, in the 29th year of his age, and the 4th of his reign.

CALIN, a compound metal, whereof the Chineſe make tea caniſters, and the like. The ingredients ſeem to be lead and tin.

(1.) * CALIPERS. See CALLIPERS.

(2.) CALIPERS. See CALIBER, § 2—5.

(1.) * CALIPH. *n. ſ.* [*khalifa*, Arab. an heir or ſucceſſor.] A title aſſumed by the ſucceſſors of Mahomet among the Saracens, who were veſted with abſolute power in affairs both religious and civil,

(2.) CALIPH. See KHALIF.

CALIPHATE. See KHALIFATE.

CALIPPIC PERIOD, in chronology, a ſeries of 76 years, perpetually recurring; which elapſed the middle of the new and full moons, as the inventor Calippus, an Athenian, imagined, return to the ſame day of the ſolar year. Meton, who years before, had invented the period, or cycle of 19 years; aſſuming the quantity of the tropical year $365d.\ 6h.\ 18'\ 56''\ 50^{3}\ 31^{4}\ 34^{5}$; and the lunar month, $29d.\ 12h.\ 45'\ 47''\ 26^{3}\ 48^{4}\ 30^{5}$: but Calippus, conſidering that the Metonic quantity of the ſolar year was not exact, multiplied Meton's period by 4, and thence aroſe a period of 76 years, called the *Calippic*. The Calippic period, therefore, contains 2,7759 days; and ſince the lunar cycle contains 235 lunations, and the *Calippic period* is quadruple of this, it contains 940 lunations. This period began in the 3d year of the 86th Olympiad, or the 4384th of the Julian period. It is demonſtrated, however, that the Calippic period itſelf is not accurate; that it does not bring the new and full moons preciſely to their places: for $5'\ 52''\ 60'''$, being the exceſs of 940 lunations above 76 ſolar years; but brings them too late by a whole day in 225 years.

CALIPPUS. See laſt article.

CALISTA. See CALLISTO.

CALISTOBLE, a river of Florida, which runs into the Gulf of Mexico.

* CALIVER. *n. ſ.* [from *caliber.*] A handgun; a harquebuſe; an old muſket —

Come, manage me your *caliver*. *Sh. Hen. IV.*

(1.) * CALIX. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A cup: a word uſed in botany; as, the *calix* of a flower.

(2.) CALIX, or CALYX. See BOTANY, *Index.*

(1.) CALIXTINS, a name given to thoſe, among the Lutherans, who follow the ſentiments of Calixtus. See CALIXTUS and SYNCRETISTS.

(2.) CALIXTINS, [from *calix*, a cup,] a ſect in Bohemia, derived from the Huſſites, about the

middle of the 15th century, who aſſerted the uſe of the cup, as eſſential to the euchariſt. They are not ranked by Romaniſts in the liſt of heretics, as in the main they ſtill adhered to the doctrine of Rome. The reformation they aimed at extended only to 4 articles: 1. To reſtore the cup to the laity: 2. To ſubject criminal clergymen to puniſhment by the civil magiſtrate: 3. To ſtrip the clergy of their lands, lordſhips, and all temporal juriſdiction: 4. To grant liberty to all capable prieſts to preach the word of God.

CALIXTUS, George, a celebrated divine, and profeſſor at Helmſtadt, in the duchy of Brunſwick, who died in 1656. He oppoſed the opinion of St Auguſtin, on predeſtination, grace, and free-will, and endeavoured to form an union among the various members of the Romiſh, Lutheran, and reformed churches; or, rather, to join them in the bonds of mutual forbearance and charity.

* *To* CALK. *v. a.* [from *calage*, Fr. hemp, with which leaks are ſtopped; or from *cælc*, Sax. the keel, *Skinner.*] To ſtop the leaks of a ſhip.—There is a great errour committed in the manner of *calking* his majeſty's ſhips; which being done with rotten oakum, is the cauſe they are leaky. *Raleigh's Eſſays.*—

So here ſome pick out bullets from the ſide;
Some drive old oakum through each ſeam and rift;
Their left-hand does the *calking* iron guide,
The rattling mallet with the right they lift.
Dryden.

CALKA, a kingdom of Tartary, in Aſia, E. of Siberia.

CALKE-ABBEY, a village near Derby.

* CALKER. *n. ſ.* [from *calk.*] The workman that ſtops the leaks of a ſhip.—The ancients of Gebal, and the wiſe men thereof, were in thee thy *calkers*; all the ſhips of the ſea, with their mariners, were in thee to occupy thy merchandize. *Ezek.* xxvii. 9.

(1.) * CALKING. *n. ſ.* A term in painting, uſed where the back ſide is covered with black lead, or red chalk, and the lines traced through on a waxed plate, wall, or other matter, by paſſing lightly over each ſtroke of the deſign with a point, which leaves an impreſſion of the colour on the plate or wall. *Chambers.*

(2.) CALKING. See CAULKING.

CALKINS, the prominent parts at the extremities of a horſe-ſhoe, bent downwards, and forged to a ſort of point. They are apt to make horſes trip; they alſo occaſion bleymes, and ruin the back ſinews. If faſhioned in form of a hare's ear, and the horn of a horſe's heel be pared a little low, they do little damage; whereas, the great ſquare calkins quite ſpoil the foot. Calkins are either ſingle or double, that is, at one end of the ſhoe, or at both: theſe laſt are deemed leſs hurtful, as the horſes can tread more even.

(1.) * CALL. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A vocal addreſs of ſummons or invitation.—

But death comes not at *call*, juſtice divine
Mends not her ſloweſt pace, for pray'rs or cries.
Milton.

But would you ſing, and rival Orpheus' ſtrain,
The wond'ring foreſts ſoon ſhould dance again:
The moving mountains hear the pow'rful *call*,
And headlong ſtreams hang liſt'ning in their fall.
Pope.

2. Requiſition authoritative and public.—It may be feared, whether our nobility would contentedly ſuffer themſelves to be always at the *call*, and to ſtand to the ſentence of a number of mean perſons. *Hooker's Preface.*—3. Divine vocation; ſummons to true religion.—

Yet he at length, time to himſelf beſt known,
Rememb'ring Abraham, by ſome wond'rous *call*,
May bring them back repentant and ſincere.
Milton.

4. A ſummons from heaven; an impulſe.—

How juſtly then will impious mortals fall,
Whoſe pride would ſoar to heav'n without a *call*?
Roſcommon.

Thoſe who to empire by dark paths aſpire,
Still plead a *call* to what they moſt deſire. *Dryd.*

—St Paul himſelf believed he did well, and that he had a *call* to it, when he perſecuted the chriſtians, whom he confidently thought in the wrong: but yet it was he, and not they, who were miſtaken. *Locke.* 5. Authority; command.—Oh! Sir, I wiſh he were within my *call*, or your's. *Denham.* 6. A demand; a claim.—Dependence is a perpetual *call* upon humanity, and a greater incitement to tenderneſs and pity, than any other motive whatſoever. *Addiſ. Spectator.* 7. An inſtrument to call birds.—For thoſe birds or beaſts were made from ſuch pipes or *calls*, as may expreſs the ſeveral tones of thoſe creatures, which are repreſented. *Wilkin's Mathematical Magick.* 8. Calling; vocation; employment.—

Now, through the land, his cure of ſouls he ſtretch'd,
And, like a primitive apoſtle, preach'd:
Still cheerful, ever conſtant to his *call*;
By many follow'd, lov'd by moſt, admir'd by all.
Dryden.

9. A nomination.—Upon the ſixteenth was held the ſerjeants feaſt at Ely place, there being nine ſerjeants of that *call*. *Bacon.*

(2.) CALL, among fowlers, the noiſe or cry of a bird, eſpecially to its young, or to its mate in coupling time. One method of catching partridges is by the natural call of a hen trained for the purpoſe, which drawing the cocks to her, they are entangled in a net. Different birds require different ſorts of calls; but moſt of them are compoſed of a pipe or reed, with a little leathern bag or purſe, ſomewhat in form of a bellows; which, by the motion given thereto, yields a noiſe like that of the ſpecies of bird to be taken. The call for partridges is formed like a boat bored through, and fitted with a pipe or ſwan's quill, &c. to be blown with the mouth, to make the noiſe of the cock partridge, which is very different from the call of the hen. Calls for quails, &c. are made of a leathern purſe in ſhape like a pear, ſtuffed with horſe-hair, and fitted at the end with the bone of a cat's, hare's, or coney's leg, formed like a flageolet. They are played, by ſqueezing the purſe in the palm of the hand, at the ſame time ſtriking on the flageolet part with the thumb, to counterfeit the call of the hen quail.

(3.) CALL,

(3.) CALL, among hunters, a leſſon blown upon the horn, to comfort the hounds.

(4.) CALL, among ſailors, a ſort of whiſtle or pipe, of ſilver or braſs, uſed by the boatſwain and his mates to ſummon the ſailors to their duty, and direct them in the different employments of the ſhip. As the call can be ſounded to various ſtrains, each of them is appropriated to ſome particular exerciſe; ſuch as hoiſting, heaving, lowering, veering away, belaying, letting go a tackle, &c. The act of winding this inſtrument is called *piping*, which is as attentively obſerved by ſailors as the beat of the drum to march, retreat, rally, charge, &c. is by ſoldiers.

(5.) CALL, an Engliſh name for the mineral called Tungſten or Wolfram by the Germans.

(6.) CALL OF THE HOUSE, in the Britiſh Parliament, is the calling over the names of the members, either to diſcover whether there be any in the houſe not returned by the clerk of the crown; or what members are abſent without leave of the houſe, or juſt cauſe. In the former caſe, every perſon anſwers to his name, and departs out of the houſe, in the order wherein he is called. In the latter, each perſon ſtands up uncovered, at the mention of his name.

(1.) * *To* CALL. *v. a.* [*cale*, Lat. *kalder*, Dan.] 1. To name, to denominate.—And God *called* the light day, and the darkneſs he *called* night. *Gen.* i. 5. 2. To ſummon, or invite, to or from any place, thing or perſon. It is often uſed with local particles; as, *up*, *down*, *in*, *out*, *off*.—Be not amazed, *call* all your ſenſes to you, defend my reputation, or bid farewel to your good life for ever. *Shakeſp.* —Why came not the ſlave back to me when I *called* him? *Shakeſp. King Lear.*—

Are you *call'd* forth from out a world of men,
To ſlay the innocent? *Shakeſp. Richard* III.

—Lodronius, that famous captain, was *called up*, and told by his ſervants, that the general was fled. *Knolles's Hiſtory.*—

Or *call up* him that left half told
The ſtory of Cambuſcan bold. *Milton.*

—Drunkenneſs *calls off* the watchmen from their towers; and then evils proceed from a looſe heart, and an untied tongue. *Taylor's Holy Living.*—The ſoul makes uſe of her memory, to *call* to mind what ſhe is to treat of. *Duppa's Rules to Devotion.*

Such fine employments our whole days divide,
The ſalutations of the morning tide
Call up the ſun; thoſe ended, to the hall
We wait the patron, here the lawyers bawl.
Dryden.

Then, by conſent, abſtain from further ſpoils,
Call off the dogs, and gather up the ſpoils. *Addiſ.*

—By the pleaſures of the imagination or fancy, I mean ſuch as ariſe from viſible objects, when we *call up* their ideas into our minds by paintings, ſtatutes, or deſcriptions. *Addiſon's Spectator.*—

Why doſt thou *call* my ſorrows *up* afreſh!
My father's name brings tears into my eyes.
Addiſon's Cato.

—I am *called off* from public diſſertations, by a domeſtic affair of great importance. *Tatler.*—Æſchylus has a tragedy entitled *Perſæ*, in which the ſhade of Darius is *called up*. *Broome on the Odyſſey.* —The paſſions *call away* the thoughts, with inceſſant importunity, toward the object that excited them. *Watts.* 3. To convoke; to ſummon together.—

Now *call* we our high court of parliament.
Shakeſpeare.

—The king being informed of much that had paſſed that night, ſent to the lord mayor to *call* a common council immediately. *Clarend.* 4. To ſummon judicially.—The king had ſent for the earl to return home, where he ſhould be *called* to account for all his miſcarriages. *Clarend.*—Once a day, eſpecially in the early years of life and ſtudy, *call* yourſelves to an account, what new ideas, what new propoſition or truth, you have gained. *Watts.* 5. To ſummon by command.—In that day did the Lord God of hoſts *call* to weeping, and to mourning, and to baldneſs, and to girding with ſackcloth. *Iſaiah* xxii. 12. 6. In the theological ſenſe, to inſpire with ardours of piety, or to ſummon into the church.—Paul, a ſervant of Jeſus Chriſt, *called* to be an apoſtle, ſeparated unto the goſpel of God. *Rom.* i. 1. 7. To invoke; to appeal to.—I *call* God for a record upon my ſoul, that, to ſpare you, I came not as yet unto Corinth. 2 *Cor.* i. 23. 8. To appeal to.—When that lord perplexed their counſels and deſigns, with inconvenient objections in law, the authority of the lord Mancheſter, who had trod the ſame paths, was ſtill *called* upon. *Clarend.* 9. To proclaim; to publiſh.—

Nor ballad-ſinger, plac'd above the croud,
Sings with a note ſo thrilling, ſweet, and loud,
Nor pariſh clerk, who *calls* the pſalm ſo clear.
Gay.

10. To excite; to put in action; to bring into view.—

He ſwells with angry pride,
And *calls* forth all his ſpots on every ſide. *Cowley.*

See Dionyſius Homer's thoughts refine,
And *call* new beauties forth from ev'ry line. *Pope.*

11. To ſtigmatize with ſome opprobrious denomination.—Deafneſs unqualifies me for all company, except friends; whom I can *call* names, if they do not ſpeak loud enough. *Swift to Pope.* 12. *To call back.* To revoke; to retract.—He alſo is wiſe, and will bring evil, and will not *call back* his words; but will ariſe againſt the houſe of the evil doers; and againſt the help of them that work iniquity. *Iſaiah* xxxi. 2. 13. *To call for.* To demand; to require; to claim.—

Madam, his majeſty doth *call for* you,
And *for* your grace, and you, my noble lord.
Shakeſpeare.

—You ſee, how men of merit are ſought after; the undeſerver may ſleep, when the man of action is *called for*. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Among them he a ſpirit of phrenſy ſent,
Who hurt their minds,
And urg'd you on, with mad deſire,
To *call* in haſte *for* their deſtroyer. *Milt. Agon.*

For maſter, or *for* ſervant, here to *call*,
Was all alike, where only two were all.
Dryden's Fables.

—He commits every ſin that his appetite *calls for*, or perhaps his conſtitution or fortune can bear. *Rogers.* 14. *To call in.* To reſume money at intereſt.—Horace deſcribes an old uſurer, as ſo charmed with the pleaſures of a country life, that, in order to make a purchaſe, he *called in* all his money;

money; but what was the event of it? why, in a very few days after, he put it out again. *Addiſon's Spect.* 15. *To call in.* To reſume any thing that is in other hands.—If clipped money be *called in* all at once, and ſtopped from paſſing by weight, I fear it will ſtop trade. *Locke.*—Neither is any thing more cruel and oppreſſive in the French government, than their practice of *calling in* their money, after they have ſunk it very low, and then coining it anew, at a higher value. *Swift.* 16. *To call in.* To ſummon together; to invite.—

The heat is paſt, follow me no farther now;
Call in the pow'rs, good couſin Weſtmoreland.
Shakeſpeare.

He fears my ſubjects loyalty,
And now muſt *call in* ſtrangers. *Denb. Sophy.* 17. *To call over.* To read aloud a liſt or muſter-roll.

(2.) * *To* CALL. *v. n.* 1. To ſtop without intention of ſtaying. This meaning probably roſe from the cuſtom of denoting one's preſence at the door by a *call;* but it is now uſed with great latitude. This ſenſe is well enough preſerved by the particles *on* or *at;* but it is forgotten, and the expreſſion made barbarous by *in.* 2. To make a ſhort viſit.—

And, as you go, *call on* my brother Quintus,
And pray him, with the tribunes, to come to me. *Ben Jonſon.*

—He ordered her to *call at* his houſe once a-week, which ſhe did for ſome time after, when he heard no more of her. *Temple.*—That I might begin as near the fountain-head as poſſible, I firſt of all *called in* at St James's. *Addiſon's Spectator.*—We *called in* at Morge, where there is an artificial port. *Addiſon on Italy.* 3. *To call on.* To ſolicit for favour, or a debt.—I would be loth to pay him before his day; what need I be ſo forward with him, that *calls* not *on* me? *Shak. Henry* IV. 4. *To call on.* To repeat ſolemnly.—

Thrice *call upon* my name, thrice beat your breaſt,
And hail me thrice to everlaſting reſt. *Dryden.*

—The Athenians, when they loſt any men at ſea, went to the ſhores, and, *calling* thrice *on* their names, raiſed a cenotaph, or empty monument, to their memories. *Broome on the Odyſſey.* 5. *To call out.* To challenge; to ſummon to fight.—

When their ſov'reign's quarrel *calls* 'em *out,*
His foes to mortal combat they defy. *Dryd. Virg.*

6. *To call upon.* To implore; to pray to.—*Call upon* me in the day of trouble; I will deliver thee, and thou ſhalt glorify me. *Pſalm* i. 15.

CALLA, AFRICAN or ETHIOPIAN ARUM: A genus of the polyandria order, in the gynandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 2d order, Piperitæ. The ſpatha is plain; the ſpadix covered with florets; there is no calyx; no petals; and the berries monoſpermous. There is but one ſpecies. It has thick, fleſhy, tuberous roots, which are covered with a thin brown ſkin, and ſtrike down many ſtrong fleſhy fibres into the ground. The leaves have footſtalks more than a foot long, which are green and ſucculent. The leaves are ſhaped like the point of an arrow; they are 8 or 9 inches long, ending in a ſharp point, which turns backward; between the leaves ariſe the footſtalk of the flower, which is thick, ſmooth, of the ſame colour as the leaves, riſes above them, and is terminated by a ſingle flower, ſhaped like thoſe of the arum; the ſpatha is twiſted at bottom, but ſpreads open at the top, and is of a pure white colour. When the flowers fade, they are ſucceeded by roundiſh fleſhy berries, compreſſed on two ſides, each containing 2 or 3 ſeeds. This plant grows naturally at the Cape of Good Hope. It propagates very faſt by off-ets, which ſhould be taken off in the end of Auguſt, at which time the old leaves decay; for at this time the roots are in their moſt inactive ſtate. They are ſo hardy as to live without any cover in mild winters, if planted in a warm border and dry ſoil; but, with a little ſhelter they may be preſerved in full growth, even in hard froſt.

CALLAA, a town of Barbary, in Tremeſen.

CALLAGHANS MILLS, a village of Ireland, in Clare county, Munſter.

CALLAGHENE, in Fermanagh, Ireland.

CALLALY HALL, a village of England, 4 m. W. of Alnwick, Northumberland.

(1.) CALLAN, a mountain of Clare, Ireland.

(2, 3.) CALLAN, two towns of Ireland; 1. in Kerry; and 2. in Kilkenny, 65 m. from Dublin.

(1.) CALLANDER, a pariſh of Scotland in Perthſhire, of which the rev. Dr James Robertſon, the miniſter, has given a very complete deſcription, in Sir J. Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* Vol. XI. The moſt probable etymology is from *Caldin-doir,* Gael. *i. e. a hazel grove;* theſe trees abounding in the pariſh. It conſiſts of the two ancient pariſhes of LENEY and INCHMAHOMO. It extends from E. to W. about 24 miles in length, and its breadth at the E. end is about 15; reſembling in form, a fan half ſpread. It is ſituated between 1°. 0′. and 1°. 24′ Lon. W. of Edinburgh, and between 56°. 15′. and 56°. 21′. Lat. N. Its ſurface is mountainous, and was formerly quite bleak with heath, but by the introduction of ſheep, has aſſumed a verdant hue within theſe 36 years. The high grounds are alſo interſperſed with thriving oak woods and plantations; and the bold ſtupendous rock above the village diverſifies the ſcene and forms a fine contraſt to the valley, and the meanderings of the river TEATH below. In a word, for beautiful ſcenery, romantic proſpects, and a diverſified aſſemblage of the wildneſs and rude grandeur of nature, few, if any places in Britain, (perhaps in the world,) excel the pariſh of Callander. See BEN-LEDI, and TROSACHS. It affords a fine field, both for the botaniſt and mineralogiſt; and abounds in lime-ſtone, marble, ſlates, free-ſtone, and a beautiful ſpecies of cemented rock, called the PLUMB-PUDDING ſtone. The climate is highly ſalubrious, and the people live to a great age. Inſtances of perſons reaching 100 and upwards are not wanting. The population in 1791 was 2100, and had increaſed 350, ſince 1755, notwithſtanding emigrations. At that period there were 350 horſes, 18,000 ſheep, and 2400 black cattle in the pariſh. Of the animals called game there are great numbers. The ſoil is a light gravel, not rich, but greatly improved, agriculture being in a very advanced ſtate, and feudal ſervices aboliſhed. The roads and bridges are good; but manufactures are greatly wanted.

The

There are 9 mills of various kinds, and 3 kilns in the parish. Wood to the value of about L. 15,000 is cut once in 25 years. The inhabitants are industrious and extremely charitable. Their language is the Gaelic. English is spoken only by those of rank and education.

(2.) CALLANDER, a thriving village in the above parish, (N. 1.) containing 190 families, and about 1000 inhabitants, in 1791. The houses are built upon a regular plan, with stones and lime, and covered with blue slates. It is ornamented with an elegant church, which was built about 24 years ago, and has a spire. It has also a good school, where the learned languages, and all the useful sciences are taught, on moderate terms. About 80 scholars from all parts of Britain, and some from abroad, attend it. The prosperity of this village is greatly owing to Mr Drummond of Perth the proprietor, who has sewed the ground to the inhabitants, in small lots of one rood each, at L. 7. 10s. premium, and 5s. yearly feu duty; and thus made the whole village the property of the inhabitants. He also allows them moss, thatch, and stones free; and has relieved them from imposts, &c. at the fairs; of which there are two great ones, held 21st March, O. S. and 16th May; besides 3 smaller, for country business. The only manufactures are the spinning of woollen and linen yarn. The village is protected from the blasts of Boreas, by a stupenduous rock, stuck full of firs and natural wood, growing in the soil between the shelves. Over this rock falls a cascade, several hundred feet high.

CALLAO, a strong town of South America, in Peru. It is the port of Lima, from which it is distant about 5 miles. The town is built on a low flat point of land on the sea-shore. It is fortified; but the fortifications were much damaged by the last great earthquake, and have not since been repaired. The town is not above 9 or 10 feet above the level of the sea. The tide does not commonly rise or fall above 5 feet. The streets are drawn in a line; but are full of dust, which is very troublesome. In a square near the sea-side are the governor's house, the viceroy's palace, the parish church, and a battery of 3 pieces of cannon. On the N. side are the warehouses for the merchandise brought from Chili, Mexico, Peru, and other places. The other churches are built with reeds, and covered with timber or clay, but they look tolerably neat. There are 5 monasteries and an hospital, though the number of families does not exceed 400. The trade of Callao is considerable. From Chili it imports cordage, leather, tallow, dried fish, and corn; from Chiloe, cedar planks, woollen manufactures, and carpets; from Peru, sugars, wines, brandy, masts, cordage, timber for shipping, cacao, tobacco and molasses; from Mexico, pitch, tar, woods for dyeing, sulphur and balsam of Peru; besides commodities from China. At the port of Callao the watering is easy, but the wood is a mile or two distant. Earthquakes are frequent and have done vast mischief to Lima and Callao. Lon. 76. 15. W. Lat. 12. 29. S.

CALLA-SUJUNG, or CALLA-SUSUNG, a town of Asia, in the island of Bouton, seated about a mile from the sea, on the top of a small hill surrounded with cocoa nut trees. See BOUTON.

* CALLAT, CALLET. *n. f.* a trull.—

He call'd her whore: a beggar, in his drink,
Could not have laid such terms upon his *callet*.
Shakespeare.

CALLE, in ancient geography, a town of Hither Spain, seated on an eminence, which hung over the river Durius. It is now called OPORTO.

CALLEN, a town of Ireland in Kilkenny, 10 m. S. W. of Kilkenny. Lon. 7. 22. W. Lat. 52. 25. N.

* CALLET. See CALLAT.

CALLEVA, in ancient British geography, a town of the Attrebates; now called WALLINGFORD. See ATREBATES, N. 2.

CALLIAS, the cousin german of Aristides the Just, but of a character the very opposite of that disinterested hero. At the battle of Marathon, Callias being a torch-bearer, and in virtue of his office, having a fillet on his head, one of the Persians took him for a king, and, falling down at his feet, discovered to him a vast quantity of gold hid in a well. Callias not only seized, and applied it to his own use, but had the cruelty to kill the poor man who discovered it to him, that he might not mention it to others; by which infamous action he entailed on his posterity the name of LACCOPLUTI, or *enriched by the well*. The only good action recorded of him is his generosity in relieving his brother-in-law, Cimon, from prison by paying the heavy fine to which he was so unjustly and ungratefully subjected by the Athenians. See ATTICA, § 9, & 11.

CALLIBLEPHARA, [from καλλος, beauty, and βλεφαρον, eye-lid,] in ancient medical writers, a name given to certain compositions intended to make the eye-lids beautiful.

CALLICARPA. See JOHNSONIA.

CALLICHTHUS, in ichthology, a name given to the ANTHIAS, a small, but beautiful fish caught in the Adriatic, and supposed to be a certain token of there being no voracious fishes near the place where it is found.

CALLICO, in commerce, a sort of cloth resembling linens made of cotton. The name is taken from that of CALICUT, the first place at which the Portuguese landed when they discovered the India trade. The Spaniards still call it *callicu*. Callicoes are of different kinds, plain, printed, painted, stained, dyed, chintz, muslins, and the like, all included under the general denomination of *callicoes*. Some of them are painted with various flowers of different colours: others are not stained, but have a stripe of gold and silver quite through the piece, and at each end is fixed a tissue of gold, silver, and silk, intermixed with flowers. The printing of callicoes was first set on foot in London about 1676, and have long been a most important article of commerce.

CALLICRATES, an ancient sculptor, who engraved some of Homer's verses on a grain of millet, made an ivory chariot that might be concealed under the wing of a fly, and an ant of ivory in which all the members were distinct. Ælian justly blames him for exerting his genius and talents in things so useless, and at the same time so difficult. He flourished about A. A. C. 472.

CALLI-

CALLIDON, a town of Ireland, in Tyrone, Ulſter, 70 m. from Dublin.

(1.) CALLIDRYS, in ornithology, a name given by Bellonius and others to the water bird called the *red-ſhank*.

(2.) CALLIDRYS NIGRA, in ornithology, a bird deſcribed by Bellonius, ſuppoſed to be the bird called the *knot*.

CALLIFORNIA. See CALIFORNIA.

CALLIGONUM, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the polyandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, Holoraceæ. The calyx is pentaphyllous, without petals or ſtyles; the fruit hiſpid and monoſpermous. There is but one ſpecies, which is found on Mount Ararat.

CALLIGRAPHUS, [from καλλος, beauty, and γραφω, I write,] anciently denoted a copyiſt, or ſcrivener, who tranſcribed fair and at length what the notaries had taken down in notes or minutes. The minutes of acts, &c. were always taken in a kind of cypher, or ſhort-hand; ſuch as the notes of Tyro in Gruter: by which means the notaries, as the Latins called them, or the σημιογραφοι and ταχυγραφοι, as the Greeks called them, were enabled to keep pace with a ſpeaker. Theſe notes being underſtood by few, were copied over fair, and at full length, by *Calligraphi*, perſons who had a good hand, for ſale, &c.

CALLIGRAPHY, the art of fair writing. Callicrates is ſaid to have written an elegant diſtich on a ſeſamum ſeed. Junius ſpeaks of a perſon, as very extraordinary, who wrote the apoſtles creed, and beginning of St John's goſpel, in the compaſs of a farthing. What would he have ſaid of our famous Peter Bale, who in 1575 wrote the Lord's prayer, creed, ten commandments, and two ſhort prayers in Latin, with his own name, motto, day of the month, year of the Lord, and reign of the queen, in the compaſs of a ſingle penny, inchaſed in a ring and border of gold, and covered with a cryſtal, all ſo accurately written as to be very legible with a magnifying glaſs?

(1.) CALLIMACHUS, a celebrated architect, painter, and ſculptor, born at Corinth, who having ſeen by accident a veſſel about which the plant called *acanthus* had raiſed its leaves, conceived the idea of forming the Corinthian capital. See ACANTHUS, and *Plate* XX. The ancients aſſure us, that he worked in marble with wonderful delicacy. He flouriſhed about A. A. C. 540.

(2.) CALLIMACHUS, a celebrated Greek poet, native of Cyrene in Libya, flouriſhed under Ptolemy Philadelphus and Ptolemy Euergetes kings of Egypt, about A. A. C. 280. He paſſed, according to Quintilian, for the prince of the Greek elegiac poets. His ſtyle is elegant, delicate, and nervous. He wrote a great number of ſmall poems, of which we have only ſome hymns and epigrams remaining. Catullus has cloſely imitated him, and tranſlated into Latin verſe his ſmall poem on the locks of Berenice. Callimachus was alſo a good grammarian and a learned critic. There is an edition of his remains, by Meſſ. Le Fevre, 4to, and another in 2 volumes 8vo with notes by Spanheim, Grævius, Bentley, &c. Dr Tytler of Brechin has tranſlated his poems into Engliſh verſe.

CALLIMUS, or CALAINUS, in phyſiology, a ſtony ſubſtance mentioned by Pliny, found in the cavity of the ÆTITES, or eagle ſtone. It fills the hollow of the ætites, much as the yoke does the white of an egg.

(1.)* CALLING. *n. ſ.* [from *call.*] 1. Vocation; profeſſion; trade.—If God has interwoven ſuch a pleaſure with our ordinary *calling*, how much ſuperiour muſt that be, which ariſes from the ſurvey of a pious life? Surely, as much as Chriſtianity is nobler than a trade. *South.*—We find ourſelves obliged to go on in honeſt induſtry in our *callings*. *Rogers.*—I cannot forbear warning you againſt endeavouring at wit in your ſermons; becauſe many of your *calling* have made themſelves ridiculous by attempting it. *Swift.*—

I left no *calling* for this idle trade;
No duty broke, no father diſobey'd. *Pope.*

2. Proper ſtation, or employment.—The Gauls found the Roman ſenators ready to die with honour in their *callings*. *Swift.* 3. Claſs of perſons united by the ſame employment or profeſſion.—It may be a caution to all chriſtian churches and magiſtrates, not to impoſe celibacy on whole *callings*, and great multitudes of men or women, who cannot be ſuppoſable to have the gift of continence. *Hammond.* 4. Divine vocation; invitation or impulſe to the true religion.—Give all diligence to make your *calling* and election ſure. 2 *Peter* i. 10.—St Peter was ignorant of the *calling* of the Gentiles. *Hakewill on Providence.*

(2.) CALLING THE HOUSE. See CALL, § 6.

CALLINICUS of Heliopolis, inventor of a compoſition to burn in the water, called the *Greek*, and ſince *Wild Fire*. See FIRE, GRECIAN.

CALLINUS of Epheſus, a very ancient Greek poet, inventor of elegiac verſe; ſome ſpecimens of which are to be found in the collection of Stobeus. He flouriſhed A. A. C. 776.

CALLION, in botany, a name given by Pliny, and ſome other authors to the ALKEKENGI, or winter cherry.

CALLIONYMUM, in botany, a name given by ſome authors to the lily of the valley. See CONVALLARIA.

CALLIONYMUS, the DRAGONET, in ichthyology, a genus of fiſhes belonging to the order of jugularies. The upper lip is doubled up; the eyes are very near each other; the membrane of the gills has ſix radii; the operculum is ſhut; the body is naked; and the belly fins are at a great diſtance from each other. There are 3 ſpecies; viz.

1. CALLIONYMUS DRACUNCULUS, with the firſt bone of the back fin ſhorter than its body, which is of a ſpotted yellow colour. It frequents the ſhores of Genoa and Rome.

2. CALLIONYMUS INDICUS has a ſmooth head, with longitudinal wrinkles; the lower jaw is a little longer than the upper one; the tongue is obtuſe and emarginated; the apertures of the gills are large: it is of a livid colour, and the anus is in the middle of the body. It is a native of Aſia.

3. CALLIONYMUS LYRA with the firſt bone of the back fin as long as the body of the animal, and a cirrhus at the anus. It is found as far N. as Norway and Spitzbergen, and as far S. as the Mediterranean ſea. It is not unfrequent on the

Scarborough coaſts, where it is taken by the hook in 30 or 40 fathoms water. It is often found in the ſtomach of the cod.

CALLIOPE, [from καλλος, beauty, and ωψ, voice,] in the Pagan mythology, the Muſe who preſides over eloquence and heroic poetry. She was fabled to have a very ſweet voice, and was reckoned the firſt of the nine ſiſters. Horace ſtiles her *Regina*. Her diſtinguiſhing office was to record the worthy actions of the living; and accordingly ſhe is repreſented with tablets in her hand.

CALLIPÆDIA, the art of getting or breeding beautiful children. We find divers rules relating to this art, in ancient and modern writers. Among the magi, a ſort of medicine called *ermeſia* was adminiſtered to pregnant women, as a means of producing a beautiful iſſue. Of this kind were the kernels of pine nuts ground with honey, myrrh, ſaffron, palm wine, and milk. The Jews are ſaid to have been ſo ſolicitous about the beauty of their children, that they had ſome very beautiful child placed at the door of the public baths, that the women at going out being ſtruck with his appearance, and retaining the idea, might all have children as fine as he. The Chineſe take ſtill greater care of their breeding women, to prevent uncouth objects of any kind from ſtriking their imagination. Muſicians are employed at night to entertain them with agreeable ſongs and odes, in which are ſet forth all the duties and comforts of a conjugal and domeſtic life; that the infant may receive good impreſſions even before it is born, and not only come forth agreeable in form of body, but be well diſpoſed in mind. Callipædia, ſeems to have been firſt erected into a juſt art by Claude Quillet de Chinon, a French abbot, who, under the fictitious name of *Calvidius Lætus*, publiſhed a fine Latin poem in 4 books, under the title of *Callipædia, ſeu de pulchræ prolis habendæ ratione;* wherein are contained all the precepts of that new art. Mr Rowe tranſlated it into Engliſh verſe.

(1.) * CALLIPERS. *n. ſ.* [Of this word I know not the etymology, nor does any thing more probable occur, than that, perhaps, the word is corrupted from *clippers*, inſtruments with which any thing is *clipped*, incloſed or embraced.] Compaſſes with bowed ſhanks.—*Callipers* meaſure the diſtance of any round, cylindrick, conical body, ſo that, when workmen uſe them, they open the two points to their deſcribed width, and turn ſo much ſtuff off the intended place, till the two points of the *callipers* ſit juſt over their work. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises.*

(2.) CALLIPERS. See CALIBER, § 1—6.

CALLIPOLIS, in ancient geography, the name of ſeveral cities of antiquity, particularly one upon the Helleſpont, next the Propontis, and oppoſite to Lampſacus in Aſia; now called GALLIPOLI.

CALLIPPIC PERIOD. See CALIPPIC.

(1.) CALLIRRHOE, in ancient geography, called alſo ENNEACRUNOS, from its 9 ſprings, a fountain not far from Athens, greatly adorned by Piſiſtratus, where there were ſeveral wells, but this was only the running ſpring.

(2.) CALLIRRHOE was alſo the name of a very fine ſpring of hot water beyond Jordan near the Dead Sea, into which it runs.

CALLISIA, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, in the triandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 6th order, Enſatæ. The calyx is triphyllous; the petals are three; the antheræ are double; and the capſule is bilocular. There is but one ſpecies, a native of America.

CALLISTHENES, the philoſopher, diſciple and relation of Ariſtotle, by whoſe deſire he accompanied Alexander the Great in his expeditions; but proving too ſevere a cenſurer of the hero's conduct, he was put by him to the torture, on ſuſpicion of a treaſonable conſpiracy, and died under it, A. A. C. 328.

CALLISTIA, in Grecian antiquity, a Leſbian feſtival, wherein the women preſented themſelves in Juno's temple, and the prize was aſſigned to the faireſt. There was another of theſe contentions at the feſtival of Ceres Eleuſinia among the Parrhaſians; and another among the Eleans, where the moſt beautiful man was preſented with a complete ſuit of armour, which he conſecrated to Minerva; to whoſe temple he walked in proceſſion, accompanied by his friends, who adorned him with ribbons, and crowned him with a garland of myrtle.

CALLISTO, in fabulous hiſtory, the daughter of Lycaon, king of Arcadia, and one of Diana's nymphs. Jupiter falling in love with her, and finding intreaty vain, aſſumed the form of Diana, and got her with child. In due time ſhe was delivered of ARCAS. Juno enraged, turned her into a ſhe bear. Mean time, Arcas grew up, and became a famous hunter when he was 15 years of age; but as he was juſt going to ſhoot his mother, not knowing her in her ſavage form, Jupiter interpoſed to prevent the parricide, and tranſlated them both to the ſtars, where they became the conſtellations, called the *greater* and *leſſer bear*. *Ovid. Metam. Lib. II. Fab.* 5.

CALLISTRATUS, an excellent Athenian orator, who was baniſhed for having obtained too great an authority in the government. Demoſthenes was ſo ſtruck with the force of his eloquence, and the glory that it procured him, that he abandoned philoſophy, and reſolved from thenceforward to apply himſelf to oratory.

CALLISTUS, John Andronicus, one of the modern Greeks, to whom the world is indebted for bringing learning into the Weſt, after the Eaſtern empire was overturned by the Turks, in 1453. He was a native of Theſſalonica, and profeſſor of peripatetic philoſophy in Conſtantinople, where he was much eſteemed for his learning. When that city was taken, he fled to Rome, where he read lectures on Ariſtotle, and afterwards removed to Florence, where he had a vaſt concourſe of diſciples: among whom were Angelus Politianus, Janus Pannonius, George Valla, and others. Towards the end of his life, he removed to France, where he died, in an advanced age, with the character of a learned and worthy man. He left ſome Greek M.SS. particularly one, in the public library at Paris, entitled *A Monody on the Miſeries of Conſtantinople.*

CALLITRICHE, or STAR-GRASS, in botany: A genus of the digynia order, in the monandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ran-

ng under the 12th order, Holoraceæ. It has no calyx, but two petals, and the capſule is bilocular and tetraſpermous.

CALLIVA. See ATREBATES, N. 2. and CALLEVA.

CALLOO, a fortreſs in the Netherlands, in the territory of Waes, on the Scheld. The Dutch were defeated here by the Spaniards in 1638. Lon. 4. 10. E. Lat. 51. 15. N.

CALLOSCOPIUM. See BELVEDERE, N. 1.

(1.) * CALLOSITY. *n. ſ.* [*calloſité*, Fr.] A kind of ſwelling without pain, like that of the ſkin by hard labour; and therefore, when wounds, or the edges of ulcers, grow ſo, they are ſaid to be callous. *Quincy.*—The ſurgeon ought to vary the diet of his patient, as he finds the fibres looſen too much, are too flaccid, and produce funguſes, or as they harden or produce *calloſities*; in the firſt caſe, wine and ſpirituous liquors are uſeful, in the laſt hurtful. *Arbuthnot on Diet.*

(2.) CALLOSITY. See CALLUS, § 2.

CALLOSUM CORPUS. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

CALLOT, James, a celebrated engraver, born at Nancy, in 1593. In his youth he travelled to Rome to learn deſigning and engraving; and from thence went to Florence, where the grand duke took him into his ſervice. After the death of that prince, Callot returned to his native country; when Henry, duke of Lorrain, ſettled a conſiderable penſion upon him. His reputation being ſoon after ſpread all over Europe, the infanta of the Netherlands drew him to Bruſſels, where he engraved the ſiege of Breda. Louis XIII. made him deſign the ſieges of Rochelle, and Rhe. Having taken Nancy in 1631, he propoſed that Callot ſhould preſent the new conqueſt, as he had already done the others: but Callot begged to be excuſed; and ſome courtiers reſolving to oblige him to do it, he anſwered, that he would ſooner cut off his thumb, than do any thing againſt the honour of his prince and country. This excuſe the king accepted; and ſaid, that the duke of Lorrain was happy in having ſuch faithful and affectionate ſubjects. Callot followed his buſineſs ſo cloſely, that, though he died at 43 years of age, he is ſaid to have left of his own execution 1500 pieces. The following are a few of the principal. 1. The *order of the innocents*; 2. The *marriage of Cana Galilee*; 3. The *paſſion of Chriſt*, on 12 very ſmall upright plates: firſt impreſſions very ſcarce. *St John in the iſland of Patmos*; 5. The *temptation of St Anthony*; 6. The *puniſhments*; the execution of ſeveral criminals. 7. The *miſeries of wars*; in 18 ſmall plates. 8. The *great fair of Florence*; 9. The *little fair, or players at bowels*; which is one of the ſcarceſt of Callot's prints; and is very difficult to meet with a fine impreſſion of it. 10. The *tilting, or the new ſtreet of Nancy*; 11. The *Garden of Nancy*; 12. *View of the Port Neuf*; 13. *View of the Louvre*; 14. *Four ſmall grapes.*

* CALLOUS. *n. ſ.* [*callus*, Lat.] 1. Indurated; hardened; having the pores ſhut up.—In progreſs of time, the ulcers became ſinous and callous, with induration of the glands. *Wiſeman.* Hardened; inſenſible.—Licentiouſneſs has ſo long paſſed for ſharpneſs of wit, and greatneſs of mind, that the conſcience is grown *callous*. *L'Eſtrange.*—

The wretch is drench'd too deep,
His ſoul is ſtupid, and his heart aſleep:
Fatten'd in vice, ſo *callous* and ſo groſs,
He ſins, and ſees not, ſenſeleſs of his loſs. *Dryd.*

* CALLOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *callous.*] 1. Hardneſs; induration of the fibres.—The oftner we uſe the organs of touching, the more of theſe ſcales are formed, and the ſkin becomes the thicker, and ſo a *callouſneſs* grows upon it. *Cheyne.* 2. Inſenſibility.—If they let go their hope of everlaſting life with willingneſs, and entertain final perdition with exultation, ought they not to be eſteemed deſtitute of common ſenſe, and abandoned to a *callouſneſs* and numbneſs of ſoul? *Bentley.*

(1.) * CALLOW. *adj.* Unfledged; naked; without feathers.—

Burſting with kindly rapture, forth diſclos'd
Their *callow* young. *Milton.*

Then, as an eagle, who, with pious care,
Was beating widely on the wing for prey,
To her now ſilent airy does repair,
And finds her *callow* infants forc'd away. *Dryd.*

How in ſmall flights they know to try their young,
And teach the *callow* child her parent's ſong. *Prior.*

(2.) CALLOW HILL, in Fermanagh, Ireland.

(3.) CALLOW HILL, near Blith, Stafford.

CALLOW-LAND, a village near Watford, Hertfordſhire.

CALLOWS, near Chippenham, Wiltſhire.

(1.) * CALLUS. *n. ſ.* [Latin.] 1. An induration of the fibres. 2. The hard ſubſtance by which broken bones are united.

(2.) CALLUS, or CALLOSITY, in a general ſenſe, is any cutaneous, corneous, or oſſeous hardneſs, whether natural or preternatural; but moſt frequently it means the callus generated about the edges of a fracture, provided by nature to preſerve the fractured bones, or divided parts, in the ſituation in which they are replaced by the ſurgeon. A callus, in this ſenſe, is a ſort of jelly, or liquid viſcous matter, that ſweats out from the ſmall arteries and bony fibres of the divided parts, and fills up the chinks or cavities between them. It firſt appears of a cartilaginous ſubſtance; but at length becomes quite bony, and joins the fractured part ſo firmly together, that the limb will often make greater reſiſtance to any external violence with this part, than with thoſe which were never broken. Callus is alſo a hard, denſe, inſenſible knob, riſing on the hands, feet, &c. by much friction and preſſure againſt hard bodies.

CALLYCHTHIS, in ichthyology, a ſpecies of the SILURUS.

(1.) * CALM. *adj.* [*calme*, Er. *kalm*, Dutch.] 1. Quiet; ſerene; not ſtormy; not tempeſtuous; applied to the elements.—

Calm was the day, and, through the trembling air,
Sweet breathing Zephyrus did ſoftly play
A gentle ſpirit, that lightly did allay
Hot Titan's beams, which then did gliſter fair. *Spenſer.*

—So shall the sea be *calm* unto us. *Jonah.* 2. Undisturbed; unruffled: applied to the passions. —It is no ways congruous, that God should be frightning men into truth, who were made to be wrought upon by *calm* evidence, and gentle methods of persuasion. *Atterbury.*—

The queen her speech with *calm* attention hears,

Her eyes restrain the silver-streaming tears. *Pope.*

(2.) * CALM. *n. s.* 1. Serenity; stillness; freedom from violent motion; used of the elements. —It seemeth most agreeable to reason, that the waters rather stood in a quiet *calm*, than that they moved with any raging or overbearing violence. *Raleigh.*—

Every pilot
Can steer the ship in *calms*; but he performs
The skilful part, can manage it in *storms*. *Denh.*

Nor God alone in the still *calm* we find,
He mounts the *storm*, and walks upon the wind.
Pope.

2. Freedom from disturbance; quiet; repose: applied to the passions.—Great and strange *calms* usually portend the most violent *storms*; and therefore, since *storms* and *calms* do always follow one another, certainly, of the two, it is much more eligible to have the *storm* first, and the *calm* afterwards: since a *calm* before a *storm* is commonly a peace of a man's own making; but a *calm* after a *storm*, a peace of God's. *South.*

(3.) CALM, the state of rest which appears in the air and sea when there is no wind stirring. A calm is more dreaded by a sea-faring man than a storm, if he has a strong ship and sea room; for under the line excessive heat sometimes produces such dead calms, that ships are obliged to stay 2 or 3 months without being able to stir one way or other. Two opposite winds will sometimes make a calm. This occurs frequently in the gulph of Mexico, at no great distance from the shore, where some gust or land wind will so poise the general easterly wind, as to produce a perfect calm. Calms are never so great on the ocean as on the Mediterranean, as the flux and reflux of the former keep the water in a continual agitation, even where there is no wind; whereas there being no tides in the latter, the calm is sometimes so dead, that the water is as clear as a looking-glass; but such calms are almost constant presages of an approaching storm. On the coasts about Smyrna, a long calm is reputed a prognostic of an earthquake. It is not uncommon for vessels to be becalmed, in the road of the constant Levantine winds, in places where they ride near the land. Thus between the two capes of Cartouche toward the main, and cape Antonio in Cuba, the sea is narrow, and there is often a calm produced by some gust of a land wind, that poises the Levantine wind, and renders the whole perfectly still for 2 or 3 days. In this case, the current that runs here is of use to the vessels, if it sets right; when it sets easterly, a ship will have a passage in 3 or 4 days to the Havannah; but if otherwise, it is often a fortnight or 3 weeks toil, the ship being embayed in the gulf of Mexico. When the weather is perfectly calm, the sailors try which way the current sets, by sending out a boat, which will ride at anchor though there is no bottom to be found, as anchor to th they row the ship, and the is about 40 lb 200 fathom; the bottom, current, and

(4.) CALM

situated in th of Cancer and note the spac riable winds, calms of long

* To CALM to quiet.—N of the Æneis lus. *Dryden.* whole bare himself in ille intestine storm —Those pass may be ent awakened.

The sacred
And *calms*
CALMAR province of S and 40 from towns, the o there remain The new fou and has larg Lat. 56. 48.

* CALME thing which ling was, aft a cheerer of *calmer* of un fions, a proc

CALMET ed and labor born at Mesn took the hab mong the m teral expositi the Old Test rical, critica literal, dictio riched with 3. A civil an vols folio. tament, and vols 12mo. history in fe

* CALMI storms, or v move violent place; so vi rity settled a

Frown on

2. Without
The ny
Serenely
Soft fell h

* CALMNESS. *n. f.* [from *calm*.] 1. Tranquillity; serenity; not storminess.—

While the steep horrid roughness of the wood
Strives with the gentle *calmness* of the flood.
Denham.

Mildness; freedom from passion.—

Sir, 'tis fit
You have strong party, to defend yourself
By *calmness*, or by absence: all's in anger.
Shakespeare.

I beg the grace,
You would lay by those terrours of your face;
Tell *calmness* to your eyes you first restore,
I am afraid, and I can beg no more. *Dryden.*

CALMUCKS. See KALMUCKS.

* CALMY. *adj.* [from *calm*.] Calm; peaceful.

And now they nigh approached to the sted,
Where as those mermaides dwelt: it was a still
And *calmy* bay, on the one side sheltered
With the broad shadow of an hoary hill.
Fairy Queen.

(1.) CALNE, a river in Wiltshire.

(2.) CALNE, a town of Wiltshire, seated on the river, N. 1. It had a palace of the W. Saxon kings. Its chief manufacture is cloth. It sends two members to parliament; and lies 32 m. W. of Marlborough, 25 E. of Bristol, and 83 W. of London. Lon. 1. 59. W. Lat. 51. 30. N.

CALNEH, in ancient geography, a city in the land of Shinar, built by Nimrod, and the last city mentioned (Gen. x. 10.) as belonging to his kingdom. It is believed to be the same with CALNO mentioned in Isaiah (x. 9.) and with CANNEH in Ezekiel (xxvii. 23.) It is observed, that it must have been situated in Mesopotamia, since these prophets join it with Haran, Eden, Assyria, and Chilmad, which carried on a trade with Tyre. It is said by the Chaldee interpreters, as well as by Eusebius and Jerom, to be the same with CTESIPHON, upon the Tigris, about 3 miles distant from Seleucia, and that for some time it was the capital city of the Parthians.

CALNO. See the last article.

CALODENDRUM, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the petandria class of plants.

CALOGERI, [καλογηροι,] in church history, monks of the Greek church, divided into 3 degrees: viz. the *archari*, or novices; the *microschemi*, or the ordinary professed; and the *megalochemi*, or more perfect: they are likewise divided into cœnobites, anchorites, and recluses. The cœnobites are employed in reciting their offices from midnight to sun-set; they are obliged to make three genuflexions at the door of the choir, and, returning, to bow to the right and to the left, to their brethren. The anchorites retire from the world, and live in hermitages in the neighbourhood of the monasteries; they cultivate a little spot of ground, and never go out but on Sundays and holidays to perform their devotions at the next monastery. The recluses shut themselves up in grottos and caverns on the tops of mountains, which they never go out of, abandoning themselves entirely to Providence: they live on the alms sent them by the neighbouring monasteries. Some reckon the CALOYERS, a branch of the Calogeri.

CALOMBAC, in the materia medica. See EXCOLGANA.

(1.) * CALOMEL. *n. f.* [*calomelas*, a chymical word.] Mercury fix times sublimed.—He repeated lenient purgatives with *calomel*, once in 3 or 4 days. *Wiseman's Surgery.*

(2.) CALOMEL, or dulcified sublimate of mercury. See PHARMACY, *Index.*

CALOPHYLLUM, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, in the polyandria class of plants: and in the natural method classed under the *Dubiæ ordo* by Linnæus. The corolla is tetrapetalous; the calyx tetraphyllous and coloured: the fruit a globose plum. There are two species, both natives of India.

* CALORIFICK. *adj.* [*calorificus*, Lat.] That which has the quality of producing heat; heating.—A *calorifick* principle is either excited within the heated body, or transferred to it, through any medium, from some other. Silver will grow hotter than the liquor it contains. *Grew.*

* CALOTTE. *n. f.* [French.] 1. A cap or coif, worn as an ecclesiastical ornament in France. 2. [In architecture.] A round cavity or depressure, in form of a cap or cup, lathed and plaistered, used to diminish the rise or elevation of a chapel, cabinet, alcove, *&c. Harris.*

CALOW, two villages; 1. in Derbyshire. S. W. of Wirksworth: 2. near Hereford.

(1.) * CALOYERS. *n. f.* [καλογηρος.] Monks of the Greek church.—Temp'rate as *caloyers* in their secret cells. *Madden on Boulter.*

(2.) CALOYERS are of the order of St Basil. A numerous body of them live on mount Athos, and never marry, though others of that church do. They abstain from flesh, and fare very hardly, their ordinary meals being olives pickled when they are ripe. They are about 6000 in all, and inhabit several parts of the mountain. They are so respected, that the Turks themselves will often send them alms. These monks are not idle like many others; but labour with the ax, spade, and sickle, dressing themselves like hermits. Formerly they had fine Greek M. SS; but they are now become so illiterate, that they can scarce read or write. They live to a great age. See CALOGERI.

CALPE, a mountain of Andalusia in Spain; at the foot of which, towards the sea, stands GIBRALTAR. It is half a league in height towards the land, and so steep that there is no approaching it on that side. It was anciently reckoned one of the pillars of Hercules.

CALPHURNIA, a female orator of ancient Rome, who pled her own causes before the senate; but is said to have proved so troublesome, that they made a law, that thence forward no woman should be allowed to plead.

CALPHURNIUS, Titus, a Latin poet of Sicily, who lived under the emperor Carus and his son. Seven of his eclogues are extant.

CALQUING, or CALKING, in painting. See CALKING, § 1.

CALSHOT CASTLE, in Hampshire, at the entrance of Southampton Bay.

CALSTOCK, a village in Cornwall, between Exeter and Truro.

CALSTON, near Market-Lavington, Wilts.

CALTHA, in botany, MARSH MARYGOLD; a genus

a genus of the monogynia order, in the poly. claſs of plants; and in the natural method ing under the 26th order, *Multiſiliquæ*. Th no calyx; there are five petals; no nectaria capſules are many, and polyſpermous. The only one ſpecies known, which grows natu in moiſt boggy lands in many parts of Eng and Scotland. There is a variety with dou flowers, which for its beauty is preferved in dens. It is propagated by parting the roots autumn. It ſhould be planted in a moiſt ſoil a ſhady ſituation; and as there are often ſuch plac in gardens where few other plants will thrive, theſe may be allowed room, and during the ſeaſon of flowering will afford an agreeable variety The flowers gathered before they expand, an preſerved in ſalted vinegar, are a good ſubſtitut for capers. The juice of the petals, boiled with alum, ſtains paper yellow. The remarkable yellowneſs of the butter in ſpring is ſuppoſed to be cauſed by this plant: but cows will not eat it, unleſs compelled by extreme hunger; and then, Boerhaave ſays, it occaſions ſuch an inflammation, that they generally die. Upon May-day, the country people ſtrew the flowers upon the pavement before their doors. Goats and ſheep eat this plant; horſes, cows, and ſwine, refuſe it.

CALTHORP, a town in Norfolkſhire, near Erpingham.

(1.) CALTON, a village in the ſuburbs of Edinburgh, immediately adjoining to the N. E. of that metropolis, and partly ſeated on the hill, (No. 3.) but very abſurdly included in the pariſh of S. Leith, from which it is a mile diſtant. By Mr Creech's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it contained 2497 inhabitants, in 1792.

(2.) CALTON, a town in Yorkſh. E. of Settle.

(3.) CALTON HILL, a hill on the N. E. of Edinburgh, on which part of the village, (No. 1.) is built, and an elegant obſervatory is erected. See EDINBURGH.

CALTRAGH, a town in Galway, Ireland.

(1.) CALTROP, in botany. See TRIBULUS.

(2.) * CALTROPS. *n. ſ.* [*caltreappe*, Sax.] 1. An inſtrument made with three ſpikes, ſo that which way ſoever it falls to the ground, one of them points upright, to wound horſes feet.—The ground about was thick ſown with *caltrops*, which very much incommoded the ſhoeleſs Moors. *Dr Addiſon's Account of Tangiers.* 2. A plant common in France, Spain, and Italy, where it grows among corn, and were very troubleſome; for the fruit being armed with ſtrong prickles, run into the feet of the cattle. This is certainly the plant mentioned in Virgil's Georgicks, under the name of *tribulus. Miller.*

(3.) CALTROPS, in military affairs, have *four* iron points, diſpoſed in an angular form, ſo that 3 of them are always on the ground, and the 4th pointing upwards. It is evident that with only 3 ſpikes (as Dr Johnſon deſcribes them, § 1. *def.* 2.) they could not anſwer. They are ſcattered over the ground where the enemy's cavalry is to paſs, in order to embarraſs them.

CALVA, or CALVARIA, [from *calvus*, bald,] the ſkull. See CALVARIA.

(1.) CALVADOS, a department of France, bounded on the E. by that of Eure; on the S. by

1.) CALVERT, a county of the United States, the Weſtern Shore of Maryland; bounded on E. by the Cheſapeak; on the N. by Anne-undel county; and on the S. and W. by the er Patuxent. It is 33¼ m. long from the mouth the Patuxent to Lion's Creek, and 19½ broad. contains 4347 free inhabitants and 4305 ſlaves. ie ſurface is hilly and the ſoil ſandy; but it pro-ces good crops of Indian corn, though the to-cco is of an inferior quality. Prince-Frederick the chief town.

2.) CALVERT, George, afterwards Lord Balti-ore, was born at Kiplin, in Yorkſhire, about 81, and educated at Oxford, where he took degree of B. A. and afterwards travelled. At return, he was made ſecretary to Sir Robert cil; he was afterwards knighted, and in 1618, pointed one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate. t after he had enjoyed that office about 5 years, reſigned it, telling king James, that he was be-me a Roman catholic, ſo that he muſt either wanting to his truſt, or violate his conſcience diſcharging his office. This ingenious confeſ-n ſo affected the king, that he continued him ivy counſellor all his reign, and created him ron Baltimore. He afterwards obtained a grant a country on the N. part of Virginia from arles I. who called it MARYLAND, in honour his queen; but he died in April 1632, aged 50, fore the patent was made out. It was, how-er, filled up to his ſon Cecil, lord Baltimore; d bears date June 20th 1632. It is held from the own as part of the manor of *Windſor*, on one gular condition, viz. to preſent two Indian ar-ws yearly, on Eaſter Tueſday, at the caſtle, here they are kept and ſhown to viſitors. His rdſhip wrote, 1. A Latin poem on the death of r Henry Upton. 2. Speeches in parliament. Various letters of ſtate. 4. The anſwer of om Tell-Truth. 5. The practice of princes. nd, 6. The lamentation of the Kirk.

CALVERTHORP, a village in Lincolnſhire, /. of Sleaford.

CALVERTON, two ſmall towns: 1. in Bucks, ne m. from Stony-Stratford: 2. in Nottingham-re S. of Sherwood Foreſt.

CALVES ISLANDS, three iſles of Ireland, on e coaſt of the county of Cork, between Cape lear and the Main.

1.) * CALVES-SNOUT. [*antirrhinum.*] A plant. napdragon.

2.) CALVES-SNOUT. See ANTIRRHINUM.

CALVET HEATH lies in Staffordſhire.

CALVET-HOUSE, near Mucker, Yorkſhire.

1.) CALVI, a ſea port of Corſica, ſeated on a mountain, on the bay, (N. 3.) 30 m. S. W. of Baſtia. was taken by Gen. Stuart, Aug. 10. 1794, after ſiege of 51 days. Lon. 9. 15. E. Lat. 42. 26. N.

2.) CALVI, a town of Naples, in Lavoro, ſitu-ed near the ſea, about 15 m. N. of Naples. Lon. 4. 45. E. Lat. 41. 25. N.

3.) CALVI BAY, or GULF, is ſituated on the W. ſide of the Iſland of Corſica.

* CALVILLE. *n. ſ.* [French.] A ſort of apple.

CALVIN, John, the celebrated reformer of the chriſtian church from Romiſh ſuperſtitions and octrinal errors, and founder of the ſect ſince called CALVINISTS, was born in 1509. He was the ſon of a cooper of Noyon in Picardy; and his real name was CHAUVIN, which he latinized into *Calvinus*, ſtyling himſelf in the title-page to his firſt work, (a Commentary on *Seneca de clementia,*) "Lucius Calvinus, Civis Romanus." This trifling circumſtance ſome have repreſented as "an early proof of his *pride;*" but it ſeems rather an evidence of his *modeſty*, in thus concealing his name under an anonymous title. At the worſt, it was but a pardonable piece of vanity, in a young author, as he was then only 24 years of age. In 1529, he was rector of Pont l'Eveque; and in 1534 he threw up this benefice, ſeparating himſelf entirely from the Romiſh church. The perſecution againſt the Proteſtants in France, with whom he was now aſſociated, obliged him to retire to Baſle in Switzerland: Here he publiſhed his famous *Inſtitutes of the Chriſtian Religion*, in 1535. The following year, he was choſen profeſſor of divinity, and one of the miniſters of the church, at Geneva. In 1537, he made all the people ſolemnly ſwear to a body of doctrines; but finding that religion had not yet had any great influence on the morals of the people, he, aſſiſted by other miniſters, declared, that ſince all their admonitions and warnings had proved unſucceſsful, they could not celebrate the holy ſacrament as long as theſe diſorders reigned; he alſo declared, that he could not ſubmit to ſome regulations made by the ſynod of Berne. Upon which the Syndics having ſummoned the people, it was ordered that Calvin and two other miniſters ſhould leave the city within two days. Upon this Calvin retired to Straſburg, where he eſtabliſhed a French church, of which he was the firſt miniſter, and was alſo choſen profeſſor of divinity there. Two years after, he was choſen to aſſiſt at the diet appointed by the emperor to meet at Worms at Ratiſbon, in order to appeaſe the troubles occaſioned by the new doctrines. He went with Bucer, and entered into a conference with Melanchon. The people of Geneva now entreated him to return; to which he conſented, and arrived at Geneva, Sept. 13th, 1541. He began with eſtabliſhing a form of eccleſiaſtical diſcipline, and a conſiſtorial juriſdiction, with the power of inflicting all kinds of canonical puniſhments. This was diſliked by many, who imagined that the papal tyranny would ſoon be revived. Calvin, however, aſſerted on all occaſions the rights of his conſiſtory with inflexible ſtrictneſs; and he cauſed Michael Servetus to be burnt at the ſtake for writing againſt the doctrine of the Trinity. But though the rigour of his proceedings ſometimes occaſioned great tumults in the city, yet nothing could ſhake his ſteadineſs. Among all the diſturbances of the commonwealth, he took care of the foreign churches in England, France, Germany, and Poland; and did more by his pen than his preſence, ſending his advice and inſtructions by letter, and writing a great number of books. This great reformer died May 27, 1564, aged 55. His works were printed together at Amſterdam in 1671, in 9 vols. folio: the principal of which are his Inſtitutions in Latin; (the beſt edit. is that of Robert Stephens in 1553, in folio;) and his Commentaries on the Holy Scriptures. Calvin is univerſally allowed to have had great talents, an excellent genius, and profound learning. His

ſtyle

ſtyle is grave and polite. His morals were exemplary; for he was pious, ſober, chaſte, laborious, and diſintereſted. But his enemies alledge, that "his memory can never be purified from the ſtain of burning Servetus." We plead not for perſecution. We grant, that "it ill became a reformer to adopt the moſt odious practice of the corrupt church of Rome." But let the age, in which he lived, plead ſome excuſe for the exceſs of his zeal. Reformation was but in its commencement. Mankind had not got rid of the idea, that *hereties* ought to be burnt. Even in our own country, in the preſent enlightened age, we find this principle is not wholly extinguiſhed. Let the people of *Birmingham* plead the cauſe of honeſt Calvin: Let the perſecutors of Prieſtley contribute at leaſt to mitigate modern obloquy, againſt the deſtroyer of the equally honeſt, but unfortunate Servetus. While we regret the fatal effects of that bigotry, from which our firſt reformers were not able entirely to diveſt themſelves, we ought never to forget, that, to theſe men we owe the dawn of that light and liberality of ſentiment, which we now enjoy; and which is daily ſpreading far and wide, to illuminate and humanize the world.

CALVINISM, the doctrine and ſentiments of Calvin and his followers. Calviniſm ſubſiſts in its greateſt purity in the city of Geneva; and from thence it was firſt propagated into Germany, France, the United Provinces, and Britain. In France it was aboliſhed by the revocation of the edict of Nantz, in 1685. It has been the prevailing religion in the United Provinces ever ſince 1571. The theological ſyſtem of Calvin was adopted, and made the public rule of faith in England, under the reign of Edward VI. and the church of Scotland was modelled by John Knox, the diſciple of Calvin, agreeably to the doctrine, rites, and form of eccleſiaſtical government, eſtabliſhed at Geneva. In England it has declined ſince the time of Queen Elizabeth; though it ſtill ſubſiſts, a little allayed, in the articles of the eſtabliſhed church. In Scotland, it continues to exiſt in its original vigour, as the eſtabliſhed religion, illuſtrated by the Confeſſion of Faith and Catechiſms; although many of the eſtabliſhed clergy, (thanks to the liberality of the age,) are far from adhering to it ſtrictly in their ſermons. The diſtinguiſhing theological tenets of Calviniſm reſpect the doctrines of PREDESTINATION, or particular ELECTION and REPROBATION, original SIN, particular REDEMPTION, effectual GRACE in regeneration, JUSTIFICATION by faith, PERSEVERANCE, and the TRINITY. See theſe articles in their order. Beſides the doctrinal part of Calvin's ſyſtem, which, ſo far as it differs from that of other reformers of the ſame period, principally regarded the abſolute decrees of God, it extended likewiſe to the diſcipline and government of the Chriſtian church, the nature of the Euchariſt, and the qualification of thoſe who were intitled to the participation of it. Calvin conſidered every church as a ſeparate and independent body, inveſted with the power of legiſlation for itſelf. He propoſed that it ſhould be governed by preſbyteries and ſynods, compoſed of clergy and laity, without biſhops, or any clerical ſubordination; and maintained, that the province of the civil magiſtrate extended only to its protection and outward accommodation. In order to facilitate an union with the Lutheran church, he acknowledged a real, though ſpiritual preſence of Chriſt, in the Euchariſt; that true Chriſtians were united to the man Chriſt in the ordinance, and that divine grace was conferred upon them, and ſealed to them, in the celebration of it; and he confined the privilege of communion to pious and regenerate believers. In France the Calviniſts are diſtinguiſhed by the names of HUGUENOTS, and PARPAILLOTS. In Germany they are confounded with the Lutherans, under the general title, *Proteſtants*; only ſometimes diſtinguiſhed by the epithet *Reformed*.

CALVINISTIC, *adj.* belonging to, or favouring of Calviniſm.

CALVINISTS, in church-hiſtory, thoſe who follow the opinions of Calvin. See CALVINISM, and CRYPTO-CALVINISTS.

CALVISIUS, Seth, a celebrated German chronologer in the beginning of the 17th century. He wrote *Elenchus calendarii Gregoriani, et dispu-lendarii melioris forma*, and other learned works together with ſome excellent treatiſes on music. He died in 1617, aged 61.

CALVITIUM, } *n. f.* Baldneſs; want of hair.
CALVITY, } See ALOPECIA, and BALDNESS, § 2.

(1.) CALUMET, a ſymbolical inſtrument of great importance among the American Indians. It is a pipe, whoſe bowl is generally made of a ſoft red marble: the tube of a very long reed, ornamented with the wings and feathers of birds. No affair of conſequence is tranſacted without the calumet. It appears in meetings of commerce or exchanges; in congreſſes for determining peace or war; and even in the very fury of a battle. The acceptance of the calumet is a mark of concurrence with the terms propoſed; as the refuſal is a certain mark of rejection. Even in the rage of a conflict this pipe is ſometimes offered; and if accepted, the weapons of deſtruction inſtantly drop from their hands, and a truce enſues. It ſeems the ſacrament of the ſavages; for no compact is ever violated which is confirmed by a whiff from this holy reed. When they treat of war, the pipe, and all its ornaments are uſually red, or ſometimes red only on one ſide. The free decorations of the calumet are for the moſt part proportioned to the quality of the perſons to whom they are preſented, and to the importance of the occaſion. The calumet of peace is different from that of war. They make uſe of the former to ſeal their alliances and treaties, to travel with ſafety, and to receive ſtrangers; but of the latter to proclaim war. It conſiſts of a red ſtone like marble, formed into a cavity reſembling the head of a tobacco pipe, and fixed to a hollow reed. They adorn it with feathers of various colours; and name it the calumet of the ſun, to which luminary they preſent it, in expectation of thereby obtaining a change of weather as often as they deſire. From the winged ornaments of the calumet, and its conciliating uſes, writers compare it to the caduceus of Mercury, which was carried by the caduceatores of peace, with terms to the hoſtile ſtates. It is ſingular, that the moſt remote nations, and the moſt oppoſite in their

ther cuſtoms and manners, ſhould in ſome things have, as it were, a certain conſent of thought. The Greeks and the Americans had the ſame idea, n the invention of the caduceus and the calumet.

(2.) CALUMET, DANCE OF THE, is a ſolemn rite mong the Indians on various occaſions. They lare not waſh themſelves in rivers in the beginning of ſummer, nor taſte of the new fruits, without erforming it; and the ſame ceremony always confirms a peace or precedes a war. It is performed in winter in their cabins, and in ſummer n the open fields. For this purpoſe they chooſe a pot among trees to ſhade them from the heat of he ſun, and lay in the middle a large mat, as a arpet, ſetting upon it the god of the chief of the ompany. On the right hand of this image they lace the calumet, as their great deity, erecting round it a kind of trophy with their arms. The our of dancing being come, thoſe who are to ſing ake the moſt honourable ſeats under the ſhade of he trees. The company is then ranged round, very one, before he ſits down, ſaluting the moon, which is done by blowing upon it the moke of their tobacco. Each perſon next receives the calumet in rotation, and holding it with oth hands, dances to the cadence of the vocal nuſic, which is accompanied with the beating of ort of drum. During this exerciſe, he gives a ignal to one of their warriors, who takes a bow, rrow, and axe, from the trophies already mentioned, and fights him; the former defending himſelf with the calumet only, and both of them lancing all the while. This mock engagement eing over, he who holds the calumet makes a peech in which he gives an account of the battles e has fought, and the priſoners he has taken, and hen receives a cloak, or ſome other preſent, from he chief of the ball. He then reſigns the calumet o another, who, having acted a ſimilar part, delivers it to a 3d, and he to a 4th, &c. till at laſt he inſtrument returns to the perſon who began he ceremony, and who preſents it to the nation nvited to the feaſt, as a mark of their friendſhip, nd a confirmation of their alliance.

CALUMNIÆ, JUDICIUM, was an action rought againſt the plaintiff in a court for a falſe nd malicious accuſation. When an accuſer did ot prove his charge, nor ſeemed to have ſufficient or probable grounds for bringing any, the udges in pronouncing ſentence uſed the formula *alumnioſus es*; which gave the defendant a right o bring an action of calumny; the penalty of which was *frontis inuſtio*, or burning on the forehead.

CALUMNIÆ JURAMENTUM. See CALUMNY, § 2.

(1.) * *To* CALUMNIATE. *v. a.* [*calumnior*, Lat.] To ſlander.—One trade or art, even thoſe that ſhould be the moſt liberal, make it their buſineſs o diſdain and *calumniate* another. *Spratt.*

(2.) * *To* CALUMNIATE. *v. n.* To accuſe falſely; to charge without juſt ground.—

Beauty, wit, high birth, deſert in ſervice,
Love, friendſhip, charity, are ſubject all
To envious and *calumniating* time. *Shakeſpeare.*

—He mixes truth with falſehood, and has not forgotten the rule of *calumniating* ſtrongly, that ſomething may remain. *Dryden's Fables, Preface.*—

Do I *calumniate!* thou ungrateful Vanoc!—
Perfidious Prince!—Is it a calumny
To ſay, that Gwendolen betroth'd to Yver,
Was by her father firſt aſſur'd to Valens.
A. Philips.

* CALUMNIATION. *n. ſ.* [from *calumniate.*] That which we call *calumniation*, is a malicious and falſe repreſentation of an enemy's words or actions, to an offenſive purpoſe. *Ayliffe.*

* CALUMNIATOR. *n. ſ.* [from *calumniate.*] A forger of accuſation; a ſlanderer.—He that would live clear of the envy and hatred of potent *calumniators*, muſt lay his finger upon his mouth, and keep his hand out of the ink-pot. *L'Eſtrange.*—At the ſame time that Virgil was celebrated by Gallus, we know that Bavius and Mœvius were his declared foes and *calumniators*. *Addiſon.*

* CALUMNIOUS. *adj.* [from *calumny.*] Slanderous; falſely reproachful.—

Virtue itſelf 'ſcapes not *calumnious* ſtrokes.
Shakeſpeare.

With *calumnious* art
Of counterfeited truth, thus held their ears. *Milt.*

(1.) * CALUMNY. *n. ſ.* [*calumnia*, Lat.] Slander; falſe charge; groundleſs accuſation; with *againſt*, or ſometimes *upon*, before the perſon accuſed.—

Be thou as chaſte as ice, as pure as ſnow,
Thou ſhalt not eſcape *calumny*. *Shakeſpeare.*

—It is a very hard *calumny upon* our ſoil or climate, to affirm, that ſo excellent a fruit will not grow here. *Temple.*

(2.) CALUMNY, OATH OF, JURAMENTUM, or rather *Juſjurandum*, CALUMNIÆ, among civilians and canoniſts, was an oath which both parties in a cauſe were obliged to take; the plaintiff that he did not bring his charge, and the defendant that he did not deny it, with a deſign to abuſe each other, but becauſe they believed their cauſe was juſt and good; that they would not deny the truth, nor create unneceſſary delays, nor offer the judge or evidence any gifts or bribes. If the plaintiff refuſed this oath, the complaint was diſmiſſed; if the defendant, it was taken *pro confeſſo*. The *juramentum calumniæ* is much diſuſed, as a great occaſion of perjury. Anciently the advocates and proctors alſo took this oath; but of late it is diſpenſed with, and thought ſufficient that they take it once for all at their firſt admiſſion to practice. See LAW, *Index.*

CALVUS, Cornelius Licinius, a celebrated Roman orator, was the friend of Catullus; and flouriſhed about A. A. C. 64. He is mentioned by Catullus, Ovid, and Horace.

(1.) * CALX. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] Any thing that is rendered reducible to powder by burning.—Gold, that is more denſe than lead, reſiſts peremptorily all the dividing power of fire; and will not be reduced into a *calx*, or lime, by ſuch operation as reduces lead into it. *Digby.*

(2.) CALX properly ſignifies LIME, but is uſed by chemiſts and phyſicians for a fine powder remaining after the calcination or corroſion of metals and other mineral ſubſtances. All metallic calces, at leaſt all thoſe made by fire, are found to weigh more than the metal from which they were originally produced. See FIRE.

(3.) CALX ANTIMONII, a name given in the late London Dispensatory to the preparation formerly called *antimonium diaphoreticum*.

(4.) CALX JOVIS, the calx of tin or putty.

(5.) CALX LUNÆ, the calx of silver.

(6.) CALX MARTIS, the crocus of iron.

(7.) CALX MERCURII, precipitated mercury.

(8.) CALX NATIVA, in natural history, a kind of marly earth, of a dead whitish colour, which, if thrown into water, makes a considerable bubbling and hissing noise, and has, without previous burning, the quality of making a cement like lime or plaster of Paris. It is found in England.

(9.) CALX OF BRASS. See ÆS USTUM.

(10.) CALX SATURNI denotes, 1. Ceruss calcined with spirit of vinegar: 2. Red-lead.

(11.) CALX SOLIS, calcined gold.

(12.) CALX VENERIS, verdigriss.

(13.) CALX VIVA, or QUICK-LIME, that whereon no water has been cast, in contradistinction to lime which has been slacked. See LIME.

(14.) CALX VIVA PHILOSOPHORUM, denotes that made of quicksilver.

CALYBITES, [*i. e.* the inhabitant of a cottage, from καλύβη, a little cot,] an appellation given to divers saints, on account of their long residence in some hut, by way of mortification.

CALYCANTHEMÆ. See BOTANY, *Index*.

CALYCANTHUS, in botany: A genus of the polygynia order, in the icosandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranked among the *Plantæ dubii ordinis*. The calyx is monophyllous, urceolate, squarrose, with small coloured leaves, the corolla consisting of the leaves on the calyx; the styles are numerous, each with a glandular stigma; the seeds are many, each with a train, within a urceolate calyx. There are two species: viz.

1. CALYCANTHUS FLORIDUS, flowering calycanthus, or Carolina allspice tree, a native of Carolina. It seldom grows, at least with us, to more than 5 feet high. It divides into many branches irregularly near the ground. It is of a brown colour, and when bruised emits a most agreeable odour. The leaves that garnish this delightful aromatic are of an oval figure, pointed, near 4 inches long, and at least 2½ broad, placed opposite by pairs on the branches. At the end of these stand the flowers of a kind of chocolate purple colour, and possessed of the opposite qualities of the bark on the branches. They stand single on their short foot-stalks, come out in May and June, and are succeeded by ripe seeds in England. The propagation of this shrub is not very difficult; though more than common care must be taken, after small plants are obtained, to preserve them till they are of a size to be ventured abroad. The last year's shoots, if laid in the ground, the bark being a little bruised, will strike root within a year, particularly if the layers are shaded, and watered in summer. In spring they should be taken off, and planted in pots; and if these are afforded a small degree of heat in a bed, they will strike so much the sooner and stronger. After they have been in this bed a month or six weeks, they should be taken out. In the heat of summer they should be placed in the shade; and if the pots are plunged into the natural ground, so much the better. At the approach of the succeeding winter's bad weather, the pots should be removed into the green-house or some shelter, and in the spring may resume their old stations: and this should be repeated till they are of a proper size and strength to be planted out to stand. If the pots in which they were first planted were small, they may be shifted into larger a spring or two after; and, when pretty strong, may be turned out of mould and all, into the places where they are to remain. By this care of potting them, and housing them during the severe weather in winter, the young crop will be preserved; otherwise, if they were planted immediately abroad, the first hard frost would destroy them all: Tanner's bark about their roots will be the most proper covering as they are at best, when full grown, but tender plants, and must have the warmest situation and the driest soil.

2. CALYCANTHUS PRÆCOX. This species is inured to the climate of Britain.

CALYCIFLORÆ. See BOTANY, *Index*.

CALYCINA, METHODUS, } a system of botanical classification,
CALYCINE METHOD, } founded upon the calyx, and published by Linnæus at Leyden, in 1738, in his *Classes Plantarum*. See BOTANY, § 48.

CALYCISTÆ. See BOTANY, *Index*.

* CALYCLE. *n. s.* [*calyculus*, Lat.] A small bud of a plant. *Dict.*

CALYCULATED, an appellation given to the fruit of those trees or plants, whose calyx does not fall, and whose fruit stands as in a cup.

CALYCULATUS CALYX. See BOTANY, *Glossary*.

CALYCULUS, in ancient naturalists, denotes a siliqua, or seed-cafe.

CALYDON, in ancient geography, a town of Æolia, situated 7½ miles from the sea, and divided by the river Evenus.

CALYDONIAN BOAR. See MELEAGER.

CALYPSO, in fabulous history, a goddess, the daughter of Oceanus and Tethys, and queen of the island, Ogygia. According to Homer, Ulysses suffered shipwreck on her coast, and staid with her several years.

CALYPSUS. See OGYGIA.

CALYPTRA. See BOTANY, *Glossary & Index*.

CALYX. See BOTANY, *Index*.

CALZADA, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, seated on the river Leglera. Lon. 2. 47. W. Lat. 42. 12. N.

(1.) CAM, [old Brit. *i. e.* crooked,] a fine winding river in Cambridgeshire, which divides the city.

(2.) CAM, a village in Gloucestershire, one mile from Durfley, inhabited chiefly by clothiers.

CAMA, a considerable river of European Russia, which runs into the Wolga.

CAMACE. See CAMASSEI.

CAMÆA, in natural history, a genus of the semi-pellucid gems approaching to the onyx structure, being composed of zones, and formed on a crystalline basis; but having their zones very broad and thick, and laid alternately one on another, with no common matter between; which are less transparent, and more debased with earth than the onyxes. There are four species: viz. 1. The dull-looking onyx, with broad black and white zones; the cornea of the moderns, and the Arabian onyx. It is found in Egypt, Arabia, Persia

Perſia, and the Eaſt Indies. 2. The dull broad-veined, green and white camæa, or the jaſpis-mixed of the Italians; found in the Eaſt Indies, and in ſome parts of America. 3. The hard camæa, with broad white and cheſnut coloured veins. 4. The hard camæa, with bluiſh, white, and fleſh-coloured broad veins, being the ſardonyx of Pliny's time, only brought from the Eaſt Indies.

CAMAHA, in the materia medica, a name given by Avicenna and others to the large muſhrooms found in the deſarts of Numidia, and many other parts of Africa. They are white, on the outſide; the modern Africans call them TERFON, and are very fond of them; they eat them with milk, water, and ſpices, and account them wholeſome and nutritive.

(1.) * CAMAIEU. *n. ſ.* [from *camachuia*, which name is given by the orientals to the onyx, when, in preparing it, they find another colour.] 1. A ſtone with various figures and repreſentations of landſkips, formed by nature. 2. [In painting.] A term uſed where there is only one colour, and where the lights and ſhadows are of gold, wrought on a golden or azure ground. This kind of work is chiefly uſed to repreſent baſſo relievos. *Chamb.*

(2—4.) CAMAIEU, or CAMAY-EU, is alſo uſed to expreſs, 1. A peculiar ſort of onyx: 2. Thoſe precious ſtones, as onyxes, cornelians, and agates, whereon the lapidaries employ their art to aid nature, and perfect thoſe repreſentations. See CAMÆA. 3. Any kind of gem, whereon figures may be engraven either indented, or in relievo. In this ſenſe the lapidaries of Paris were called in the old ſtatutes, *cutters of camayeux*. A ſociety of learned men at Florence undertook to procure all the *cameos* or *camayeux*, and intaglios in the great duke's gallery to be engraven; and began to know the heads of divers emperors in *cameos*.

(1.) CAMALDOLI, Ambroſe DE, general of the order of CAMALDOLITES, was born about A. D. 1387; entered that order at 14 years of age, and was elected general in 1431. He ſtudied Greek at Venice; and in 1437, harangued the emperor John Palæologus, in good Greek, upon a propoſed union between the two churches. He wrote many religious pieces; among which Mr Bayle ſays, "his *Hodæporicon* equally proves him to have been a very honeſt man, and to have lived in a very corrupt age." In this work he tells, that in viſiting the monaſteries he found that "moſt of the convents were *direct brothels*," and "conſiſted of *whores* inſtead of *nuns*."

(2.) CAMALDOLI, or CAMPO MALDULI, a horrible deſart of Florence, among the Apennine mountains.

CAMALDOLITES, CAMALDULIANS, or CAMALDUNIANS, } an order of religious, founded by Romuald, an Italian fanatic, in 1023, in the deſart of Camaldoli. Their rule is that of St Benedict; and their houſes, by the ſtatutes, are never to be leſs than 5 leagues from cities. The *Camaldulians* have not born that title from the beginning of their order; till the cloſe of the 11th century they were called ROMUALDINS, from the name of their founder. Till that time, *Camaldulian* was a particular name for thoſe of the deſart of Camaldoli; and D. Grandi obſerves, was not given to the whole order, in regard it was in this monaſtery that the order commenced, but becauſe the regulation was beſt maintained here. Guido Grandi, mathematician to the grand duke of Tuſcany, and a monk of this order, publiſhed *Camaldulian* Diſſertations, on the origin and eſtabliſhment of it. They were diſtinguiſhed into two claſſes, viz. COENOBITES, and EREMITES.

CAMALODUNUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Trinobantes, the firſt Roman colony of veterans in Britain. From the Itineraries it appears to have ſtood where MALDEN now ſtands. It continued to be an open place under the Romans; a place of pleaſure rather than ſtrength; adorned with ſplendid works, as a theatre and a temple of Claudius: which the Britons conſidered as badges of ſlavery, and which gave riſe to ſeveral commotions.

CAMARA, in botany, a name given by Plumier, to an American ſpecies of LANTANA.

(1.) CAMARANA, an iſland of Arabia, in the Red Sea, whoſe inhabitants are little and black. It is the beſt of all the iſlands in this ſea. Here they fiſh for coral and pearls. Lat. 15. 0. N.

(2.) CAMARANA, a town of Sicily. See CAMARINA, N. 1.

(3.) CAMARANA, a triangular lake of Sicily, ſituated in a beautiful plain, under the walls of the town, N. 2.

CAMARGUM, in ancient geography, the capital of the Nervii, a people of Gallia Belgica; now called CAMBRAY.

CAMARET, a ſea port of France, in the department of Finiſterre.

CAMARGUE, a fruitful iſland of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, *literally*, being formed by the two main arms of that river. It lies near Arles.

(1.) CAMARINA, in ancient geography, a city of Sicily, built by the Syracuſans on an eminence near the ſea, in the S. of Sicily, to the W. of the promontory Pachynum, between the rivers Hipparis and Oanus. Nothing remains but its ancient walls, a mile and a half in compaſs; with a few houſes. It is now called CAMARANA.

(2.) CAMARINA PALUS, a marſh or lake, near the city, (N. 1.) from which it took its name. In a time of drought, the ſtench of the lake produced a peſtilence; upon which the inhabitants conſulted the oracle, whether they ſhould not drain it. The oracle diſſuaded them: they notwithſtanding drained it, and opened a way for their enemies to come and plunder their city: hence the proverb, *Ne moveas Camarinam*, that is, not to remove one evil to bring on a greater. It is now called *Lago di* CAMARANA.

CAMARON, a river of S. Wales, in Radnorſhire.

(1.) CAMAROSIS, [from καμαρόω, I arch over,] in architecture, denotes an elevation with an arch or vault.

(2.) CAMAROSIS, in ſurgery, denotes a fracture of a bone, wherein the two broken ends riſe and form a kind of arch. It is chiefly applied to fractures in the ſkull.

CAMASSEI, or CAMACE, Andrew, painter of hiſtory and landſcape, was born at Bevagna, and ſtudied under Dominichino and Sacchi. He was

employed in St Peter's at Rome, and at John Lateran; and his works are much admired for sweetneſs of colouring, and delicacy of pencil. He died in the bloom of life, when his reputation was daily advancing; A. D. 1657.

CAMAY-EU. See CAMAIEU, § 2—4.

(1.) CAMBA, a province and peninſula of Indoſtan, more commonly called GUZERAT.

(2.) CAMBA, CAMBAIA, or CAMPAY, a large city of Indoſtan, capital of the province, N. 1. It is ſeated at the bottom of the gulf, N. 3. on a ſmall river; and has high walls with a pretty good trade. Its manufactures are inferior to few in India. It abounds in corn, cattle, and ſilk; and cornelians and agates are found in its rivers. The inhabitants are noted for embroidery; and ſome of their quilts have been valued at L.40 It is ſubject to the Poona Mahrattas, and is 57 m. S. of Amedabad, to which it is the port. Lon. 72. 10. E, Lat. 22. 25. N.

(3.) CAMBA, GULF OF, a deep and dangerous gulf of Indoſtan.

CAMBAHEE, a conſiderable river of South Carolina, formed by the junction of two large ſtreams which riſe in Orangeburg, and after paſſing into Charleſton diſtrict, unite, and running S. E. enter St Helena Sound, a little to the S. W. of Aſhepoo.

CAMBAIA. See CAMBA, N. 2.

CAMBAS, a village in Pembrokeſh. 3 m. from Haverford Weſt. It has fairs Feb. 13. and Nov. 22.

CAMBAYES, in commerce, cotton cloths made at Bengal, Madras, and ſome other places on the coaſt of Coromandel. They are proper for the trade of Marſeilles, whither the Engliſh at Madraſs ſent great numbers of them. Many alſo of them are imported to Holland.

(1.) CAMBER, in fabulous Britiſh hiſtory, the 1ſt prince of CAMBRIA, or Wales. See BRUTUS, N. 3.

(2.) * CAMBER. *n. ſ.* [See CAMBERING.] A term among workmen.—*Camber*, a piece of timber cut arching, ſo as a weight conſiderable being ſet upon it, it may, in length of time, be induced to a ſtraight. *Moxon's Mechanical Exerciſes.*

(3.) CAMBER BEAMS, (§ 2.) are commonly uſed in platforms, as church-leads, and on other occaſions, where long and ſtrong beams are required.

CAMBERED is applied to the deck or flooring of a ſhip when it is higher in the middle of the ſhip's length, and drops toward the ſtem and ſtern. Alſo when it lies irregular; a circumſtance which renders the ſhip very unfit for war.

CAMBERG, a town of Germany, in the Palatinate of the Rhine, near which Gen. Championet defeated a numerous body of Auſtrians, in July, 1796, with great ſlaughter; 35 waggon loads of their wounded having been collected after the battle.

* CAMBERING. *n. ſ.* A word mentioned by *Skinner*, as peculiar to ſhipbuilders, who ſay that a place is *cambering*, when they mean arched! (from *chambre*, French.)

CAMBERLOW GREEN is ſituated in Hertfordſhire, between Baldock and Buntingford.

CAMBERT, a French muſician of the 17th century, much admired for the manner in which he touched the organ. He became ſuperintendant of muſic to Anne of Auſtria, the queen-mother. The abbe Perin aſſociated him in the privilege he obtained of ſetting up an opera in 166. Cambert ſet to muſic two paſtorals, one entitled *Pomona*, the other *Ariadne*, which were the firſt operas given in France. He alſo wrote a piece entitled *The Pains and Pleaſures of Love*. Theſe pieces pleaſed the public; yet, in 1672, Lully obtaining the privilege of the opera, Cambert came to England, where he became ſuperintendant of muſic to king Charles II. and died in 16..

CAMBERTON, a town in Herefordſhire, between Leominſter and Shropſhire.

CAMBERWELL, in Surry 2 m. S.S.E. of Lond.

CAMBIO, an Italian word which ſignifies *exchange*; commonly uſed in Holland, and ſome parts of France.

CAMBIST, a name given in France to thoſe who trade in notes and bills of exchange. The word, though a term of antiquity, is ſtill uſed among merchants, traders, and bankers. Some derive it from CAMBIO.

CAMBLET. See CAMELOT.

(1.) CAMBODIA, a kingdom of Aſia, in the Eaſt Indies, bounded on the N. by the kingdom of Laos, on the E. by the kingdom of Cochin-China and Chiapa, and on the S. and W. by the gulf and kingdom of Siam; divided by a large river called MECON. This country is annually overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon, between June and October; and its productions and fruits are much the ſame with thoſe uſually found between the tropics.

(2.) CAMBODIA, a river in the kingdom, N. 1.

(3.) CAMBODIA, the capital of the kingdom (N. 1.) ſeated on the W. ſhore of the river Mecon, about 150 miles N. of its mouth. Lon. 104. 15. E. Lat. 13. 10. N.

(1.) CAMBODUNUM, an ancient town of the Brigantes, in Britain; now called WEST CHESTER, but in ruins.

(2.) CAMBODUNUM, an ancient town of Vindelicia in Suabia, ſeated on the Cambus, now called KEMPTON.

CAMBOGIA, in Botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 39th order, Tricoccæ. The corolla is tetrapetalous; the calyx tetraphyllous; and the fruit is a pome with 8 cells, and ſolitary ſeeds. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

CAMBOGIA GUTTA, a native of India. It yields the gum reſin known by the name of GAMBOGE.

CAMBORITUM. See CAMBRIDGE, N. 2.

CAMBORN, a town near Redruth, Cornwall.

CAMBRASINES, in commerce, fine linen made in Egypt, of which there is a conſiderable trade at Cairo, Alexandria, and Raſchit. They are ſo called from their reſemblance to cambric.

(1.) CAMBRAY, a town of France in the department of the North, and the chief place of the Cambreſis, ſeated on the Scheld. It is defended by good fortifications, and has a fort on the ſide of the river; and as the land is low on that ſide, they can lay the adjacent parts under water by means of ſluices. Its ditches are large and deep, and thoſe of the citadel are cut into a

ck. Clodion became maſter of Cambray in 445. The Danes burnt it afterwards; ſince which time became a free imperial city. It has been the ubject of conteſt between the emperors, the ings of France, and the earls of Flanders. Fran-is I. let it remain neutral during the war with harles V. but this laſt took poſſeſſion of it in 1543, fter this it was given by Henry III. of France, o John of Montluc whom he created pri ce f Cambray; but the Spaniards took it from Mont-ic in 1593, which broke his heart. It continued nder the dominion of the Houſe of Auſtria, till 67, when the king of France became maſter of , and it has continued ever ſince annexed to rance. The buildings of Cambray are tolerably andſome, and the ſtreets fine and ſpacious. The lace or ſquare for arms is of an extraordinary reeneſs, and capable of receiving the whole gar-ſon in order of battle. The cathedral is one f the fineſt in Europe. The body of the church very large, and there are rich chapels, the pil-rs of which are adorned with marble tombs of xquiſite workmanſhip, which add greatly to the eauty of the place. There are two galleries, one f which is of copper, finely wrought. The door f the choir is of the ſame metal, and well carved. he ſteeple of this church is very high, and built i the form of a pyramid; and its top affords a iew of the city, which is one of the fineſt in the etherlands. The citadel is very advantageouſly tuated on high ground, and commands the whole ty. Cambray is one of the moſt opulent and ommercial cities in the French Netherlands; and akes every year a great number of pieces of mbric, with which the inhabitants drive a great ade. Lon. 3. 20. E. Lat. 50. 13. N.

(2.) CAMBRAY, M. de Fenelon, Abp. of. See FENELON.

(3.) CAMBRAY. See CIMBRES.

CAMBRESIS, a ci-devant province of France, i the Netherlands, about 25 miles in length. It as bounded on the N. and E. by Hainhault, on e S. by Picardy, and on the W. by Artois. It a very fertile and populous country; and the habitants are induſtrious, active, and ingenious. s trade conſiſts principally of corn, ſheep, very e wool, and fine linen cloth. Cambray was the pital. It is now included in the department of e North.

CAMBRIA, the ancient name of Wales.

(1.) * CAMBRICK. *n. ſ.* [from *Cambray*, a city Flanders, where it was principally made.] A nd of fine linen, uſed for ruffles, womens ſleeves, d caps.—He hath ribbons of all colours of the inbow; inkles, caddiſes, *cambricks*, and lawns. *akeſpeare.*—Rebecca had, by the uſe of a look-g glaſs, and by the further uſe of a certain at-e, made of *cambrick*, upon her head, attained an evil art. *Tatler.*—

Confed'rate in the cheat, they draw the throng, And *cambrick* handkerchiefs reward the ſong. *Gay.*

(2.) CAMBRICS are now made at other places France, beſides Cambray. This manufacture s long proved of extraordinary advantage to ance. For many years it appeared, that Eng-d did not in this article contribute leſs than ,000l. per annum to the intereſt of France. This induced the Britiſh parliament to enact many ſalutary laws to prevent this great loſs of our wealth. See 18 Geo. II. c. 36: and 21 Geo. II. c. 26. See alſo 32 Geo. II. c. 32: and 4 Geo. III. c. 37. which regulates the cambric manufactory, not long ago introduced into Winchelſea in Suſſex; but very ſoon aboliſhed. The cambrics now allowed in this country are manufactured in Scotland and Ireland. Any perſons convicted of wearing, ſelling (except for exportation,) or making up for hire any French cambrics or lawns, are liable to a penalty of 5l. by the two firſt ſtatutes cited above.

(1.) CAMBRIDGE, or CAMBRIDGE-SHIRE, a county of England, bounded on the E. by Norfolk, on the S. by Eſſex and Hertfordſhire, on the W. by Bedfordſhire and Huntingdonſhire, and on the N. by Lincolnſhire. It is about 50 miles long, from N. to S. and 25 broad, from E. to W. and 130 in circumference. It lies in the dioceſe of Ely; and ſends ſix members to parliament, the county, the univerſity, and the town electing two each. The air is very different in different parts of the county. In the fens it is moiſt and foggy, and therefore not ſo wholeſome; but in the S. and E. parts it is very good, theſe being much drier than the other: but both, by late improvements, have been rendered very fruitful, the former by draining, and the latter by cinque-foil: ſo that it produces plenty of corn, barley, ſaffron, and hemp, and affords the richeſt paſtures. The rivers abound with fiſh, and the fens with wild fowl. The principal manufactures of the county are malt, pepper, and baſkets. The chief rivers are the Ouſe, which divides the country into two parts, and is navigable to Lynn in Norfolk; the Cam, the Welland, the Glene, the Witham, and the Peterborough, which is navigable from Wiſbech. Part of the fens, called *Bedford level*, lie in this county. See BEDFORD, N. 7. and ELY. This county is divided into 17 hundreds, 7 market towns, and 163 pariſhes. It contains about 17,400 houſes; and 570,000 acres of ground. Of theſe, it appears from Mr Vancouver's report to the BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, there are no fewer than 319,300 either lying quite waſte, or unimproved, in fens, commons, meadows, and inferior paſture. The probable increaſe of value of theſe lands, by improvement, on the loweſt calculation, is ſtated by Sir J. Sinclair in his addreſs to the Board, (29th July, 1794,) at L. 146,263: 10ſh. which would furniſh ſubſiſtence to 43,800 additional inhabitants. And Cambridge-ſhire being eſtimated by the celebrated Dr Halley to be a 70th part of England and Wales, Sir John, from theſe data, calculates the probable extent to which improvements may be carried on, in the kingdom at large, to amount to no leſs, within 30 years, than an addition of L. 905,215,500 to the national capital, and of 3,017,385 ſouls, to the population of Great Britain. See BOARD, N. VII. § 7.

(2.) CAMBRIDGE, the capital of the county, N. 1. It takes its name from the bridge over the CAM, which divides the town into two parts. Either it or a place in the neighbourhood was ſtyled CAMBORITUM in the time of the Romans. It ſuffered much during the wars with the Danes. It had a caſtle built by William the Conqueror, of

of which the gatehouſe yet remains, and forms the county goal. By Doomſday book it appears, that it had then ten wards, containing 387 houſes. In William Rufus's reign it was quite deſtroyed by Roger de Montgomery; but Henry I. beſtowed many privileges upon it, particularly an exemption from the power of the ſheriff, on condition of its paying yearly into the exchequer 100 merks (equivalent to L. 1000 now,) and from tolls, laſtage, pontage, paſſage, and ſtallage, in all fairs of his dominions. There is a ditch ſtill called the *King's Ditch*, made by Henry III. during the wars with the barons, to ſecure it againſt the rebels in the iſle of Ely. The place now called the *Jewry* was formerly inhabited by Jews. The market-place is ſituated in the middle of the town, and conſiſts of two oblong ſquares united together; at the top of the angle ſtands the ſhire hall, lately erected at the expence of the county. In the market-place, fronting the county hall, is a remarkable handſome ſtone conduit, to which water is conveyed by an aqueduct, which was the benefaction of the celebrated *Hobſon*, a carrier, in the reign of James I. who was a native of this town. The town is governed by a mayor, high ſteward, recorder, 13 aldermen, of whom the mayor is one, 24 common council men, a town clerk, and other inferior officers. It has 14 pariſh churches, and is pretty large; but the ſituation is low and dirty. George I. was created duke of Cambridge before he ſucceeded to the throne; and the title has remained in the crown ever ſince. The number of inhabitants is computed at 6000, and that of houſes at 1200. Cambridge has a market every Wed. and Sat. and two great fairs; the one at Midſummer day, which laſts 7 days; and the other Sept. 18, which laſts 14. It lies 28 m. E. by N. from Bedford; 80 E. N. E. of Oxford; 17 S. of Ely, and 51 N. by E. of London. Lon. 0. 9. E. Lat. 52. 13. N. See farther, § 10.

(3.) CAMBRIDGE, a village of Glouceſterſhire, near Berkeley, on the river Cam. Here the Danes were attacked by Edward the Elder, and ſome thouſands of them were killed.

(4.) CAMBRIDGE, a poſt town of the United States, in South Carolina, and the capital of the diſtrict of Ninety-Six. It is ſituated in Abbeville county, 80 miles W. N. W. of Columbia, 165 N. W. of Charleſton, and 50 N. by W. of Auguſta, in Georgia. It contains about 60 dwellings, a court-houſe, a brick jail, and a college, lately inſtituted. A diſtrict court is held on the 26th of April and November, and a county court for Abbeville county, on the 25th of March, and 24th of Sept. It is 745 miles from Philadelphia.

(5.) CAMBRIDGE, one of the largeſt and moſt flouriſhing towns of Middleſex county, Maſſachuſetts. It is agreeably ſituated on the N. ſide of Charles river, over which a bridge has lately been erected connecting Boſton with this town. It contains, beſides Harvard univerſity, about 100 dwellings, a congregational, and an Epiſcopalian church, alſo a court-houſe. Harvard univerſity conſiſts of 4 large, ſpacious edifices, built of brick, named Harvard, Hollis, Stoughton, and Maſſachuſetts hall. Harvard hall is divided into ſix apartments, one of which is appropriated for the library, two for the philoſophical apparatus, or for the muſeum, a fifth for a refectory, and the other for a chapel. The library contains upwards of 13,000 volumes. The philoſophical apparatus has coſt nearly L. 1,500, and is one of the completeſt on the American continent. This univerſity was firſt inſtituted in 1636, and was no more than an academic free-ſchool; two years after, in conſequence of a donation left it by the rev. Mr. Harvard of Charleſtown, who died there, it was named Harvard college. In 1650, its firſt charter was obtained from the government of Maſſachuſetts; and in the mean time it received ſeveral donations from learned men in Europe. The governor, lieutenant-governor, the council and ſenate, the preſident of the univerſity, and the congregational miniſters of the ſix adjoining towns are, during office, overſeers of the univerſity. The corporation is a diſtinct body, in whom are veſted the property of the univerſity. The number of thoſe who had been admitted to academical degrees, from its firſt eſtabliſhment, to July, 1793, was 3,360. The uſual number of reſident ſtudents, is from 130 to 160. A ſupreme court is held here, the laſt Tueſ. in Oct. and a court of common pleas, the laſt Tueſ. in Nov. It is 5 miles from Philadelphia. Lon. 70. 45. W. Lat. 42. 25. N.

(6.) CAMBRIDGE, the chief town of Dorcheſter county, Eaſtern ſhore of Maryland. It is ſituated on the S. ſide of Choptank river, about 15 miles from its mouth: the river is here near two miles wide. It contains about 50 houſes, a church, and 300 inhabitants. The ſituation of the town is healthy and agreeable. It is 18 miles N. W. by W. of Vienna, 37 S. of Eaſton, and 152 S. S. W. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 59. W. Lat. 38. 34. N.

(7.) CAMBRIDGE HEATH, near Hackney, Middleſex.

(8.) CAMBRIDGE MANUSCRIPT, a copy of the Goſpels and Acts of the Apoſtles in Greek and Latin. Beza found it in the monaſtery of Irenæus at Lyons in 1562, and gave it to the univerſity of Cambridge in 1582. It is a 4to, and written on vellum; 66 leaves of it are much torn and mutilated, and 10 of theſe are ſupplied by a later tranſcriber. Beza conjectures, that this MS. may have been wrote ſo early as the time of Irenæus. Wetſtein apprehends, that it either returned or was firſt brought from Egypt into France; that it is the ſame copy which Druthmar, an ancient expoſitor, who lived about A. D. 840, had ſeen, and which, he obſerves, was aſcribed to St Hilary, and that R. Stephens had given a particular account of it in his edition of the New Teſtament in 1550. It is uſually called *Stevens's fourth manuſcript*. Mill agrees with F. Simon, that it was written in the weſtern part of the world by a Latin ſcribe, and that it is to a great degree interpolated and corrupted: he obſerves, that it agrees ſo much with the Latin Vulgate, as to afford a reaſon for concluding, that it was corrected or formed upon a corrupt and faulty copy of that tranſlation. From this and the Clermont copy of St Paul's Epiſtles, Beza publiſhed his larger Annotations in 1582.

(9.) CAMBRIDGE-SHIRE. See N. 1.

(10.) CAMBRIDGE, UNIVERSITY OF. In the

ellion of Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, in the reign of ichard II. the univerſity records were burnt. It , therefore quite uncertain when this celebrated NIVERSITY, which is the glory of Cambridge, as firſt founded. It is ſuppoſed, however, to ave been erected during the Heptarchy. At rſt there was no public proviſion for the accommodation or maintenance of the ſcholars; nt afterwards inns began to be erected by ious perſons for their reception, and in the me of Edward I. colleges began to be built nd endowed. The univerſity enjoys great priileges. It is governed by a chancellor, who is ways a nobleman, and has a commiſſary under im, but may be changed every 3d year; a high ward, choſen by the ſenate; a vice-chancellor, hoſen by the whole body of the univerſity, out f two named by the heads of the colleges; two roctors choſen every year, and two taxers, who, ith the proctors, regulate the weights and meaures. The other officers are, a regiſter or keepr of the archives, 3 eſquire beadles, one yeoman adle, and a library-keeper, &c. The univerſi conſiſts of 12 colleges and 4 halls. Each colge has its ſchools and library, as at Oxford, of hich thoſe of Trinity and St John are the moſt nſiderable. King George I. purchaſed the liary of Dr Moor, biſhop of Ely, conſiſting of 30 volumes, for L. 1000, and made a preſent it to the univerſity; which, out of gratitude, ected, in 1739, a fine marble ſtatue of that prince the ſenate hall of king's college. A profeſſor modern languages and hiſtory was alſo eſtabliſhd here, with a ſalary of 400l. for himſelf and ro to teach under him, by king George I. in 24. Oppoſite to the ſtatue of king George I. another, on the S. ſide, of George II. erected 1765, by the duke of Newcaſtle: at the E. end, each ſide of the entrance, are two others; one, the late duke of Somerſet; the other, an emematical figure of Glory. The large room in e ſenate hall, where thoſe ſtatues are erected, is owed to be the moſt ſuperb room in England, ing 101 feet long, 42 broad, and 32 high; and has a gallery which can contain 1000 perſons. his building forms the N. ſide of a quadrangle, the ſchools and public library do the W. the ools being the ground floor, and the library er them ſurrounding a ſmall court. North of philoſophy ſchool is the repoſitory of Dr oodward's foſſils, ores, ſhells, &c. The doe, together with that collection and a part of library, left a ſum of money, in 1728, for eſting a profeſſorſhip for natural philoſophy, with proviſion of 150l. a-year for ever. At the S. E. ner of this building is an elegant geometrical ne ſtair-caſe which leads to the old library, and nſiſts of 18 claſſes; at the end of which is an ele nt ſquare room, in which are depoſited the M.SS. d a valuable collection of oriental books and rioſities. The maſter and fellows of Catherineall are truſtees of an hoſpital for the cure of poor eaſed people gratis; for the building and furhing of which, Dr Addenbroke left 4000l. Each llege has its chapel for worſhip; but public ſerons are preached at St Mary's church. The oſt remarkable ſtructures are, 1. The chapel of g's college, which for contrivance and extent, fine carved work in wood and ſtone, and painted windows, is hardly to be equalled in the world. It is entirely of free ſtone, roof and all, without one pillar to ſupport it. 2. Trinity-college and library, wonderful both for the deſign and execution. A fellowſhip was founded at Magdalen college, called *the travelling Norfolk fellowſhip*, becauſe it is appropriated to gentlemen of that country. Any perſon that is qualified, may borrow whatever book he has occaſion for, from the libraries at Cambridge. The privilege of ſending members to parliament was firſt granted to the univerſity by James I. The different colleges in the univerſity are, 1. St Peter's, the moſt ancient, and the firſt on entering the town from London. It conſiſts of two courts, ſeparated by a cloiſter and gallery: the largeſt 144 feet long, and 84 broad. The leſſer court is divided by the chapel, which is a fine old building 54 feet long, 27 broad, and 27 high. This college was founded in 1257. There are 3 colleges in Oxford which diſpute the antiquity with this. Cambridge and Oxford were univerſities long before they were poſſeſſed of any colleges in their own right, the ſtudents then lodging and boarding with the townſmen, and they then hired hotels for their exerciſes and diſputations. A hotel or hall, now denominated *Pythagoras's ſchool*, ſituated on the W. ſide of the river, is one of the ancient hotels that remains undemoliſhed, and in which Eraſmus read his firſt Greek lectures in England. 2. Clare-hall, on the bank of the river, over which it has an elegant ſtone bridge, was founded 1326, conſiſting of one grand court 150 feet long, and 111 broad. The front of this building, that faces the fields, has the appearance of a palace. To this college a new chapel has been added. 3. Pembroke-hall is near St Peter's college, was founded in 1343, and conſiſts of two courts. It has an elegant chapel built by Sir Chriſtopher Wren. 4. Corpus Chriſti or Bennet college, founded in 1530, has but a mean appearance, but is poſſeſſed of a remarkably large collection of valuable and curious ancient M.SS. 5. Trinity-hall, on the N. of Clare-hall, near the river, was founded in 1352; it is a ſmall but remarkably neat building. 6. Gonvil and Caius college is near the middle of the town, north of the ſenate-houſe, and has three courts. It was founded in 1348, and augmented in 1557. 7. King's college, the moſt noble foundation in Europe, was firſt endowed by Henry VI. The old court reſembles a decayed caſtle more than a college. The new building is very magnificent, near 300 feet long. The chapel is one of the fineſt pieces of Gothic architecture now remaining in the world. It is 304 feet long, 73 broad on the outſide and 40 within, and 91 high; and yet not a ſingle pillar to ſuſtain its ponderous roofs, of which it has two: the firſt is of ſtone, moſt curiouſly carved; the other of wood, covered with lead, between which is a vacancy of 10 feet. There is ſuch a profuſion of carving both within and without as is no where to be equalled. Henry VII. enlarged it 188 feet in length, and Henry VIII. gave the elegant ſtalls and organ gallery, with its inimitable carvings, where are the coats of arms of that king and thoſe of Anne Boleyn quartered. He gave alſo the elegant painted glaſs windows,

windows, which are in fine preſervation, and were permitted by Cromwell to be preſerved, when almoſt every other in England was deſtroyed; as he had a particular regard for this univerſity, where he had his education, and for the town which he had repreſented in parliament. A new altar has been lately erected, and correſponds with the architecture of the building, embelliſhed with an antique painting of Chriſt taking down from the croſs, purchaſed in Italy, and preſented to the college by the earl of Carliſle. In this chapel are put up the Spaniſh colours taken at the reduction of Manilla by Colonel Draper, a member of this college. This college has an ancient ſtone bridge over the Cam. 8. Queen's college, near the river, ſouth of King's, was founded 1448, and conſiſts of two courts, with a fine grove and gardens on both ſides of the river, connected with each other and the college by two wooden bridges, one of which is of a curious ſtructure. 9. Catharine-hall, is E. of Queen's, and its principal front on the W. the moſt extenſive and regular in the univerſity. It contains only one court 180 feet long and 120 broad, and was founded in 1475. 10. Jeſus college is at the E. end of the town, ſurrounded by groves and gardens. The principal front faces the S. 180 feet long, regularly built and faſhed; it was originally a Benedictine convent, and converted to its preſent uſe in 1576. 11. Chriſt's college is oppoſite to St Andrew's church, on the E. ſide of the town; and was founded by Henry VII's mother in 1505. It has lately had a thorough repair, and is now a neat and beautiful ſtructure. 12. St John's college was founded by the ſame lady in 1509, on the ſite of a diſſolved priory. It conſiſts of 3 courts, and has a large library filled with ſcarce and valuable books. To this college belongs a fine ſtone bridge over the river, which leads to their grand walks. 13. Magdalen college, the only one that ſtands on the N. ſide of the river, near the great bridge, conſiſts of two courts, and was founded in 1519. 14. Trinity college is eaſt of the river, having St John's college on the N. and Caius college and Trinity-hall on the S. It contains two large quadrangles, the firſt of which is 344 feet long, and 280 broad. It has two noble entrances; and on the N. ſide of it is the chapel 204 feet long, 34 broad, and 44 high. It has every grand ornament, and the much admired ſtatue of Sir Iſaac Newton, who was a ſtudent in this college. The hall is above 100 feet long, 40 broad, and 50 high. The inner court is eſteemed the fineſt in the univerſity, and ſurpaſſes any in Oxford. It is very ſpacious, and has an elegant cloiſter of ſtone pillars, ſupporting grand apartments; on the W. is the library, the moſt elegant ſtructure of the kind in the kingdom, 190 feet long, 40 broad, and 38 high within. Its entrance is by a ſtair caſe, the ſteps black marble, and the walls incruſted with ancient Roman monuments. The entrance into the library is by folding doors at the N. end. Its inſide appearance is inexpreſſibly grand, having at the ſouth end (lately erected) a beautiful painted glaſs window of his preſent majeſty in his robes; and the claſſes are large, beautiful, and noble, well ſtocked with books, manuſcripts, &c. Its outſide has every ſuitable embelliſhment, and was erected by Sir Chriſtopher Wren at the expence of £ 20,000. Under this building is a ſpacious p... of equal dimenſions: out of which open 3 ... to a lawn that leads to the river, over which ... new elegant cycloidal bridge of 3 arches, ... to extenſive walks. In the middle is a re... able viſta. This college was founded on the ... of two other colleges and a hall in 1546 by ... ry VIII. 15. Emanuel college is at the S. E. ... of the town; conſiſts of two courts, the pri... pal of which is very neat; and was built on ... ſite of a Dominican convent. It has been late... in a great part rebuilt and elegantly embelliſh... 16. Sidney-Suſſex college is in Bridge-ſtreet. ... hall is elegant, but the chapel remarkable o... for ſtanding N. and S. as others do E. and W.

CAMBUS, a town near Blithe, Northumberland.

CAMBUSKENNETH, an ancient abbey in Clackmannanſhire, now in ruins.

CAMBUSLANG, [from *Cam-eas*, or *Cam-eas*, Gael. *i. e.* a crooked rivulet, and *Lan*, or *Lanus*, the name of an ancient ſaint,] a pariſh of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire, formerly called DRUMSARGARD, comprehending an extent of about 8 m. ... It is ſituated between Glaſgow and Hamilton, and bounded for 3 miles by the Clyde. The ... is clayey on a till bottom. The climate is ... ous, but healthy. By a meteorological ... kept at the manſe for 7 years, the proportion of dry weather to wet, was as $15\frac{4}{10}$ to 15. The whole ground is arable and well cultivated, producing all the uſual crops: the average value of which, on 3800 acres, is ſtated by the rev. Dr Meek, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, at L. 9090: 10 ſh. The population, in 1791, was 1288; and had increaſed 354, ſince 1755. The number of horſes was 180; of ſheep, 410, and of black cattle, 630. There are 100 coal pits in the pariſh, which have been wrought in ſucceſſion for upwards of 400 years. About 600 cart-loads are ſtill put out weekly, or 30,000 yearly. Muſlins, hollands, and cotton ſtuffs are manufactured in the pariſh. Dr Meek gives a particular account of the religious phænomena, which took place in it, A. D. 1742; for which we muſt refer the inquiſitive reader to *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* V. *p.* 266.

CAMBUSMICHAEL, or CAMPSMICHAEL, a pariſh of Scotland, in Perthſhire, now united to that of St Martin's. See MARTIN'S, ST.

CAMBUSNETHAN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire, about 12 m. long, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad; 10 m. from Glaſgow, 9 from Lanark, and 4 from Hamilton. The ſoil, climate and cultivation are ſimilar to thoſe of CAMBUSLANG. The annual produce is eſtimated at 11,520 bolls grain, of which above 2000 are exported. Grounds fit only for orchards are planted with fruit trees and turn out profitable. Iron-ſtone, free-ſtone and coals abound. The population, in 1791, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Lockhart, in his return to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1684; and had increaſed 265, in 20 years. The inhabitants have given a ſpecimen of their literary taſte by the erection of two libraries.

CAMBYSES. See PERSIA, HISTORY OF.

CAMCHATKA. See KAMTSCHATKA.

(1.) CAMDEN, a county of the United States, in Edenton diſtrict, N. Carolina; bounded N. by

he ſtate of Virginia, S. W. and W. by Paſquotank river, which ſeparates it from Paſquotank ounty, and E. by Currituck. It contains 2,995 ee inhabitants, and 1,238 ſlaves. The chief own is Joneſborough.

(2.) CAMDEN, a diſtrict of South Carolina, ounded on the N. E. by Cheraws, S. E. by George-own, N. by the ſtate of North Carolina, N. W. y Pinkney, W. by Ninety-Six, S. W. by Orange-urg, and S. by Charleſton diſtrict. It is 82 miles om N. to S. and 60 from E. to W. and is divi-ed into the following counties, viz. Fairfield, ichland, Lancaſter, Kerſhaw, Clermont, Cla-nder, and Salem. It contains 38,065 inhabi-nts, of whom 7,865 are ſlaves. It is watered y the river Catabaw, which paſſes nearly through ie middle of it. In the N. part of the diſtrict is ie Catabaw nation of Indians, the only tribe hich reſides in the ſtate. See CATABAW. The pper part of this diſtrict is diverſified with hills, ie ſoil in general rich, and the country well wa-ered. It produces good crops of Indian corn, heat, rye, barley, tobacco, cotton, &c.

(3.) CAMDEN, a poſt town of S. Carolina, and ca-ital of the diſtrict N° 2. It is ſituated in Kerſhaw ounty, on the E. ſide of the Wateree, 120 miles . by W. of Charleſton, and contains about 120 ouſes regularly built on a good plan. It has a ourt-houſe, jail, and an Epiſcopalian church. It ituated on a large navigable river, and carries n a briſk trade with the back counties. A diſ-ict court is held here on the 26th April and Nov. battle was fought at this town on the 16th Aug. 80, between gen. Gates and lord Cornwallis, in hich the Americans were defeated. See the par-ulars of this action, under the article AMERICA, 31. Another was fought, on the 25th April, 81, between lord Rawdon and gen. Greene, ho was encamped within a mile of the town. awdon ſallied out with 800 men and attacked n. Greene in his camp, who commanded a par-of Continentals, and a party of undiſciplined ilitia. The Americans had 126 killed, and 100 ken priſoners. The Engliſh had about 100 kill-. The 13th of May following, the Britiſh eva-ated and burnt the town. See AMERICA, § 32: is 30 miles N. E. of Columbia, and 616 S. W. by of Philadelphia. Lon. 5. 23. W. Lat. 34. 17. N.

(4.) CAMDEN, a ſmall poſt town of the diſtrict Maine; ſituated in Lincoln county, on the E. le of Kenebec river. It is 228 miles from Boſ-n, and 572 from Philadelphia.

(5.) CAMDEN, a village of Kent county, in the te of Delaware; ſituated a few miles S. of ver.

(6.) CAMDEN, William, the great antiquarian, s born in London, in 1551. He was educated Chriſt's hoſpital, and St Paul's ſchool; and m thence ſent, in 1566, to Oxford, and enter-ſervitor of Magdalen college; but being diſap-inted of a demy's place, he removed to Broad-te hall, and two years after, to Chriſt church, ere he was ſupported by his kind friend Dr ornton. About this time he was a candidate a fellowſhip of All-Souls college, but loſt it by intrigues of the Popiſh party. In 1570, he plicated the regents of the univerſity to be ad-tted B. A. but in this alſo he miſcarried. The following year he came to London, where he pro-ſecuted his favourite ſtudy of antiquity, under Dr Goodman, dean of Weſtminſter, by whoſe inte-reſt he was made 2d maſter of Weſtminſter ſchool in 1575. Between his leaving the univerſity and this period, he took ſeveral journeys to different parts of England, to collect materials for his *Bri-tannia*, in which he was now deeply engaged. In 1581, he became intimately acquainted with the learned preſident Briſſon, who was then in Eng-land; and in 1586 he publiſhed the firſt edition of his Britannia. In 1593 he ſucceeded to the head maſterſhip of Weſtminſter ſchool. In 1597 he publiſhed his Greek grammar, and was made Clarenceux king at arms. In 1600 he made a tour to the N. as far as Carliſle, accompanied by his friend Mr (afterwards Sir Robert) Cotton. In 1606 he began his correſpondence with the cele-brated De Thou, which continued to the death of that faithful hiſtorian. In 1607, he publiſhed his laſt edition of the Britannia, which is that from which the Engliſh tranſlations have been made; and in 1608, he began to digeſt his materials for a hiſ-tory of the reign of Q. Elizabeth. In 1609, after recovering from a dangerous illneſs, he retired to Chiſlehurſt in Kent, where he continued to ſpend the ſummer months during the remainder of his life. The firſt part of his annals of the queen did not appear till 1615, and he determined that the 2d vol. ſhould not appear till after his death. The reign of queen Elizabeth was ſo recent when his 1ſt vol. was publiſhed, that many of the perſons concerned, or their dependents, were ſtill living: It is no wonder, therefore, than the honeſt hiſto-rian ſhould offend thoſe whoſe actions would not bear inquiry. Some of his enemies were clamo-rous and troubleſome; which determined him not to publiſh the 2d volume during his life; but, that poſterity might be in no danger of being diſap-pointed, he depoſited one copy in the Cottonian library, and tranſmitted another to his friend Du-puy at Paris. It was firſt printed at Leyden in 1625. The M.S. was entirely finiſhed in 1617; and from that time he was principally employed in collecting more materials for the further im-provement of his Britannia. In 1622, being now upwards of 70, and finding his health declining, he determined to execute his deſign of founding an hiſtory lecture in the univerſity of Oxford. His deed of gift was accordingly tranſmitted by his friend Mr Heather, to Mr Gregory Wheare, who was, by himſelf, appointed his firſt pro-feſſor. He died at Chiſlehurſt, in 1623, in the 73d year of his age; and was buried in Weſtmin-ſter abbey, where a monument of white marble was erected to his memory. Camden was a man of ſingular modeſty and integrity; profoundly learned in the hiſtory and antiquities of this king-dom, and a judicious and conſcientious hiſtorian. He was eſteemed by the literati of all nations, and will ever be remembered as an honour to his age and country. Beſides the works already mention-ed, he was author of ſeveral tracts in Hearne's collection.

(7.) CAMDEN HOUSE, W. of Kenſington pa-lace, Middleſex.

(1.) CAME, a village near Dorcheſter.

(2.) * CAME. The preterite of *To come*.

Till all the pack *came* up, and ev'ry hound
Tore the ſad huntſman, grov'ling on the ground.
Addiſon.

CAMEA. See CAMÆA.

(1.) * CAMEL. *n. ſ.* [*camelus*, Lat.] An animal very common in Arabia, Judea, and the neighbouring countries. One ſort is large, and full of fleſh, and fit to carry burdens of 1000 lb. weight, having one bunch upon its back. Another have two bunches upon their backs, like a natural ſaddle, and are fit either for burdens, or men to ride on. A third kind is leaner, and of a ſmaller ſize, called dromedaries, becauſe of their ſwiftneſs; which are generally uſed for riding by men of quality.—*Camels* have large ſolid feet, but not hard. *Camels* will continue ten or twelve days without eating or drinking, and keep water a long time in their ſtomach, for their refreſhment. *Calmet.*

Patient of thirſt and toil,
Son of the deſart! even the *camel* feels,
Shot through his wither'd heart, the fiery blaſt.
Thomſon.

(2.) CAMEL, in geography, a river in the county of Cornwall; alſo called ALAN.

(3.) CAMEL, in mechanics, a kind of machine uſed in Holland for raiſing or lifting ſhips, in order to bring them over the Pampus, at the mouth of the river Y, where the ſhallowneſs of the water hinders large ſhips from paſſing. It is alſo uſed in other places, particularly at the dock of Peterſburg, the veſſels built there being, in their paſſage to Cronſtadt, lifted over the bar by means of camels. Theſe machines were originally invented by the celebrated De Wit, for the purpoſe above mentioned; and were introduced into Ruſſia by Peter the Great, who obtained the model of them when he worked in Holland as a common ſhipwright. A camel is compoſed of two ſeparate parts, whoſe outſides are perpendicular, and whoſe inſides are concave, ſhaped ſo as to embrace the hull of a ſhip on both ſides. Each part has a ſmall cabin with 16 pumps and 10 plugs, and contain 20 men. They are braced to a ſhip underneath by means of cables, and entirely encloſe its ſides and bottom; being then towed to the bar, the plugs are opened, and the water admitted until the camels ſinks with the ſhip and runs a-ground. Then, the water being pumped out, the camel riſes, lifts up the veſſel, and the whole is towed over the bar. This machine can raiſe the ſhip 11 feet, or, in other words, make it draw 11 feet leſs water.

(4.) CAMEL, in zoology. See CAMELUS.

CAMELEON. See CHAMÆLEON, & LACERTA.

(1.) CAMELFORD, a borough town of Cornwall ſeated on the Camel, conſiſting of about 100 houſes, badly built; but the ſtreets are broad and well paved. It has a great market for yarn, and 4 fairs, on the 1ſt Friday after 10 March, 26 May, 29 July, and 17 Sept. It ſends two members to parliament. It lies 24 miles from Launceſton, and 229 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 55. W. Lat. 50. 42. N.

(2.) CAMELFORD, a village in Yorkſhire, near Derrybridge, on the inland navigation.

CAMELINA, in botany. See CHENOPODIUM.

CAMELLIA, in botany: A genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monadelphia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 37th order, *Columniferæ*. The calyx is imbricated and polyphyllous, with the interior leaves larger than the exterior. There is but one ſpecies, a native both of China and Japan. Thunberg, in his *Flora Japonica*, deſcribes it as growing every where, in the groves and gardens of Japan, where it becomes a prodigiouſly large and tall tree, highly eſteemed by the natives for the elegance of its large and very variable bloſſoms, and its evergreen leaves. It is there found with ſingle and double flowers, white, red, and purple, produced from April to October. Repreſentations of this flower are frequently met with in Chineſe paintings. With us, the *Camellia* is generally treated as a ſtove plant, and propagated by layers; it is ſometimes placed in the greenhouſe; but it appears to us to be one of the propereſt plants imaginable for the conſervatory. At ſome future time it may, perhaps, not be uncommon to treat it as a LAURUSTINUS or MAGNOLIA: the high price at which it has hitherto been ſold, has probably prevented its being hazarded in this way. The bloſſoms are of a firm texture, but apt to fall off long before they have loſt their brilliancy. Some ſtick ſuch deciduous bloſſoms on freſh buds, where they continue to look well for a conſiderable time. Petiver conſidered this plant as a ſpecies of tea tree; and future obſervations will probably confirm his conjecture.

CAMELODUNUM, the ancient Roman name, 1. of DONCASTER in Yorkſhire: and 2. of MALDEN in Eſſex. See CAMALODUNUM.

(1.) * CAMELOPARD. *n. ſ.* [from *camelus* and *pardus*, Lat.] An Abyſſinian animal, taller than an elephant, but not ſo thick. He is ſo named, becauſe he has a neck and head like a camel; he is ſpotted like a pard, but his ſpots are white upon a red ground. The Italians call him *giaraffa*. *Trevoux.*

(2.) CAMELOPARD. See ASTRONOMY, *ſupra*.

(3.) CAMELOPARD, or CAMELOPARDALIS, } in zoology, the trivial name of a ſpecies of CERVUS.

(1.) * CAMELOT. CAMLET. *m. ſ.* [from *camel*] A kind of ſtuff originally made by a mixture of ſilk and camels hair; it is now made with wool and ſilk.—This habit was not of camels ſkin, nor any coarſe texture of its hair, but rather ſome finer weave of *camelot*, grograin, or the like; as much as theſe ſtuffs are ſuppoſed to be made of the hair of that animal. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

2. Hair cloth.—

Meantime the paſtor ſhears their hoary beards,
And eaſes, of their hair, the loaden herds:
Their *camelots* warm in tents the ſoldier hold,
And ſhield the ſhiv'ring mariner from cold.
Dryden.

(2.) CAMELOT, or CHAMBLET, is ſometimes made of goats hair, with wool or ſilk: in ſome, the warp is ſilk and wool twiſted together, and the woof hair. The true or oriental camelot is made of the pure hair of a ſort of goat, frequent about Angora; all the inhabitants whereof are employed in the manufacture and commerce of camlets. Mention is made in writers of the middle age, of ſtuffs made of camel's hair, under the denominations of *cameletum* and *camelinum*, whereof probably

CANCER.

Hermit Crab.

Plated Lobster.

Violet Crab.

Horrid Crab.

Canella Alba.

Cæsalpinia Brasiliensis, or Brazilwood Tree.

CAMELUS.

African Camel, or Dromedary.

Bactrian Camel.

probably the origin of the term; but theſe are repreſented as ſtrangely coarſe, rough, and prickly, and ſeem to have been chiefly uſed among the monks by way of mortification, as the hair ſhirt of later times. We have no camlets made in Europe of the goats hair alone; even at Bruſſels, they add a mixture of woollen thread. England, France, Holland, and Flanders, are the chief places of this manufacture. Bruſſels exceeds them all in the beauty and quality of its camlets: thoſe of England are reputed the ſecond.

(3.) CAMELOTS, FIGURED, are thoſe of one colour, whereon are ſtamped various figures, flowers, foliage, &c. by means of hot irons, which are a kind of moulds, paſſed together with the ſtuff, under a preſs. Theſe are chiefly brought from Amiens and Flanders: the commerce of theſe was anciently much more conſiderable than at preſent.

(4.) CAMELOTS, WATERED, thoſe which, after weaving, receive a certain preparation with water; and are afterwards paſſed under a hot-preſs, which gives them a ſmoothneſs and luſtre.

(5.) CAMELOTS, WAVED, are thoſe whereon waves are impreſſed, as on tabbies; by means of a calender, under which they are paſſed and repaſſed ſeveral times. The manufacturers, &c. of camlets ought to take care they do not acquire any needleſs plaits; it being almoſt impoſſible to get them out again. This is notorious, even to a proverb: we ſay, a perſon is like camlet, he has taken his plait.

CAMEL, QUEEN'S. See QUEEN-CAMEL.

CAMELUS, the CAMEL, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of pecora. The characters of the camel are theſe: It has no horns; it has ſix fore-teeth in the under jaw; the laniarii are wide ſet, three in the upper, and two in the lower jaw; and there is a fiſſure in the upper lip, reſembling a cleft in the lip of a hare. There are 4 ſpecies.

1. CAMELUS BACTRIANUS, the Bactrian camel, has two bunches on the back, but is in all reſpects like the DROMEDARIUS, (ſee N° 2.) of which it ſeems to be a mere variety, rather than a different ſpecies; and is equally adapted for riding or carrying loads. It is ſtill found wild in the deſerts of the temperate parts of Aſia, particularly in thoſe between China and India. Theſe are larger and more generous than the domeſticated race. The Bactrian camel, which is very common in Aſia, is extremely hardy, and in great uſe among the Tartars and Mongols, as a beaſt of burden, from the Caſpian Sea to the empire of China. It bears even ſo ſevere a climate as that of Siberia, being found about the lake Baikal, where the Burats and Mongols keep great numbers. They are far leſs than thoſe which inhabit Weſtern Tartary. Here they live during winter on willows and other trees, and are by this diet reduced very lean. They loſe their hair in April, and go naked all May, amidſt the froſts of that ſevere climate. To thrive, they muſt have dry ground and ſalt marſhes. There are ſeveral varieties of this ſpecies. The TURKMAN is the largeſt and ſtrongeſt. The Arabian is hardy. What is called the DROMEDARY, MAIHARY, and RAGUAHL, is very ſwift. The common ſort travel about 30 miles a day. The laſt, which has a leſs bunch, and more delicate ſhape, and is alſo much inferior in ſize, never carries burdens; but is uſed to ride on. In Arabia, they are trained for running-matches: and in many places for carrying couriers, who can go above 100 miles a day on them, for 9 days together, over burning deſerts, uninhabitable by any living creature. The African camels are the moſt hardy, having more diſtant and more dreadful deſerts to paſs over than any of the others, from Numidia to the kingdom of Ethiopia. In Weſtern Tartary there is a white variety, very ſcarce, and ſacred to the idols and prieſts. The Chineſe have a ſwift variety, which they call by the expreſſive name of *Fong-Kyo-Fo*, or camels with feet of the wind. Fat of camels, or, as theſe people call it, oil of bunches, being drawn from them, is eſteemed in many diſorders, ſuch as ulcers, numbneſs, and conſumptions. This ſpecies of camel is rare in Arabia, being an exotic, and only kept by great men. Camels have conſtituted the riches of Arabia from the time of Job to the preſent day. The patriarch reckoned 6000 camels among his paſtoral treaſures, and the modern Arabs eſtimate their wealth by the number of theſe uſeful animals. Without them great part of Africa would be wretched; by them the whole commerce is carried through arid and burning tracts, impaſſable but by beaſts which Providence formed expreſsly for the ſcorched deſerts. Their ſoles are adapted to the ſands they are to paſs over, their toughneſs and ſpungy ſoftneſs preventing them from cracking. Their great powers of ſuſtaining abſtinence from drinking, enables them to paſs over unwatered tracts for many days, without requiring the leaſt liquid; and their patience under hunger is ſuch that they will travel many days fed only with a few dates, or ſome ſmall balls of bean or barley-meal, or on the miſerable thorny plants they meet with in the deſerts. The Arabians regard the camel as a preſent from heaven, a ſacred animal, without whoſe aſſiſtance they could neither ſubſiſt, carry on trade, nor travel. Camel's milk is their common food. They alſo eat its fleſh, that of the young camel being reckoned highly ſavoury. Of the hair of thoſe animals, which is fine and ſoft, and which is completely renewed every year, the Arabians make ſtuffs for clothes, and other furniture. With their camels, they not only want nothing, but have nothing to fear. In one day, they can perform a journey of 50 leagues into the deſart, which cuts off every approach from their enemies. All the armies of the world would periſh in purſuit of a troop of Arabs. Hence they never ſubmit, unleſs from choice, to any power. With a view to his predatory expeditions, the Arab inſtructs, rears, and exerciſes his camels. A few days after their birth, he folds their limbs under their belly, forces them to remain on the ground, and, in this ſituation, loads them with a pretty heavy weight, which is never removed but for the purpoſe of replacing a greater. Inſtead of allowing them to feed at pleaſure, and to drink when they are dry, he begins with regulating their meals, and makes them gradually travel long journeys, diminiſhing, at the ſame time, the quantity of their aliment. When they acquire ſome ſtrength, they are trained to the courſe. He excites their emulation by the example of horſes, and, in time, ren-

ders them more robuſt. In fine, after he is certain of the ſtrength, fleetneſs, and ſobriety of his camels, he loads them both with his own and their food, ſets off with them, arrives unperceived at the confines of the deſert, robs the firſt paſſengers he meets, pillages the ſolitary houſes, loads his camels with the booty, and, if purſued, he is obliged to accelerate his retreat. On theſe occaſions he unfolds his own talents and thoſe of the camels. He mounts one of the fleeteſt, conducts the troop, and makes them travel night and day, without, almoſt, either ſtopping, eating, or drinking; and, in this manner, he eaſily performs a journey of 900 miles in 8 days. During this period of motion and fatigue, his camels are perpetually loaded, and he allows them each day, one hour only of repoſe, and a ball of paſte. They often run in this manner 9 or 10 days, without finding water; and when, by chance, there is a pool at ſome diſtance, they ſcent the water half a league off. Thirſt makes them double their pace, and they drink as much at once as ſerves them for the time that is paſt, and as much to come; for their journeys often laſt ſeveral weeks, and their abſtinence continues an equal time. Of all carriages, that by camels is the cheapeſt and moſt expeditious. The merchants and other paſſengers unite in a caravan, to prevent the inſults and robberies of the Arabs. Theſe caravans are often very numerous, and are always compoſed of more camels than men. Each camel is loaded in proportion to his ſtrength; and, when overloaded, he refuſes to march, and continues lying till his burden is lightened. The large camels generally carry 1000 or 1200 lb. weight, and the ſmalleſt from 600 to 700. In theſe commercial travels, their march is not haſtened: As the route is often 700 or 800 leagues, their motions and journeys are regulated. They walk only, and perform about from 10 to 12 leagues each day. Every night they are unloaded, and allowed to paſture at freedom. When in a rich country, or fertile meadow, they eat, in leſs than an hour, as much as ſerves them to ruminate the whole night, and to nouriſh them 24 hours. But they ſeldom meet with ſuch paſtures; neither is this delicate food neceſſary for them. They even ſeem to prefer wormwood, thiſtles, nettles, broom, caſſia, and other prickly vegetables, to the ſofteſt herbage. As long as they find plants to brouſe, they eaſily diſpenſe with drink. This facility of abſtaining long from drink proceeds not, however, from habit alone, but is rather an effect of their ſtructure. Independent of the 4 ſtomachs, which are common to ruminating animals, the camels have a 5th bag, which ſerves them as a reſervoir for water. This 5th ſtomach is peculiar to the camel. It is ſo large as to contain a vaſt quantity of water, where it remains without corrupting, or mixing with the other aliments. When the animal is preſſed with thirſt, and has occaſion for water to macerate his dry food in ruminating, he makes part of this water mount into his paunch, or even as high as the œſophagus, by a ſimple contraction of certain muſcles. It is by this ſingular conſtruction that the camel is enabled to paſs ſeveral days without drinking, and to take at a time a prodigious quantity of water, which remains in the reſervoir pure and limpid, becauſe neither the liquors of the body, nor the juices of digeſtion can mix with it. Travellers, when much oppreſſed with drought, are ſometimes obliged to kill their camels in order to have a ſupply of drink from theſe reſervoirs. Theſe inoffenſive creatures muſt ſuffer much; for they utter the moſt lamentable cries, eſpecially when overloaded. But, though perpetually oppreſſed, their fortitude is equal to their docility. At the firſt ſignal, they bend their knees and lie down to be loaded, which ſaves their conductor the trouble of raiſing the goods to a great height. As ſoon as they are loaded, they riſe ſpontaneouſly, and without any aſſiſtance. One of them is mounted by their conductor, who goes before, and regulates the march of all the followers. They require neither whip nor ſpur. But, when they begin to be tired, their courage is ſupported, or rather their fatigue is charmed, by ſinging, or by the ſound of ſome inſtrument. Their conductors relieve each other in ſinging; and, when they want to prolong the journey, they give the animals but one hour's reſt; after which, reſuming their ſong, they proceed on their march for ſeveral hours more, and the ſinging is continued till they arrive at another reſting place, when the camels again lie down; and their loads, by unlooſing the ropes, are allowed to glide off on each ſide of the animals. Thus they ſleep on their bellies in the middle of their baggage, which, next morning is fixed on their backs with equal quickneſs and facility as it had been detached the evening before. Fatigue, hunger, thirſt, and meagreneſs, are not the only inconveniencies to which theſe animals are ſubjected: To all theſe evils they are prepared by caſtration. One male is only left for 8 or 10 females; and the labouring camels are generally geldings. They are unqueſtionably weaker than unmutilated males; but they are more tractable, and at all ſeaſons ready for ſervice; while the former are not only unmanageable, but almoſt furious, during the rutting ſeaſon, which laſts forty days, and returns annually in the ſpring. It is then ſaid, that they foam continually, and that one or two red veſicles, as large as a hog's bladder, iſſue from their mouths. In this ſeaſon they eat little, attack and bite animals, and even their own maſters, to whom at other times they are very ſubmiſſive. Their mode of copulating differs from that of other quadrupeds; for the female, inſtead of ſtanding, lies down on her knees, and receives the males in the ſame poſition that ſhe repoſes, or is loaded. This poſture to which the animals are early accuſtomed, muſt be natural, ſince they aſſume it ſpontaneouſly in coition. The time of geſtation is near 12 months, and like all large quadrupeds, the females bring forth only one at a birth. Her milk is copious and thick; and when mixed with a large quantity of water, affords an excellent nouriſhment to men. The females are not obliged to labour, but are allowed to paſture and produce at full liberty. The advantage derived from their produce and their milk is perhaps ſuperior to what could be drawn from their working. In ſome places, however, moſt of the females are caſtrated, to fit them for labour; and it is alledged, that this operation, inſtead of diminiſhing,

igments their ſtrength, vigour, and plumpneſs. general, the fatter camels are, they are the ore capable of enduring more fatigue. Their nches ſeem to proceed from a redundance of ouriſhment; for during long journeys, in which eir conductor is obliged to huſband their food, d when they often ſuffer much hunger and irſt, theſe bunches gradually diminiſh, and be- me ſo flat, that the place where they were is ly perceptible by the length of the hair, which always longer on theſe parts than on the reſt of e back. The meagreneſs of the body augments proportion as the bunches decreaſe. The Moors ho tranſport all articles of merchandiſe from rbary and Numidia, as far as Ethiopia, ſet out th their camels well ladened, which are very t and vigorous; and bring back the ſame ani- ls ſo meagre, that they commonly ſell at a low ice to the Arabs of the Deſert, to be again fat- ned. Ancient authors aſſert, that camels are a condition for propagating at the age of three ars. This aſſertion is ſuſpicious; for, in three ars, they have not acquired one half of their owth. The penis of the male, like that of the l, is very long and very ſlender. During erec- n, it ſtretches forward, like that of all other uadrupeds; but, in its ordinary ſtate, the ſheath drawn backward, and the urine is diſcharged between the hind legs; ſo that both males d females urine in the ſame manner. The young mel ſucks her mother 12 months; but, when ant to be trained, in order to render him ſtrong d robuſt in the chace, he is allowed to ſuck and ature at freedom during the firſt years, and is t loaded, or made to perform any labour, till is 4 years old. He generally lives 40 and ſome- mes 50 years, which duration of life is propor- ned to the time of his growth. There is no undation for what has been advanced by ſome thors, that he lives 100 years. By conſidering, nder one point of view, all the qualities of this imal, and all the advantages derived from him, muſt be acknowledged, that he is the moſt uſe- l creature ſubjected to the ſervice of man. Gold d ſilk conſtitute not the true riches of the Eaſt: he camel is the genuine treaſure of Aſia. He is ore valuable than the elephant; for he may be id to perform an equal quantity of labour at a th part of the expence. Beſides the whole ecies are under ſubjection to man, who propa- tes and multiplies them at pleaſure. But he has ſuch dominion over the elephant, whom he annot multiply, and the individuals of whom he nquers with great labour and difficulty. The mel is not only more valuable than the elephant, it is perhaps equal in utility to the horſe, the e aſs, and the ox, when their powers are uni- d. He carries as much as two mules; though he ats as little, and feeds upon herbs equally coarſe the aſs. The female furniſhes milk longer than e cow. The fleſh of a young camel is as good d wholeſome as veal: The Africans and Arabs l their pots and tubs with it. It is fried with eaſe, and preſerved in this manner during the hole year for their ordinary repaſts. The hair nner and more in requeſt than the beſt wool. ven their excrements are uſeful; for ſal ammo- niac is made of their urine; and their dung, dried in the ſun and pulveriſed, ſerves for litter to them- ſelves, as well as to horſes, with which people frequently travel in countries where no hay or ſtraw can be had. In fine, their dung makes ex- cellent fuel, which burns freely, and gives as clear and nearly as hot a flame as dry wood, which is of great uſe in the deſerts, where not a tree is to be found, and where, for want of combuſtible materials, fire is as ſcarce as water.

2. CAMELUS DROMEDARIUS, the Arabian ca- mel, with one bunch or protuberance on the back. It has 4 callous protuberances on the fore-legs, and 2 on the hind ones. This ſpecies is common in Africa, and the warmer parts of Aſia; not that it is ſpread over either of the continents. It is a common beaſt of burden in Egypt, and along the countries which border on the Mediterranean Sea; in Mo- rocco, Sara or the Deſert, and Ethiopia: but no where S. of theſe kingdoms. In Aſia, it is equal- ly common in Turky and Arabia; but ſcarcely ſeen farther N. than Perſia, being too tender to bear a more ſevere climate. India is deſtitute of this animal.

3. CAMELUS GLAMA, or } the South Ameri-
3. CAMELUS LLAMA, } can camel ſheep, has an almoſt even black, ſmall head, fine black eyes, and very long neck bending much, and very protuberant near the junction with the body; in a tame ſtate, with ſmooth ſhort hair; in a wild ſtate with long coarſe hair, white, grey and ruſſet, diſpoſed in ſpots; with a black line from the head along the top of the back to the tail, and belly white. The tail is ſhort; the height from 4 to 4½ feet; the length from the neck to the tail, 6 feet. The carcaſe diveſted of ſkin and offals, ac- cording to the editor of Mr Byron's voyage, weighs 200lb. In general, the ſhape exactly reſembles a camel, only it wants the dorſal bunch. It is the camel of Peru and Chili; and, before the arrival of the Spaniards, was the only beaſt of burden known to the Indians. It is very mild, gentle, and tractable. Before the introduction of mules, they were uſed by the Indians to plough the land: at preſent they ſerve to carry burdens of about 100lb. They go with great gravity; and, like their Spaniſh maſters, nothing can prevail upon them to change their pace. They lie down to the burden; and when wearied, no blows can provoke them to go on. Teuillee ſays, they are ſo capricious, that if ſtruck, they inſtantly ſquat down, and nothing but careſſes can make them ariſe. When angry, they have no other method of revenging their injuries than by ſpitting; and they can ejaculate their ſaliva to the diſtance of ten paces: if it falls on the ſkin, it raiſes an itch- ing and a reddiſh ſpot. Their fleſh is eaten and is ſaid to be as good as mutton. The wool has a ſtrong diſagreeable ſcent. They are very ſure- footed, and are therefore uſed to carry the Peru- vian ores over the ruggedeſt hills and narroweſt paths of the Andes. They inhabit that vaſt chain of mountains through their whole length to the ſtraits of Magellan; but, except where theſe hills approach the ſea, as in Patagonia, never appear on the coaſts. Like the camel, they have pow- ers of abſtaining long from drink, ſometimes for

4 or

4 or 5 days: like that animal, their food is coarſe. In a wild ſtate, they keep in great herds in the higheſt and ſteepeſt parts of the hills; and while they are feeding, one keeps centry on the pinnacle of ſome rock: if it perceives the approach of any one, it neighs; the herd take the alarm, and go off with incredible ſpeed. They outrun all dogs, ſo there is no other way of killing them but with the gun. They are killed for the ſake of their fleſh and hair; for the Indians weave the laſt into cloth. From the form of their parts of generation in both ſexes, no animal copulates with ſuch difficulty. It is often the labour of a day, *antequam actum ipſum venereum incipiant, et abſolvant.*

4. CAMELUS PACOS, or the ſheep of Chili, has no bunch on its back. It is covered with a fine valuable wool, which is of a roſe red colour on the back of the animal, and white on the belly. They are of the ſame nature with the LLAMA, (No. 3.) inhabit the ſame places, but are more capable of ſupporting the rigour of froſt and ſnow; they live in vaſt herds; are very timid, and exceſſively ſwift. The Indians take the pacos in a ſtrange manner; they tie cords with bits of cloth or wool hanging on them, about 3 or 4 feet from the ground, acroſs the narrow paſſes of the mountains, then drive thoſe animals towards them, which are ſo terrified by the flutter of the rags, as not to dare to paſs, but, huddling together, give the hunters an opportunity to kill with their ſlings as many as they pleaſe. The tame ones will carry from 50 to 75 lb.; but are kept principally for the ſake of the wool and the fleſh, which is exceedingly well taſted.

CAMELY, a village in Somerſetſhire, near E. Harptree.

(1.) CAMEO, *n. ſ.* a picture of one colour. *Aſh.*

(2.) CAMEO. See CAMAIEU, § 2—4.

(1.) CAMERA, [Lat. *i. e.* a chamber,] in architecture, a vault or Gallery. *Aſh.*

(2.) CAMERA, in old records, a winding plot of ground.

(3.) CAMERA ÆOLIA, a contrivance for blowing the fire, ſo named by Kircher, for the fuſion of ores, without bellows; by means of water falling through a funnel into a cloſe veſſel, which ſends from it ſo much air or vapour as continually blows the fire: if there be the ſpace of another veſſel for it to expatiate in by the way, it there lets fall its humidity, which otherwiſe might hinder the work.

(4.) CAMERA LUCIDA, a contrivance of Dr Hook for making the image of any thing appear on a wall in a light room, either by day or night. Oppoſite to the place or wall where the appearance is to be, make a hole of at leaſt a foot in diameter, or if there be a high window with a caſement opened. At a convenient diſtance, to prevent its being perceived by the company in the room, place the object or picture intended to be repreſented, but in an inverted ſituation. If the picture be tranſparent, reflect the ſun's rays by means of a looking-glaſs, ſo as that they may paſs through it towards the place of repreſentation; and to prevent any rays from paſſing aſide it, let the picture be encompaſſed with ſome board or cloth. If the object be a ſtatue, or a living creature, it muſt be much enlighted by caſting the ſun's rays on it, either by reflection, refraction or both. Between this object and the place of repreſentation put a broad convex glaſs, ground to ſuch a convexity as that it may repreſent the object diſtinctly in ſuch place. The nearer this is ſituated to the object, the more will the image magnified on the wall, and the further the ſuch diverſity depending on the difference of the ſpheres of the glaſſes. If the object cannot conveniently inverted, there muſt be two convex glaſſes of proper ſpheres, ſituated at ſuitable diſtances, eaſily found by trial, to make the repreſentations erect. The whole apparatus of object glaſſes, &c. with the perſon employed in the management of them, are to be placed without the window or hole, ſo that they may not be perceived by the ſpectators in the room, and the operation itſelf will be eaſily performed. *Phil. Tranſ.* No 38. p. 741, ſeq.

(5.) * CAMERA OBSCURA. [Latin.] An optical machine uſed in a darkened chamber, ſo that the light coming only through a double convex glaſs, objects expoſed to day light, and oppoſite to the glaſs, are repreſented inverted upon any white matter placed in the focus of the glaſs. *Martin*

(6.) CAMERA OBSCURA, or the DARK CHAMBER, was invented by Baptiſta Porta. See his *Magia Naturalis, lib.* xvii. *cap.* 6. It affords very diverting ſpectacles; both by exhibiting images perfectly like their objects, and each clothed in their native colours; and by expreſſing, at the ſame time, all their motions; which latter no other art can imitate. By means of this inſtrument, a perſon unacquainted with deſigning will be able to delineate objects with the greateſt accuracy and juſtneſs, and another well verſed in painting will find many things herein to perfect his art. See the conſtruction under DIOPTRICS.

* CAMERADE. *n. ſ.* [from *camera*, a chamber, Lat.] One that lodges in the ſame chamber; a boſom companion. By corruption we now ſay *comrade.—Camerades* with him, and confederates in his deſign. *Rymer.*

CAMERARIA, in botany: a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 30th order, Contortæ. There are two horizontal follicles at the baſe of the ſeed-caſe. The ſeeds are inſerted into a proper membrane. There are two ſpecies; *viz.*

1. CAMERARIA ANGUSTIFOLIA has an irregular ſhrubby ſtalk, which riſes about 8 feet, ſending out many branches which are garniſhed with very narrow thin leaves placed oppoſite at each joint. The flowers are produced ſcattering at the end of the branches, which are ſhaped like thoſe of the LATIFOLIA (See N. 2.) but ſmaller. It is a native of Jamaica.

2. CAMERARIA LATIFOLIA, a native of the iſland of Cuba. It riſes with a ſhrubby ſtalk to 10 or 12 feet, dividing into ſeveral branches, garniſhed with roundiſh pointed leaves placed oppoſite. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches in looſe cluſters, which have long tubes enlarging gradually upward, and at the top are cut into 5 ſegments, broad at their baſe, but ending in ſharp points; the flower is of a yellowiſh white colour. Both theſe plants abound with

acid

rid milky juice like the ſpurge. They are propagated by ſeeds, which muſt be procured from e places of their growth. They may alſo be opagated by cuttings planted in a hot-bed du- ig ſummer: they muſt have a bark ſtove, for ey are very tender; but in warm weather they uſt have plenty of air.

(1.) CAMERARIUS, Joachim, one of the moſt rned writers of his time, was born in 1500, at mberg, in Franconia. He tranſlated into Latin erodotus, Demoſthenes, Xenophon, Euclid, Ho- er, Theocritus, Sophocles, Lucian, Theodoret, icephorus, &c. He publiſhed a catalogue of e biſhops of the principal ſees; Greek Epiſtles; ccounts of his journeys, in Latin verſe; a com- entary on Plautus: the Lives of Helius Eobanus eſſus, and Philip Melancthon, &c. He died in 74.

(2.) CAMERARIUS, Joachim, ſon of the former, . 1.) and a learned phyſician, was born at Nu- mberg in 1534. After having finiſhed his ſtu- es in Germany, he went into Italy, where he btained the eſteem of the learned. At his re- rn he was courted by ſeveral princes to live with- em; but he was too much devoted to books, d the ſtudy of chemiſtry and botany, to com- ly. He wrote *Hortus Medicus*, and ſeveral other orks. He died in 1598.

* CAMERATED. *adj.* [*cameratus*, Lat.] Arch- d; roofed ſlopewiſe.

* CAMERATION. *n. ſ.* [*cameratio*, Lat.] A ulting or arching.

CAMERET BAY, a capacious bay of France n the coaſt of Cape Finiſterre, which forms the arbour of Breſt. See BREST, N. 1.

CAMERINGHAM, a town of Saxby, Lincoln- ire.

CAMERINO, a town of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate Italy. Lon. 13. 7. E. Lat. 45. 5. N.

CAMERLINGO ſignified formerly the pope's emperor's treaſure; at preſent the word is no here uſed but at Rome, where it denotes the rdinal who governs the eccleſiaſtical ſtate and dminiſters juſtice. It is the moſt eminent office the court of Rome, becauſe he is at the head f the treaſury. During a vacation of the papal hair, the cardinal camerlingo publiſhes edicts, oins money, and exerts every other prerogative f a ſovereign prince; he has under him a trea- rer-general, auditor-general, and 12 prelates alled *clerks of the chamber*.

(1.) CAMERON, a pariſh of Scotland, in Fife- ire, diſjoined from that of St Andrews, above 60 years ago, being not 5 miles diſtant from the ty of St Andrews. It is 6 miles long from E. to W. and 4½ broad from N. to S. The ſoil is fitter or paſturage than grain. The climate is healthy. The population, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Mair, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1165, in 1793; nd had decreaſed 130, in the 38 years preced- ng.

(2.) CAMERON, John, one of the moſt famous irines among the Proteſtants of France in the 7th century, was born at Glaſgow in 1580, where e taught the Greek tongue; and having read ctures upon that language for about a year, tra- elled, and became profeſſor and miniſter at Bour- eaux, Sedan, and Saumur; at which laſt place he broached his new doctrine of grace and free will, which was framed by Amyraut, Cappel, Bochart, Daille, and others of the more learned among the reformed miniſters, who judged Cal- vin's doctrines on theſe points too harſh. He publiſhed, 1. Theological lectures; 2. *Icon Jo- hannis Cameronis*; and ſome miſcellaneous pieces. He died in 1625, aged 60.

(3.) CAMERON, Richard, the founder of the Scots Cameronians, was a famous field-preacher, who refuſing to accept the indulgence to tender conſciences, granted by king Charles II. thinking ſuch an acceptance an acknowledgment of the king's ſupremacy, and that he had before a right to ſilence them, made a defection from his bre- thren, and even headed a rebellion, in which he was killed.

(4.) CAMERON, CAPE, a head-land of N. Ame- rica, on the N. part of Honduras. Lon. 83. 29. W. Lat. 15. 35. N.

(1.) CAMERONIANS, a ſect in Scotland, who ſeparated from the Preſbyterians in 1666, and con- tinued long to hold their religious aſſemblies in the fields. The Cameronians took their deno- mination from Richard Cameron. (See CAME- RON, N. 3.) They were never entirely reduced till the Revolution, when they voluntarily ſub- mitted to king William.—The Cameronians ad- here rigidly to the form of government eſtabliſhed in 1648. They are alſo called *Cargillites* from another of their preachers. See CARGILLITES.

(2.) CAMERONIANS, or CAMERONITES, a party of Calviniſts in France, who aſ- ſerted that the will of man is only determined by the practical judgment of the mind; that the cauſe of men's doing good or evil proceeds from the knowledge which God infuſes into them; and that God does not move the will phyſically, but only morally, in virtue of its dependence on the judgment of the mind. They were ſo named from prof. John Cameron. (See CAMERON, N. 2.) They are a ſort of mitigated Calviniſts, and approach to the opinion of the Arminians. They are alſo cal- led UNIVERSALISTS, as holding the univerſality of Chriſt's death; and ſometimes AMYRALDISTS. Their enemies accuſe them of Pelagianiſm.

CAMERTON, two Engliſh villages: 1. in Somerſetſhire, near Finſborough: 2. in Yorkſh. in Holderneſs.

CAMERY, *n. ſ.* in farriery, the frounce, a diſ- eaſe of horſes. *Aſh.*

CAMES, a name given to the ſmall ſlender rods of caſt lead, of which the glaziers make their turn- ed lead. The lead being caſt into ſlender rods of 12 or 14 inches long each, is called the *came*; ſometimes alſo they call each of theſe rods a *came*, which being afterwards drawn through their vice, makes their turned lead.

CAMESWORTH, a village of Dorſetſhire, S. of Bemiſter.

CAMICA, *n. ſ.* in old records, camelot.

CAMILLA, in fabulous hiſtory, queen of the Volſci, a heroine of maſculine courage, who was ſlain in the war with Æneas, when ſhe aſſiſted Turnus againſt him, and the Latins.

CAMILLÆ, and CAMILLI, in antiquity, girls and boys who miniſtered in the ſacri- fices of the gods; and eſpecially thoſe who at- tended

tended the *flamen dialis*, or prieſt of Jupiter. The word ſeems borrowed from the language of the ancient Hetrurians, where it ſignified miniſter, and was changed from *caſmillus*.

(1.) CAMILLUS, Marcus Furius, an illuſtrious hero of the Roman republic. He triumphed 4 times, was 5 times dictator, and was juſtly honoured with the title of the *ſecond founder of Rome*. He was indeed a true patriot. Lucius Apuleius, one of the tribunes, proſecuted him to make him give an account of the ſpoils taken at Veii. Camillus anticipated judgment, and baniſhed himſelf voluntarily. During his baniſhment, the Gauls ſacked Rome; but inſtead of rejoicing at the puniſhment of his ungrateful countrymen, he exerted all his wiſdom and bravery to drive away the enemy; and yet kept with the utmoſt ſtrictneſs the law of Rome, in refuſing to accept the command, which ſeveral private perſons offered him. The Romans who were beſieged in the capitol, created him dictator A. A. C. 363; in which office he acted with ſo much bravery and conduct, that he entirely drove the Gauls out of the territories of the commonwealth. He died A. A. C. 385, aged 81.

(2.) CAMILLUS, an epithet given to Mercury, as the meſſenger of the gods, by the Tuſcans.

To CAMIN. *v. n. obſ.* To come. *Chauc.*

CAMINHA, a maritime town of Portugal, in the province of Entre-Duero-e-Minho, ſituated at the mouth of the river Minho. Lon. 8. 29. W. Lat. 41. 50. N.

CAMINI, Paraguay tea. See ILEX.

CAMIS, or KAMIS. See KAMIS.

* CAMISADO. [*n. f. camiſa*, a ſhirt, Ital. *camiſum*, low Lat.] An attack made by ſoldiers in the dark; on which occaſion they put their ſhirts outward, to be ſeen by each other.—They had appointed the ſame night, whoſe darkneſs would heave increaſed the fear, to have given a *camiſado* upon the Engliſh. *Hayward*.

CAMISARDS, a name given by the French to the Calviniſts of the Cevennes, who formed a league, and took up arms in their own defence, in 1688.

* CAMISATED. *adj.* [from *camiſa*, a ſhirt.] Dreſſed with the ſhirt outward.

CAMISED, *adj. obſ.* Flat-noſed. *Chauc.*

(1.) CAMLET, a river in Shropſhire.

(2.) * CAMLET. See CAMELOT.—He had on him a gown with wide ſleeves, of a kind of water *camlet*, of an excellent azure colour. *Bacon*.

CAMLETINE, a ſlight ſtuff, made of hair and coarſe ſilk, in the manner of camlet.

CAMMA, a province of the kingdom of Lonango in Africa, the inhabitants of which are continually at war with thoſe of Gobbi, another province of Loango. See GOBBI. The weapons they formerly uſed in their wars were the ſhort pike, bows and arrows, ſword and dagger; but ſince the Europeans have become acquainted with that coaſt, they have ſupplied them with fire-arms.

CAMMAROS, the name of an inſect mentioned by ancient authors, reſembling in figure the root of the aconitum. Some have confounded it with the plant CAMMOROS.

CAMMAS, a village in Northumberland, S. of the river Wanſbeck.

CAMMIN, a maritime town of Germany, in Pomerania, on the E. mouth of the Oder, oppoſite to the iſle of Wollen, 39 m. N. of Stetin. Lon. 15. 19. E. Lat. 54. 4. N.

(1.) * CAMMOCK. *n. ſ.* [*cammock*, Saxon; *ononis*.] An herb; the ſame with *petty whin* or *reſtharrow*.

(2.) CAMMOCK, in botany. See ONONIS.

CAMMOROS, or CACOMOROS, among ancient Greek botaniſts, the hemlock. See CICUTA.

CAMOCLADIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the triandria claſs of plants. The calyx and corolla are divided into 3 parts; the drupa is oblong, with a two-lobed nucleus. There are two ſpecies.

CAMOENÆ, an epithet of the Muſes.

CAMOENS, Lewis DE, a famous Portugueſe poet, the honour of whoſe birth is claimed by different cities. But according to N. Antonio and Manuel Correa, his intimate friend, he was born at Liſbon in 1517. His family was of conſiderable note, and originally Spaniſh. The elder branch of it, according to Caſtera, intermarried with the blood royal of Portugal. But the younger branch had the ſuperior honour to produce the author of the Luſiad. The misfortunes of the poet began early. In his infancy, Simon Vaz de Camoens, his father, being commander of a veſſel, was ſhipwrecked at Goa, where, with his life, the greateſt part of his fortune was loſt. His mother, however, Anne de Macedo of Santaren, provided for the education of her ſon Lewis at the univerſity of Coimbra. What he acquired there, his works diſcover; an intimacy with the claſſics, equal to that of Scaliger, but ſeaſoned by the taſte of a Milton or a Pope. When he left the univerſity, he appeared at court. He was handſome; had ſparkling eyes; with the fineſt complexion; and was a poliſhed ſcholar; which, added to the natural vivacity of his diſpoſition, rendered him an accompliſhed gentleman. Courts are the ſcenes of intrigue; and intrigue was faſhionable at Liſbon. But the particulars of the amours of Camoens are unknown. This only appears; he had aſpired above his rank, for he was baniſhed from the court; and in ſeveral of his ſonnets he aſcribes his misfortunes to love. He now retired to his mother's friends at Santaren. Here he renewed his ſtudies, and began his poem on the diſcovery of India. John III. at this time prepared an armament againſt Africa. Camoens, tired of his inactive obſcure life, went to Ceuta in this expedition, and diſplayed his valour in ſeveral rencounters. In a naval engagement with the Moors in the ſtraits of Gibraltar, in the conflict of boarding, he was among the foremoſt, and loſt his right eye. Yet neither hurry of active ſervice nor the diſſipation of the camp could ſtifle his genius. He continued his *Luſiad*, and ſeveral of his moſt beautiful ſonnets were written in Africa, while, as he expreſſed it,

"One hand the pen, and one the ſword, employed."

The fame of his valour had now reached the court, and he obtained permiſſion to return to Liſbon. But, while he ſolicited an eſtabliſhment which he had merited in battle, the malignity of ſome evil tongues was injuriouſly poured upon him. Though

Though the bloom of his youth was effaced by long reſidence under the ſcorching ſun-beams of Africa, and diſfigured by the loſs of an eye, his preſence gave uneaſineſs to ſome gentlemen of families of the firſt rank, where he had formerly viſited. Jealouſy is the characteriſtic of the Spaniſh and Portugueſe; its reſentment knows no bounds, and Camoens now found it prudent to baniſh himſelf from his native country. Accordingly, in 1553, he ſailed for India, with a reſolution never to return. As the ſhip left the Tagus, he exclaimed, in the words of the ſepulchral monument of Scipio Africanus, *Ingrata patria, non poſſidebis oſſa mea!* "Ungrateful country, thou ſhalt not poſſeſs my bones!" But he knew not what evils in the Eaſt would awake the remembrance of his native fields. When Camoens arrived in India, a fleet was ready to ſail to revenge the king of Cochin on the king of Pimenta. Without any reſt on ſhore after his long voyage, he joined this armament, and in the conqueſt of the Abagada iſlands diſplayed his uſual bravery. In 1554, he attended Vaſconcello in an expedition to the Red Sea. Here, ſays Faria, as Camoens had no uſe for his ſword, he employed his pen. Nor was his activity confined in the fleet or camp. He viſited Mount Felix and the adjacent inhoſpitable regions of Africa, which he ſo ſtrongly pictures in the Luſiad, and in one of his little pieces where he laments the abſence of his miſtreſs. When he returned to Goa, he enjoyed a tranquillity which enabled him to beſtow his attention on his Epic Poem. But this ſerenity was interrupted, perhaps by his own imprudence. He wrote ſome ſatires which gave offence; and, by order of the viceroy Franciſco Barreto, he was baniſhed to China. The accompliſhments of Camoens ſoon found him friends, even under the diſgrace of baniſhment. He was appointed commiſſary of the defunct in the iſland of Macao, a Portugueſe ſettlement in the bay of Canton. Here he continued his Luſiad; and here alſo, after 5 years reſidence, he acquired a fortune, equal to his wiſhes. Don Conſtantine de Braganza was now viceroy of India; and Camoens, deſirous to return to Goa, reſigned his charge. In a ſhip, freighted by himſelf, he ſet ſail; but was ſhipwrecked in the gulf near the mouth of the river Mehon on the coaſt of China. All he had acquired was loſt; as he tells us in the 7th Luſiad.

"Now bleſt with all the wealth fond hope could crave,
Soon I beheld that wealth beneath the wave
For ever loſt;——
My life, like Judah's heaven-doom'd king of yore,
By miracle prolong'd."——

His poems, which he held in one hand, while he ſwimmed with the other, were all that he poſſeſſed, when he ſtood friendleſs on the unknown ſhore. But the natives gave him a moſt humane reception; which he has immortaliſed in that beautiful prophetic ſong in the tenth Luſiad. On the banks of the Mehon, he wrote his beautiful paraphraſe of the pſalm, where the Jews, in the fineſt ſtrain of poetry, are repreſented as hanging their harps on the willows by the rivers of Babylon, and weeping their exile from their native country. Here Camoens continued ſome time, till an opportunity offered to carry him to Goa. When he arrived at that city, Don Conſtantine de Braganza, the viceroy, admitted him into intimate friendſhip, and Camoens was happy till count Rodondo aſſumed the government. But now, thoſe who had formerly procured his baniſhment, exerted all their arts againſt him. Rodondo, when he entered on office, pretended to be the friend of Camoens; yet, he ſoon after ſuffered him to be thrown into the common priſon. Camoens, however, in a public trial, fully refuted every accuſation of his conduct while commiſſary at Macao, and his enemies were loaded with ignominy. But Camoens had ſome creditors, who detained him in priſon a conſiderable time, till the gentlemen of Goa, aſhamed that a man of his ſingular merit ſhould experience ſuch treatment among them, ſet him at liberty. He again aſſumed the profeſſion of arms, and received the allowance of a gentleman volunteer, a character at this time common in Portugueſe India. Soon after, Pedro Barreto, appointed governor of the fort at Sofala, by high promiſes, allured the poet to attend him thither. Though the only motive of Barreto was, to retain the converſation of Camoens at his table, it was his leaſt care to render the life of his gueſt agreeable. Chagrined with his treatment, and a conſiderable time having elapſed in vain dependence upon Barreto, Camoens reſolved to return to his native country. A ſhip, on the homeward voyage, at this time touched at Sofala, and ſeveral gentlemen who were on board were deſirous that Camoens ſhould accompany them. But to prevent this, the governor ungenerouſly charged him with a debt for board. Anthony de Cabra, however, and Hector de Sylveyra, paid the demand; and "Camoens, ſays Faria, and the honour of Barreto, were ſold together." After an abſence of 16 years, Camoens, in 1569, returned to Liſbon, unhappy even in his arrival, for the peſtilence then raged in that city, and prevented his publication for 3 years. At laſt, in 1572, he printed his Luſiad, which, in the opening of the firſt book, in a moſt elegant turn of compliment, he addreſſed to king Sebaſtian, then in his 18th year. The king, ſays the French tranſlator, was ſo pleaſed with his merit, that he gave the author a penſion of 4coo reals, on condition that he ſhould reſide at court. But this ſalary, ſays the ſame writer, was withdrawn by cardinal Henry, who ſucceeded to the crown of Portugal, loſt by Sebaſtian at the battle of Alcazar. Though Henry was the great patron of one ſpecies of literature, yet the author of the Luſiad was utterly neglected by him, and under his inglorious reign, died in all the miſery of poverty. By ſome, it is ſaid, he died in an alms houſe. It appears, however, that he had not even the certainty of ſubſiſtence, which theſe houſes provide. He had a black ſervant, who had grown old with him, who had long experienced his maſter's humanity. This grateful Indian, a native of Java, who, according to ſome writers, ſaved his maſter's life in the ſhipwreck, begged in the ſtreets of Liſbon, for the only man in Portugal on whom God had beſtowed thoſe talents, which tend to erect the ſpirit of a degenerate age. To the eye of a careful obſerver, the

fate of Camoens throws great light on that of his country, and will appear ſtrictly connected with it. The ſame ignorance, the ſame deſpicable ſpirit, which ſuffered Camoens to depend on alms, ſunk the kingdom of Portugal into the moſt abject vaſſalage ever experienced by a conquered nation. While the grandees were blind to the ruin which impended over them, Camoens beheld it with a pungency of grief which haſtened his exit. In one of his letters he has theſe remarkable words: *Em fim accabey à vida, &c.* "I am ending the courſe of my life; the world will witneſs how I have loved my country. I have returned, not only to die in her boſom, but to die with her." In this unhappy ſituation, in 1759, in his 62d year, the year after the fatal defeat of Don Sebaſtian, died Lewis De Camoens, the greateſt literary genius ever produced in Portugal; a man equal in martial courage and honour to her greateſt heroes. And he was buried in a manner ſuitable to the poverty in which he died. The *Luſiad* has been tranſlated once into Latin, twice into Italian, once into French, 4 times into Spaniſh, and once into Engliſh, by Mr Mickle. Rapin, however, has criticiſed it.

CAMOLIN, a village in Wexford, Ireland.

(1.) * CAMOMILE. *n. ſ.* [*anthemis.*] A flower.

(2.) CAMOMILE, in botany. See ANTHEMIS, § 2.

CAMOPI, a river in Cayenne.

* CAMOYS. *adj.* [*camus*, Fr.] Flat; level; depreſſed. It is only uſed of the noſe.—Many Spaniards, of the race of Barbary Moors, though after frequent commixture, have not worn out the *camoys* noſe unto this day. *Brown's Vulgar Err.*

(1.) * CAMP. *n. ſ.* [*campe*, Fr. *camp*, Sax. from *campus*, Lat.] the order of tents, placed by armies when they keep the field. We uſe the phraſe *to pitch a camp*, to encamp.—

From *camp* to *camp*, thro' the foul womb of night,
The hum of either army ſtilly ſounds. *Shakeſp.*

Next, to ſecure our *camp*, and naval pow'rs,
Raiſe an embattled wall, with lofty tow'rs. *Pope.*

(2.) CAMP, with all due deference to Dr *Johnſon*, ſignifies rather *the ground* on which an army pitch their tents. It is marked out by the quarter-maſter general, who appoints every regiment their ground. See § 4—6.

(3.) CAMP is alſo uſed by the Siameſe, and ſome other nations in the Eaſt Indies, as the name of the quarters which they aſſign to foreigners, who come to trade with them. In theſe, every nation forms a kind of town, where they carry on their trade, not only keeping all their warehouſes and ſhops but alſo living in theſe camps with their whole families. The Europeans, however, may live either in the cities or ſuburbs, as they ſhall judge moſt convenient.

(4.) CAMPS, ADVANTAGES REQUISITE IN CHUSING. Theſe are chiefly to have the camp near water, in a country of forage, where the ſoldiers may find wood for dreſſing their victuals; that it have a free communication with garriſons, and with a country from whence it may be ſupplied with proviſions; and, if poſſible, that it be ſituated on a riſing ground, in a dry gravelly ſoil. Beſides, the advantages of the ground ought to be conſidered, as marſhes, woods, rivers, and inclo-ſures; and if the camp be near the enemy, with no river or marſh to cover it, the army ought to be intrenched. An army always encamps fronting the enemy; and generally in two lines, running parallel about 500 yards diſtance; the horſe and dragoons, on the wings, and the foot, in the centre: ſometimes a body of 2, 3, or 4 brigades is encamped behind the two lines, and is called the *body of reſerve*. The artillery and bread waggons are generally encamped in the rear of the two lines. A battalion of foot is allowed 80 or 100 paces for its camp; and 30 or 40 for an interval betwixt one battalion and another. A ſquadron of horſe is allowed 30 for its camp, and 30 for an interval, and more if the ground will allow it. Where the grounds are equally dry, thoſe camps are always the moſt healthful that are pitched on the banks of large rivers; becauſe, in the hot ſeaſon, ſituations of this kind have a ſtream of freſh air from the water, ſerving to carry off moiſt and putrid exhalations. On the other hand, next to marſhes, the worſt encampments are on low grounds cloſe beſet with trees; for then the air is not only moiſt and hurtful in itſelf, but by ſtagnating becomes more ſuſceptible of corruption. However, let the ſituation of camps be ever ſo good, they are frequently rendered infectious by the putrid effluvia of rotten ſtraw, and the privies of the army; more eſpecially if the bloody flux prevails, in which caſe the beſt method of preventing a general infection, is to leave the ground with all the filth of the camp behind. This muſt be frequently done, if conſiſtent with the military operations: but when theſe render it improper to change the ground often, the privies ſhould be made deeper than uſual, and once a-day a thick layer of earth thrown into them till the pits are near full; and then they are to be well covered, and ſupplied by others. It may alſo be a proper caution to order the pits to be made either in the front or the rear, as the then ſtationary winds may beſt carry off their effluvia from the camp. It will alſo be neceſſary to change the ſtraw frequently, as being not only apt to rot, but to retain the infectious ſteams of the ſick. But if freſh ſtraw cannot be procured, more care muſt be taken in airing the tents, as well as the old ſtraw.

(5.) CAMPS, ANCIENT FORMS OF. The diſpoſition of the Hebrew encampment was at firſt laid out by God himſelf. Their camp was of a quadrangular form, ſurrounded with an incloſure of the height of 10 hands-breadths. It made a ſquare of 12 miles in compaſs about the tabernacle; and within this was the Levites camp. The Greeks had alſo their camps, fortified with gates and ditches. The Lacedæmonians made their camp of a round figure, looking upon that as the moſt perfect and defenſive of any form; though they doubtleſs diſpenſed with it when circumſtances required. In the other Grecian camps, the moſt valiant of the ſoldiers were placed at the extremities, the reſt in the middle. Thus Homer tells us, that Achilles and Ajax were poſted at the ends of the camp before Troy, as bulwarks on each ſide of the other princes. The figure of the Roman camp was a ſquare divided into two principal parts: in the upper parts were the general's pa-

vilion,

vilion, or prætorium, and the tent of the chief officers; in the lower, thoſe of inferior degree. On one ſide of the prætorium ſtood the quæſtorium, or apartment of the treaſurer; and near this the forum, both for a market-place and the aſſembling of councils. On the other ſide of the prætorium were lodged the legati; and below it the tribunes had their quarters, oppoſite to their reſpective legions. Aſide from the tribunes were the præfecti of the foreign troops, over againſt their reſpective wings; and behind theſe were the lodgments of the EVOCATI; then thoſe of the extraordinarii and ABLECTI equites, which concluded the higher part of the camp. Between the two partitions was a ſpot of ground called PRINCIPIA, for the altars and images of the gods, and probably alſo for the chief enſigns. The middle of the lower partition was aſſigned to the Roman horſe; next to them were quartered the triarii; then the principes, and cloſe by them the haſtati; afterwards the foreign horſe, and laſtly the foreign foot. They fortified their camp with a ditch and parapet, which they termed *foſſa* and *vallum*; in the latter ſome diſtinguiſh two parts, *viz.* the *agger* or earth, and the *ſudes* or wooden ſtakes driven in to ſecure it. The camps were ſometimes ſurrounded by walls made of hewn ſtone; and the tents themſelves formed of the ſame matter.

(6.) CAMPS, TURKISH, ARABIC, &c. In the front of the Turkiſh camp are quartered the janizaries and other foot, whoſe tents encompaſs their aga: in the rear are the quarters of the ſpahis and other horſemen. The body of the camp is poſſeſſed by the ſtately tents or pavilions of the vizir, reis effendi, kahija, the teſterdar baſhaw, and kapiſlar kahiaſee. In the middle of theſe tents is a ſpacious field, wherein are erected a building for the divan, and a hafna or treaſury. When the ground is marked out for a camp, all wait for the pitching of the tent LAILAC, the place where the courts of juſtice are held; it being the diſpoſition of this, that is to regulate all the reſt. The Arabs ſtill live in camps, as the ancient Scenites did. The camp of the Aſſyne Emir, or king of the country about Tadmor, is deſcribed by a traveller who viewed it, as ſpread over a very large plain, and poſſeſſing ſo vaſt a ſpace, that though he had the advantage of a riſing ground, he could not ſee the utmoſt extent of it. His own tent was near the middle; ſcarce diſtinguiſhable from the reſt, except that it was bigger, being made, like the others, of a ſort of hair-cloth.

* *To* CAMP. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To encamp; to lodge in tents, for hoſtile purpoſes.—

Had our great palace the capacity
To *camp* this hoſt, we would all ſup together.
Shakeſpeare.

2. To camp; to pitch a camp; to fix tents.

CAMPAGNA. See CAMPANIA, No. 1. & 2.

(1.) * CAMPAIGN. CAMPANIA. *n. ſ.* [*campaigne*, French; *campania*, Ital.] 1. A large open level tract of ground, without hills.—In countries thinly inhabited, and eſpecially in vaſt *campanias*, there are few cities, beſides what grow by the reſidence of kings. *Temple.*—

Thoſe grateful groves, that ſhade the plain,
Where Tiber rolls majeſtic to the main,
And fattens, as he runs, the fair *campaign*. *Garth.*

2. The time for which any army keeps the field, without entering into quarters.—This might have haſtened his march, which would have made a fair concluſion of the *campaign*. *Clarendon.*—

An iliad riſing out of one *campaign*. *Addiſon.*

(2.) CAMPAIGN. See § 1. *def.* 2. The beginning of every campaign is conſiderably more unhealthy than if the men were to remain in quarters. After the firſt 2 or 3 weeks encampment, the ſickneſs decreaſes daily; the moſt infirm being in that time in the hoſpitals, and the weather daily growing warmer. This healthy ſtate continues throughout the ſummer, unleſs the men get wet clothes or wet beds; in which caſe, a greater or leſs degree of the dyſentery will appear in proportion to the preceding heats. But the moſt ſickly part of the campaign begins about the middle or end of Auguſt, whilſt the days are ſtill hot, but the nights cool and damp, with fogs and dews: then the dyſentery prevails greatly; and though its violence is over by the beginning of October, yet the remitting fever gaining ground, continues throughout the reſt of the campaign, and never entirely ceaſes, even in winter quarters, till the froſts begin. At the beginning of a campaign, the ſickneſs is ſo uniform, that the number may be nearly predicted; but for the reſt of the ſeaſon, as the diſeaſes are then of a contagious nature, and depend much upon the heats of the ſummer, it is impoſſible to foreſee how many may fall ſick from the beginning to the end of autumn. The laſt fortnight of a campaign, if protracted, is attended with more ſickneſs than the firſt 2 months encampment; ſo that it is better to take the field a fortnight ſooner, in order to return into winter quarters ſo much the earlier. Winter expeditions, though ſevere in appearance, are attended with little ſickneſs, if the men have ſtrong ſhoes, quarters, fuel, and proviſions. Long marches in ſummer are dangerous, unleſs made in the night, or ſo early in the morning as to be over before the heat of the day.

CAMPANA, [Lat. *i. e.* a bell.] See BELL, No. I. § 9.

CAMPANACEÆ. See BOTANY, § 248, and 308.

CAMPANELLA, Thomas, a famous Italian philoſopher, born at Stilo in Calabria, in 1568. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf very early, for at the age of 13 he was a perfect maſter of the ancient orators and poets. His peculiar inclination was to philoſophy, to which he at laſt confined his whole time and ſtudy. To arrive at truth, he ſhook off the yoke of authority; and the novelty of ſome of his opinions expoſed him to many inconveniences; for at Naples he was thrown into priſon, in which he remained 27 years. During his confinement, he wrote his famous work, entitled *Atheiſmus triumphatus*. Being at length ſet at liberty, he went to Paris, where he was graciouſly received by Louis XIII. and cardinal Richelieu; the latter procured him a penſion of 2000 livres, and often conſulted him on the affairs of Italy. Campanella paſſed the remainder of his days in a monaſtery at Paris, and died in 1639.

CAMPANI, Matthew, of Spoletto, curate at Rome, wrote a curious treatiſe on the art of cut-

fingglaſſes for ſpectacles, and made ſeveral improvements in optics, aſſiſted by his brother and pupil Joſeph. He died after 1658.

(1.) CAMPANIA, a town of Italy, in Naples, 25 m. S. E. of the city of Naples. Lon. 15. 30. E. Lat. 40. 40. N.

(2.) CAMPANIA, or CAMPAGNA DI ROMA, anciently called LATIUM, a province of Italy, bounded on the W. by the Tiber and the ſea; on the S. W. by the ſea; on the S. by Terra di Lavoro; on the E. by Abruzzo; and, on the N. by Sabina. Though the ſoil is good, it produces little or nothing, on account of the heavy duties on corn; and though the waters are good, the air is unwholeſome. It is ſubject to the Pope, and is about 60 miles long, on the Mediterranean ſea. It has been generally thought that the air of this country hath ſomething in it peculiarly noxious during ſummer; but Mr Condamine is of opinion that it is not more unhealthy than any other marſhy country. "After the invaſion of the Goths, (ſays he) in the 5th and 6th centuries, this corruption of the air began to manifeſt itſelf. The bed of the Tiber, being covered from the accumulated ruins of the edifices of ancient Rome, could not but riſe conſiderably. But what permits us not to doubt of this fact is, that the ancient and well-preſerved pavement of the Pantheon and its portico is overflowed every winter; that the water even riſes there ſometimes to the height of 8 or 10 feet; and that we cannot ſuppoſe that the ancient Romans ſhould have built a temple in a place ſo low as to be covered with the waters of the Tiber on the leaſt inundation. It is evident, then, that the level of the bed of the river is raiſed ſeveral feet; which could not have happened without forming there a kind of dikes or bars. The choaking up of its canal neceſſarily occaſioned the overflow and reflux of its waters in ſuch places as till then had not been ſubject to inundations; to theſe overflowings of the Tiber were added all the waters that eſcaped out of the ancient aqueducts, the ruins of which are ſtill to be ſeen, and which were entirely deſtroyed by Totila. What need, therefore, of any thing more to infect the air, in a hot climate, than the exhalations of ſuch a maſs of ſtagnating waters, deprived of any diſcharge, and become the receptacle of a thouſand impurities, as well as the grave of ſeveral millions both of men and animals? The evil could not but increaſe from the ſame cauſes while Rome was expoſed to the incurſions and devaſtations of the Lombards, the Normans, and the Saracens, which laſted ſeveral centuries. The air was become ſo infectious there at the beginning of the 13th century, that Pope Innocent III. wrote, that few people at Rome arrived at the age of 40 years, and that nothing was more uncommon there than to ſee a perſon of 60." A very ſhort time after, the popes transferred the ſeat of their reſidence to Avignon: during the 72 years they remained there, Rome became a deſert; the monaſteries were converted into ſtables; and Gregory XI. on his return to Rome, in 1376, hardly counted 30,000 inhabitants. It is only ſince the time of Pius V. and Sextus V. at the end of the 16th century, that the popes have employed the neceſſary methods for purifying the air of Rome and its environs, by procuring proper diſcharges for the waters, deepening up the humid and marſhy grounds, and conveying the banks of the Tiber and other places reputed uninhabitable with ſuperb edifices. Since that time a perſon may dwell at Rome, and go in or out of it at all ſeaſons of the year."

(3.) CAMPANIA. See CAMPAIGN, § 1.

CAMPANIFORM, *adj.* [of *campana*, a bell, and *forma*, Lat.] A term uſed of flowers, which are in the ſhape of a bell. *Hort.*

CAMPANINI, a name given to an Italian marble dug out of the mountains of Carrara, becauſe when it is worked, it ſounds like a bell.

(1.) CAMPANULA, the BELL FLOWER, a genus of the monogynia order, in the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 29th order, *Campanaceæ*. The corolla is campanulated, with its fundus cleft up by the valves that ſupport the ſtamina; the ſtigma is trifid; the capſule inferior, or below the receptacle of the flower, opening and emitting the ſeeds by lateral pores. Of this genus there are no fewer than 41 ſpecies, but the following are the moſt worthy of attention:

1. CAMPANULA CANARIENSIS, with an oval leaf and tuberous root, is a native of the Canary iſlands. It hath a thick fleſhy root of an irregular form; ſometimes running downward like a parſnip, at other times dividing into ſeveral knobs near the top; and when any part of the root is broken, a milky juice iſſues at the wound. From the crown of the root ariſes one, 2, 3, or more ſtalks, in proportion to the ſize of the root; but that in the centre is generally larger, and riſes higher than the others. Theſe ſtalks are very tender, round, and of a pale green; their joints are far diſtant from each other; and when the roots are ſtrong, the ſtalks will riſe to 10 feet, ſending out ſeveral lateral branches. At each joint they are garniſhed with 2, 3, or 4 ſpear-ſhaped leaves, with a ſharp pointed beard on each ſide. They are of a ſea-green; and, when they firſt come out, are covered ſlightly with an aſh-coloured pounce. From the joints of the ſtalk the flowers are produced, which are the perfect bell ſhape, and hang downward; they are of a flame colour, marked with ſtripes of a browniſh red: the flower is divided into 5 parts; at the bottom of each is ſeated a nectarium, covered with a white tranſparent ſkin, much reſembling thoſe of the crown imperial, but ſmaller. The flowers begin to open at the beginning of October, and there is often a ſucceſſion of them till March. The ſtalks decay to the root in June, and new ones ſpring up in Auguſt.

2. CAMPANULA DECURRENS, the peach-leaved bell flower, is a native of the northern parts of Europe: of this there are ſome with white, and ſome with blue flowers, and ſome with double flowers of both colours. Theſe laſt have of late been propagated in ſuch abundance as to have almoſt baniſhed the ſingle from the gardens: thoſe with ſingle flowers.

3. CAMPANULA HYBRIDA, or common Venus's looking-glaſs, ſeldom riſes more than ſix inches, with a ſtalk branching from the bottom upwards, and garniſhed with oval leaves ſtanding cloſe to the ſtalks, from the baſe of which the branch

anches are produced, which are terminated by owers very like the SPECULUM. This was formerly cultivated in the gardens; but ſince the eculum hath been introduced, it hath almoſt pplanted this; for the other is a much taller ant, and the flowers larger, though of a leſs eautiful colour.

4. CAMPANULA LATIFOLIA, or greateſt bell ower, hath a perennial root, compoſed of many eſhy fibres that abound with a milky juice. rom theſe ariſe ſeveral ſtrong, round ſingle ſtalks, hich never put out branches, but are garniſhed ith oval ſpear-ſhaped leaves ſlightly indented on eir edges. Towards the upper part of the ſtalk e flowers come out ſingly upon ſhort foot-ſtalks; eir colours are blue, purple, and white.

5. CAMPANULA MEDIUM, the Canterbury bell ower, is a biennial plant, which periſhes ſoon ter it has ripened its ſeeds. It grows natural in e woods of Italy and Auſtria; but is cultivated the Britiſh gardens for the beauty of its flowers, hich are blue, purple, white, and ſtriped, with ouble flowers of all the colours. It has oblong, ough, hairy leaves, ſerrated on their edges: from e centre of theſe riſes a ſtiff, hairy, furrowed alk, about two feet high, ſending out ſeveral teral branches garniſhed with long, narrow, airy leaves ſawed on their edges. From the tting on of theſe leaves proceed the foot-ſtalks f the flowers; thoſe, which are on the lower art of the ſtalk and branches, diminiſhing gradually in their length upward, and thereby formg a ſort of pyramid. The flowers of this kind e very large, and make a fine appearance. The eds ripen in September, and the plants decay oon after.

6. CAMPANULA PYRAMIDALIS hath thick tuerous roots filled with a milky juice; it ſends out trong ſmooth, upright ſtalks, which riſe to the eight of 4 feet, garniſhed with ſmooth oblong eaves a little indented at the edges. The flowers re produced from the ſides of the ſtalks, and are egularly ſet on for more than half their length, orming a ſort of pyramid; theſe are large, open, nd ſhaped like a bell. The moſt common colour f the flowers is blue, though ſome are white, but he former are much eſteemed.

7. CAMPANULA RAPUNCULUS, the rampion, ath roundiſh fleſhy roots, which are eatable, and nuch cultivated in France for ſallads; ſome years aſt, it was cultivated in the Engliſh gardens for he ſame purpoſe, but is now generally neglected. t is a native of Britain; but the roots of the wild ort never grow to half the ſize of thoſe which are ultivated.

8. CAMPANULA SPECULUM with yellow eyeright leaves, is an annual plant with ſlender ſtalks iſing a foot high, branching out on every ſide, nd garniſhed with oblong leaves a little curled on heir edges; from the wings of the leaves come ut the flowers ſitting cloſe to the ſtalks, which re of a beautiful purple inclining to a violet coour. In the evening, they contract and fold into a pentagonal figure; from whence it is by ſome alled VIOLA PENTAGONIA, or FIVE-CORNERED IOLET.

9. CAMPANULA TRACHELIUM, with nettle eaves, has a perennial root, which ſends up ſeveral ſtiff hairy ſtalks having two ribs or angles. Theſe put out a few ſhort ſide branches, garniſhed with oblong hairy leaves deeply ſawed on their edges. Toward the upper part of the ſtalks, the flowers come out alternately upon ſhort trifid foot-ſtalks having hairy empalements. The colours of the flowers are a deep and pale blue and white, with double flowers of the ſame; the double flowered kind only merit a place in gardens.

(II.) CAMPANULÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The firſt ſpecies is propagated by parting the roots, which muſt be done with caution: for if they are broken or wounded, the milky juice will flow out plentifully; and if planted before the wounds are ſkinned over, it occaſions their rotting: therefore when any of them are broken, they ſhould be laid in the green-houſe a few days to heal. Theſe roots muſt not be too often parted, if they are expected to flower well; for by this means they are weakened. The beſt time for tranſplanting and parting their roots is in July, ſoon after the ſtalks are decayed. They muſt not be planted in rich earth, otherwiſe they will be very luxuriant in branches, and have but few flowers. They ſucceed beſt in a light ſandy loam, mixed with a fourth part of ſcreened lime-rubbiſh: when the roots are firſt planted the pots ſhould be placed in the ſhade, and unleſs the ſeaſon is very dry they ſhould not be watered; for during the time they are inactive, wet is very injurious to them. About the middle of Auguſt, the roots will begin to put out fibres; at which time, if the pots are placed under a hot-bed frame, and, as the nights grow cool, covered with the glaſſes, but opened every day to enjoy the free air, it will greatly forward them for flowering, and increaſe their ſtrength; when the ſtalks appear, they muſt be now and then refreſhed with water; but it muſt not be given too often, nor in too great quantity. The plants thus managed, by the middle of September will have grown ſo tall as not to be kept any longer under the glaſs frame; they muſt, therefore, be removed into a dry airy glaſs-caſe, where they may enjoy the air in free mild weather, but ſcreened from the cold. During winter they muſt be frequently refreſhed with water, and guarded from froſt; and, in ſpring, when the ſtalks begin to decay, the pots ſhould be ſet abroad in the ſhade, and not watered. The 2d, 4th, 5th, and 9th ſpecies are ſo eaſily propagated by parting the roots, or by ſeeds, that no particular directions for the culture need be given. The 3d and 8th ſpecies are eaſily propagated by ſeeds, which they produce in plenty. If theſe, and the Venus navelwort, dwarf lychnis, candytuft, and other low annual flowers, are properly mixed in the border of the flower-garden, and ſown at different ſeaſons, ſo as to have a ſucceſſion of them in flower, they will make an agreeable variety. If theſe ſeeds are ſown in autumn, the plants will flower early in the ſpring; but if ſown in ſpring, they will not flower till the middle of June; and if a third ſowing is performed about the middle of May, the plants will flower in Auguſt; but from theſe, good ſeeds muſt not be expected. The PYRAMIDALIS, (N. 6.) is cultivated to adorn halls, and to place before chimnies in ſummer when it is in flower, for which purpoſe

gofe there is no plant more proper; for when the roots are ſtrong, they will ſend out 4 or 5 ſtalks which will riſe as many feet high, adorned with flowers a great part of their length. When the flowers begin to open, the pots are removed into the rooms, where, being ſhaded from the ſun and rain, the flowers continue long in beauty; and if the pots are every night removed into a more airy ſituation, but not expoſed to heavy rains, the flowers will be fairer, and continue much longer. Thoſe plants which are thus treated, are ſeldom fit for the purpoſe the following ſeaſon; therefore a ſupply of young ones muſt be annually raiſed. The plant may be propagated either by dividing the roots or by ſeeds, but the latter produce the moſt vigorous and beſt flowering plants. The ſeeds muſt be ſown in autumn in boxes or pots filled with light undunged earth, and placed in the open air till the froſt or hard rains come on: then they muſt be placed under a hot-bed frame, where they may be ſheltered from both; but in mild weather the glaſſes ſhould be drawn off every day: with this management the plants will come up early in ſpring, when they muſt be removed out of the frame, and placed firſt in a warm ſituation; but, when the ſeaſon becomes warm, they ſhould be ſo placed as to have the morning ſun only. In September the leaves of the plants will begin to decay, at which time they ſhould be tranſplanted; therefore there muſt be one or two beds prepared, in proportion to the number of plants. Theſe beds muſt be in a warm ſituation, and the earth light, ſandy, and without any mixture of dung. The plants muſt be taken out of the pots very carefully, ſo as not to bruiſe their roots; for they are very tender, and on being broken the milky juice will flow out plentifully, which will greatly weaken them.—They ſhould be planted about ſix inches diſtant each way, with the head of the root half an inch below the ſurface. If the ſeaſon proves dry, they muſt be gently watered 3 or 4 days after they are planted; the beds ſhould alſo be covered with mats in the day, which ſhould be taken off at night to let the dew fall on them. Towards the end of November the beds ſhould be covered with old tanners bark to keep out the froſt; and where there is not conveniency for covering them with frames, they ſhould be arched over with hoops, that in ſevere weather they may be covered with mats. In ſpring the mats muſt be removed, and, the following ſummer, the plants kept free from weeds. In autumn the earth ſhould be ſtirred between them, ſome freſh earth ſpread over the beds, and the plants covered in winter as before. In theſe beds the plants may remain two years, during which time they are to be treated in the manner before directed. The roots will now be ſtrong enough to flower; ſo, in September they ſhould be carefully taken up, and ſome of the moſt promiſing carefully planted in pots; the others may be planted in warm borders, or in a freſh bed, at a greater diſtance than before, to allow them room to grow. Thoſe plants which are potted ſhould be ſheltered in winter from great rains and hard froſts, otherwiſe they will be in danger of rotting, or at leaſt will be ſo weakened as not to flower with any ſtrength the following ſummer; and thoſe which are planted in the full ground, ſhould have ſome old tanners bark laid round them to prevent the froſt from getting to the roots. The RAPUNCULUS, (N. 7.) which is cultivated for its eſculent roots, may be propagated by ſeeds, which are to be ſown in a fruit border; when the plants are about an inch high, the ground ſhould be hoed to cut up the weeds, and thin the plants, to the diſtance of 3 or 4 inches; and when the weeds come up again they muſt be hoed over to deſtroy them: this, if well performed in dry weather, will make the ground clean for a long time; ſo that, being three times repeated, it will keep the plants clean till winter, which is the ſeaſon for eating the roots, when they may be taken up for uſe as wanted. They will continue good till April, at which time they ſend out their ſtalks, when the roots become hard.

* CAMPANULATE. *adj.* The ſame with *campaniform.*

CAMPANUS SINUS, in ancient geography, the gulf of Naples.

CAMPASPE, a moſt beautiful concubine of Alexander the Great, who ordered Apelles to draw her picture naked. But the painter, during the operation, falling deſperately in love with her, the conqueror of the world conquered his own paſſion ſo far, as to give her up to him.

(1.) CAMPBELL, Archibald, earl and marquis of Argyle, was the ſon of Archibald earl of Argyle, by lady Anne Douglas, daughter of William earl of Morton. He was born in 1598; and educated in the Proteſtant religion, according to the ſtricteſt rules of the church of Scotland, as eſtabliſhed immediately after the reformation. During the commonwealth he was induced to ſubmit to its authority. Upon the reſtoration, he was tried for his compliance; a crime common to him with the whole nation, and ſuch a one as the moſt loyal and affectionate ſubject might frequently by violence be induced to commit. To make this compliance appear voluntary on his part, letters were produced in court, which he had wrote to Albemarle, while that general governed Scotland, and which contained expreſſions of the moſt cordial attachment to the eſtabliſhed government. But, beſides the general indignation excited by Albemarle's diſcovery of his private correſpondence, it was thought, that even the higheſt demonſtrations of affection might, during jealous times, be exacted as a neceſſary mark of compliance from a perſon of ſuch diſtinction as Argyle; and could not, by any equitable conſtruction, imply the crime of treaſon. The parliament, however, ſcrupled not to paſs ſentence upon him, May 25, 1661, and he ſuffered with great conſtancy and courage.

(2.) CAMPBELL, Archibald, earl of Argyle, ſon of the preceding, (N. 1.) had from his youth diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his loyalty and attachment to the royal family. Though his father was head of the covenanters, he himſelf refuſed to concur in any of their meaſures; and when a commiſſion of colonel was given him by the convention of ſtates, he forbore to act upon it till it ſhould be ratified by the king. By his reſpectful behaviour, as well as by his ſervices, he made himſelf acceptable to Charles I. when that prince

s in Scotland, and even after the battle of Worter, all the misfortunes which attended the al cauſe could not engage him to deſert it. der Middleton he obſtinately perſevered to hah and infeſt the victorious Engliſh; and it was till he received orders from that general, that would ſubmit to accept of a capitulation. ch jealouſy of his loyal attachments was enterned by the commonwealth and protector, that retence was ſoon after fallen upon to commit n to priſon; and his confinement was rigorouſcontinued till the reſtoration. The king, ſenle of his ſervices, had remitted to him his far's forfeiture, and created him earl of Argyle; l when a moſt unjuſt ſentence was paſſed upon the Scots parliament, Charles had anew remitit. In the ſubſequent part of this reign Arle behaved himſelf dutifully; and though he med not diſpoſed to go all lengths with the rt, he always appeared, even in his oppoſition, an of mild diſpoſitions and peaceable deportnt. A parliament was ſummoned at Edingh in ſummer 1681, and the duke was appointcommiſſioner. Beſides granting money to the g, and voting the indefeaſible right of ſucceſn, this parliament enacted a *teſt*, which all pers poſſeſſed of offices, civil, military, or eccleical, were bound to take. In this teſt the g's ſupremacy was aſſerted, the covenant reinced, paſſive obedience aſſented to, and all igations diſclaimed of endeavouring any alteran in civil or eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhments. This s the ſtate of the teſt as propoſed by the courts; but the country party propoſed alſo a clauſe adherence to the Proteſtant religion, which uld not with decency be rejected. The whole s of an enormous length, conſidered as an oath; l, what was worſe, a confeſſion of faith was re ratified which had been impoſed a little afthe reformation, and which contained many icles altogether forged by the parliament and ion. Among others, the doctrine of *reſiſtance* s inculcated; ſo that the teſt being voted in a ry, was found on examination to be a medley abſurdity and contradiction. Though the rtiers could not reject the clauſe of adhering the Proteſtant religion, they propoſed, as a reſite mark of reſpect, that all princes of the od ſhould be exempted from taking that oath. is exception was zealouſly oppoſed by Argyle; o obſerved that the ſole danger to be dreaded the Proteſtant religion muſt proceed from the verſion of the royal family. By inſiſting on h topics, he drew on himſelf the ſecret indigion of the duke of York, of which he ſoon felt fatal conſequences. When Argyle took the as a privy counſellor, he ſubjoined, in the te's preſence, an explanation which he had be-hand communicated to that prince, and which believed to have been approved by him. It was. heſe words. "I have conſidered the teſt, and very deſirous of giving obedience as far as I . I am confident that the parliament never nded to impoſe *contradictory oaths*; therefore ink no man can explain it but for himſelf. Acdingly I take it as far as it is *conſiſtent with it*and the Proteſtant religion. And I do declare, t I mean not to bind myſelf, in my ſtation, and in a lawful way, from wiſhing and endeavouring any alteration, which I think to the advantage of church or ſtate, and not repugnant to the Proteſtant religion and my loyalty: and this I underſtand as a part of my oath." The duke heard it with great tranquillity: no one took the leaſt offence: Argyle was admitted to ſit that day in council; and it was impoſſible to imagine that a capital offence had been committed, where occaſion ſeemed not to have been given ſo much as for a frown or reprimand. The earl was not a little ſurpriſed, however, a few days after, to find that a warrant was iſſued for committing him to priſon; that he was indicted for high treaſon, leaſing-making, and perjury; and that from the innocent words abovementioned an accuſation was extracted, by which he was to forfeit life, honours, and fortune. It is needleſs to enter into particulars, where the iniquity of the whole is ſo evidently apparent. Though the ſword of *injuſtice* was diſplayed, even her ſemblance was not put on; and the forms of law were preſerved to ſanctify, or rather aggravate, the oppreſſion. Of five judges, three did not ſcruple to find the guilt of treaſon and leaſing-making to be incurred by the priſoner: a jury of 25 noblemen gave verdict againſt him; and the king being conſulted, ordered the ſentence to be pronounced, but the execution of it to be ſuſpended till further orders. Argyle, however, ſaw no reaſon to truſt to the juſtice or mercy of ſuch enemies: He made his eſcape from priſon, and, till he could find a ſhip for Holland, concealed himſelf for ſome time in London. The king heard of his lurking place, but would not ſuffer him to be arreſted. All the parts, however, of his ſentence, ſo far as the government in Scotland had power, were rigorouſly executed; his eſtate was confiſcated, his arms reverſed and torn. Having got over to Holland, he remained there during the remaining part of the reign of Charles II. But thinking himſelf at liberty, before the coronation of James II. to exert himſelf in order to recover the conſtitution by force of arms, he concerted meaſures with the duke of Monmouth, and went to Scotland, to aſſemble his friends: but not meeting with the ſucceſs he expected, he was taken priſoner; and being carried to Edinburgh, was beheaded upon his former unjuſt ſentence, June 30, 1685. He ſhowed great conſtancy and courage under his misfortunes: on the day of his death he ate his dinner very chearfully: and, according to cuſtom, ſlept after it a quarter of an hour or more, very ſoundly. At the place of execution, he made a ſhort, grave, and religious ſpeech; and, after ſolemnly declaring that he forgave all his enemies, ſubmitted to death with great firmneſs.

(3.) CAMPBELL, Archibald, firſt duke of Argyle, ſon to the preceding, (N. 2.) was an active promoter of the revolution. He came over with the Prince of Orange; was admitted into the convention as Earl of Argyle, though his father's attainder was not reverſed; and in the claim of rights the ſentence againſt him was declared to be, what moſt certainly it was, a reproach upon the nation. The eſtabliſhment of the crown upon the Prince and Princeſs of Orange being carried by a great majority in the Scottiſh convention, the

the earl was ſent from the nobility, with Sir James Montgomery and Sir John Dalrymple from the barons and boroughs, to offer the crown, in the name of the convention, to their Majeſties, and tendered them the coronation oath; for which, and many other eminent ſervices, he was admitted a member of the privy council, and, in 1696, made one of the Lords of the Treaſury. He was afterwards made a colonel of the Scots horſe guards; and, in 1694, one of the extraordinary Lords of Seſſion. He was likewiſe created Duke of Argyle, Marquis of Kintyre and Lorn, &c. in 1701. He ſent over a regiment to Flanders for king William's ſervice, the officers of which were chiefly of his own name and family, who bravely diſtinguiſhed themſelves through the whole courſe of the war. He married Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Lionel Talmaſh of Helmingham in Suffolk, by whom he left iſſue two ſons, (See N. 4. and 6.) and a daughter, Lady Anne, married to James earl of Bute.

(4.) CAMPBELL, Archibald, 3d Duke of Argyle, the youngeſt ſon of the preceding, (N° 3.) was born at Hamhouſe, in England, in June 1682, and educated at the Univerſity of Glaſgow. He afterwards ſtudied the law at Utrecht; but upon his father being created a Duke, he betook himſelf to a military life, and ſerved ſome time under the duke of Marlborough. Upon quitting the army, he applied to the acquiſition of that knowledge which would enable him to make a figure in the political world. In 1705, he was conſtituted treaſurer of Scotland, and made a conſiderable figure in Parliament, though he was only 23 years of age. In 1706, he was appointed one of the commiſſioners for treating of the Union; and created Earl of Iſlay, Lord Ornſay, &c. In 1708, he was made an extraordinary Lord of Seſſion; and when the Union was effected, he was choſen one of the 16 Peers for Scotland, in the firſt Parliament of Great Britain; and was conſtantly elected to every ſucceeding Parliament till his death, except the 4th. In 1710, he was made lord juſtice general: in 1711, he was called to the privy council; and upon the acceſſion of George I. he was nominated lord regiſter of Scotland. When the rebellion broke out in 1715, he took arms, in defence of the houſe of Hanover, and by his prudent conduct in the Weſt Highlands, he prevented General Gordon, at the head of 3000 men, from penetrating into the country, and raiſing levies. He afterwards joined his brother at Stirling, and was wounded at the battle of Dumblain. In 1725, he was appointed keeper of the privy ſeal; and, from this time, he was entruſted with the management of Scottiſh affairs. In 1734, upon his reſigning the privy ſeal, he was made keeper of the great ſeal, which office he enjoyed till his death. Upon the death of his brother John, (N° 6.) he ſucceeded to the dukedom, and all his other titles. He was elected chancellor of the Univerſity of Aberdeen; and laboured to promote the intereſt of that, as well as of the other univerſities of Scotland. He particularly encouraged the ſchool of phyſic at Edinburgh, which has now acquired ſo high a reputation. Having the chief management of Scotch affairs, he was alſo extremely attentive to promote the trade, manufactures, and improvements of his country. It was by his advice that, after the rebellion in 1745, the Highlanders were employed in the royal army. He was a man of great endowments both natural and acquired, well verſed in the laws of his country, and poſſeſſed conſiderable parliamentary abilities. He was likewiſe eminent for his ſkill in human nature, had great talents for converſation, and had collected one of the moſt valuable private libraries in Great Britain. He built a very magnificent ſeat at Inverary. The faculties of his mind continued ſound and vigorous till his death, April 15, 1761, in his 79th year. He was married, but had no iſſue: and was ſucceeded in his titles and eſtates, by John Campbell, ſon of the hon. John Campbell of Mamore, who was the 2d ſon of Archibald the 9th earl of Argyle.

(5.) CAMPBELL, George, D. D. and F. R. S. late Principal of Mariſchal College, Aberdeen, was the ſon of the rev. Colin Campbell, one of the miniſters of that city; and was born in 1719, and educated in it.—In 1750, he was appointed miniſter of Banchory-Tarnan; in 1756, tranſlated to Aberdeen; in 1759, choſen principal of Mariſchal College, and in 1771, profeſſor of divinity. He married Miſs Grace Farquharſon of Whitehaugh, who died in 1795, without iſſue. He himſelf died, April 6, 1796, aged 77. As a public teacher he was long admired for the clear and copious manner, in which he illuſtrated the great doctrines and precepts of religion, and the ſtrength and energy with which he enforced them. Convinced of the truth and infinite conſequences of what revelation teaches, he was anxious to carry the ſame conviction to the minds of his hearers; and delivered his diſcourſes with that zeal, which is the reſult of ſincerity combined with clearneſs of judgment. As an author, his reputation is ſpread through every civilized nation. He early entered the liſts, as a champion for Chriſtianity against one of its moſt acute opponents: and while he triumphantly refuted his arguments, commanded reſpect by the handſome and dexterous manner in which he conducted his defence. In politics he avoided thoſe extremes into which men of warm paſſions are too apt to run. He cheriſhed that patriotiſm, which, while it leads its poſſeſſor to endeavour to promote the greateſt poſſible happineſs of his own country, is ſtill ſubſervient to univerſal benevolence. Firmly attached to the Britiſh conſtitution, he was animated with that love of liberty which it inſpires, and was equally averſe to deſpotiſm and popular anarchy. Party ſpirit he conſidered as having an unhappy tendency to ſubvert the beſt principles of the human mind, and to clothe the moſt iniquitous actions with the moſt ſpecious appearances. The following is a liſt of his works: 1. *A Sermon before the Synod of Aberdeen:* 1752, 8vo. 2. *An Eſſay on Miracles*, in anſwer to Mr Hume: 1761. This work was quickly tranſlated into French, Dutch, and German. 3. *A Sermon before the Society for promoting Chriſtian knowledge:* 1771. 4. Another *before the Synod of Aberdeen.* 5. *The Philoſophy of Rhetoric:* in 2 vols 8vo, 1776. In this work the laws of elegant compoſition and criticiſm are laid down with great perſpicuity. 6. *A Sermon, the Allegiance, preached on the king's faſt day:* 1779, 4to. Of this work 6000 copies, enlarged and

otes, were printed in 12mo, at the expence of overnment, and ſent to America; but the Amecan revolution was by that time too far advanced to be ſtopt by any writings whatever. 7. *An ddreſs to the people of Scotland, on the Alarms iſed by what is called the Popiſh Bill:* 8vo, 1780. his is a powerful diſſuaſive from bigotry, and very ſpecies of religious perſecution. 8. *A tranſtion of the Goſpels, with preliminary Diſſertations:* vols 8vo, 1793. This was his laſt and greateſt ork; the fruit of copious erudition and unwearid application, for about 30 years: and will lead ie attentive reader to regret that the other books f the New Teſtament had not been elucidated by ie ſame judicious author.

(6.) CAMPBELL, John, 2d duke of Argyle and reenwich, eldeſt ſon of Archibald, (N° 3.) was rn Oct. 10, 1680; and on the very day when his randfather ſuffered at Edinburgh, fell from a winow 3 ſtories high without receiving any hurt. At ie age of 15, he had made a conſiderable progreſs claſſical learning. His father then perceived and ncouraged his military diſpoſition, and introduced im to king William, who in 1694 gave him the ommand of a regiment. In this ſituation he remained till the death of his father in 1703; when ecoming duke of Argyle, he was ſoon after ſworn f queen Anne's privy council, made captain of ie Scotch horſe guards, and appointed one of the traordinary lords of ſeſſion. In 1704, the queen, reviving the Scottiſh order of the thiſtle, inſtalled ie duke one of the knights, and ſoon after appointed him high commiſſioner to the Scotch parament; where, being of great ſervice in promoting the intended union, he was on his return reated a peer of England, and in 1710 was made night of the garter. He firſt diſtinguiſhed himelf at the battle of Oudenard; where he commanded as brigadier-general, with all the bravery f youth and the conduct of a veteran officer. le was preſent under the duke of Marlborough t the ſiege of Ghent, and took poſſeſſion of the own. He had alſo a conſiderable ſhare in the ictory of Malplaquet, by diſlodging the French om the wood of Sart, and gaining a poſt of great onſequence. In this ſharp engagement, ſeveral ullet balls paſſed through the duke's clothes, at, and periuke. Soon after he was ſent to take ie command in Spain; and, after the reduction f Port Mahon, he returned to England. Having ow a ſeat in the houſe of lords, he cenſured the eaſures of the miniſtry with ſuch freedom, that ll his places were diſpoſed of to other noblemen: ut at the acceſſion of George I. he recovered his ifluence. At the breaking out of the rebellion in 715, he was made commander in chief in North ritain; and was the principal cauſe of the total xtinction, at that time, of the rebellion in Scotnd, with little bloodſhed. In direct oppoſition o that part of the army he commanded, at the ead of all his Campbells was placed Campbell arl of Braidalbin, a nobleman of the ſame family nd kindred. The conſequence was, that both eta of Campbells, from family affection, refuſed o ſtrike a ſtroke, and retired out of the battle. le arrived at London March 6th, 1716, and was n high favour: but, to the ſurpriſe of people of ll ranks, he was in a few months diveſted of all his employments; and from this period to 1718, he ſignalized himſelf in a civil capacity, by his uncorrupted patriotiſm and manly eloquence. In the beginning of 1719, he was again admitted into favour, appointed lord ſteward of the houſhold, and in April following was created duke of Greenwich. He continued in the adminiſtration during all the remaining part of that reign; and, after the acceſſion of king George II, till April 1740; when he delivered a ſpeech with ſuch warmth, that the miniſtry being highly offended, he was again diſmiſſed from his employments. To theſe, however, on the change of the miniſtry, he was ſoon reſtored; but not approving of the meaſures of the new miniſtry more than thoſe of the old, he gave up all his poſts for the laſt time, and never after engaged in affairs of ſtate. He now enjoyed privacy and retirement; and died of a paralytic diſorder on the 4th Oct. 1743. A very noble monument was erected in Weſtminſter-Abbey, executed by the ingenious Roubilliac, to his memory. Though never firſt miniſter, he was a very able ſtateſman and politician; and ſteadily and inflexibly fixed in thoſe principles he believed to be right. His delicacy and honour were ſo great, that it hurt him to be even ſuſpected; witneſs that application ſaid to be made to him by one of the adherents of the Stuart family before the laſt rebellion, in order to gain his intereſt; which was conſiderable both in Scotland and England. He immediately ſent the letter to the ſecretary of ſtate; and it vexed him much even to have an application made him, leſt any perſon ſhould think him capable of acting a double part. When he thought meaſures wrong or corrupt; he cared not who was the author; however great or powerful he might be; witneſs his boldly attacking the great duke of Marlborough in the houſe of lords, about his forage and army contracts in Flanders, in the very zenith of his power and popularity, though in all other reſpects he was the moſt able general of his time. The duke of Argyle, on all occaſions, ſpoke well, with a firm, manly, and noble eloquence; and ſeems to deſerve the character given him by Pope:

Argyle the ſtate's whole thunder born to wield,
And ſhake alike the ſenate and the field.

In private life, the duke's conduct was highly exemplary. He was an affectionate huſband and an indulgent maſter. He ſeldom parted with his ſervants till age had rendered them incapable of their employments; and then he made proviſion for their ſubſiſtence. He was liberal to the poor, and particularly to perſons of merit in diſtreſs: but though he was ready to patronize deſerving perſons, he was extremely cautious not to deceive any by laviſh promiſes, or leading them to form vain expectations. He was a ſtrict economiſt, and paid his tradeſmen punctually every month; and though he maintained the dignity of his rank, he took care that no part of his income ſhould be waſted in empty pomp or unneceſſary expences. He was twice married; and left five daughters, but no male iſſue. The titles of duke and earl of Greenwich and baron of Chatham became extinct at his death; but in his other titles he was ſucceeded by his younger brother, (N° 4.) Archibald earl of Ilay.

(7.) CAMPBELL, John, L. L. D. an eminent hiſtorical, biographical, and political writer, was born at Edinburgh, March 8, 1707-8. He was the 4th ſon of Robert Campbell of Glenlyon, Eſq. by Eliz. Smith of Windſor in Berkſhire, a deſcendant of the poet Waller. At 5 years of age, he was brought from Scotland to Windſor, where he received his education; and was placed as clerk to an attorney. This profeſſion, however, he never followed; but by a cloſe application to ſcience, became qualified to appear with great advantage in the literary world. In 1736, before he had completed his 30th year, he gave to the public, in 2 vols. folio, *The Military Hiſtory of Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough*, enriched with maps, plans, and cuts. The reputation hence acquired, occaſioned him ſoon after to be ſolicited to take a part in the *Ancient Univerſal Hiſtory*. Whilſt employed in this capital work, Mr Campbell found leiſure to entertain the world with other productions. In 1739, he publiſhed the *Travels and Adventures of Edward Brown, Eſq;* 8vo. and *Memoirs of the Baſhaw Duke de Ripperda;* 8vo; reprinted, with improvements, in 1740. Theſe memoirs were followed, in 1741, by the *Conciſe Hiſtory of Spaniſh America;* 8vo. In 1742, he publiſhed *A Letter to a Friend in the Country, on the Publication of Thurloe's State Papers;* giving an account of their diſcovery, importance, and utility: alſo the 1ſt and 2d vols of his *Lives of the Engliſh Admirals, and other eminent Britiſh Seamen*. The two remaining vols. were completed in 1744; and the whole, not long after, was tranſlated into German. This was the firſt of Mr Campbell's works to which he prefixed his name; and it is a performance of great acknowledged merit. In 1743, he publiſhed *Hermippus Revived*; a 2d edition of which, much improved and enlarged, came out, in 1749, entitled, "*Hermippus Redivivus: or, The Sage's Triumph over old Age and the Grave:* wherein a method is laid down for prolonging the life and vigour of man: Including a Commentary upon an ancient Inſcription, in which this great ſecret is revealed; ſupported by many authorities. The whole interſperſed with a great variety of remarkable and well atteſted relations." This extraordinary tract had its origin in a foreign publication; but it was wrought up to perfection by the additional ingenuity and learning of Mr Campbell. In 1744, he gave to the publit in 2 vols. folio, his *Voyages and Travels*, on Dr Harris's plan, being a very diſtinguiſhed improvement of that collection, which appeared in 1705. The time and care employed by Mr Campbell in this important undertaking, did not prevent his engaging in another great work, the *Biographia Britannica*, which began to be publiſhed in weekly numbers in 1745, and extended to 7 vols folio; but his articles were only in the firſt 4 vols; of which, Dr Kippis obſerves, they conſtitute the prime merit. When the late Mr Dodſley formed the deſign of *The Preceptor*, which appeared in 1748, Mr Campbell was aſked to aſſiſt in it. The parts written by him were the Introduction to Chronology, and the Diſcourſe on Trade and Commerce, both of which diſplayed an extenſive fund of knowledge upon theſe ſubjects. In 1750, he publiſhed the firſt ſeparate edition of his *Preſent State of Europe;* a work which had been originally begun in 1748, in the *Muſeum*, a very valuable periodical performance, printed for Dodſley. There is no production of his that has met with a better reception. It has gone through ſix editions, and fully deſerved this encouragement. The next great undertaking which called for the exertion of his abilities and learning, was *The Modern Univerſal Hiſtory*. This extenſive work was publiſhed, in detached parts, till it amounted to 16 vols folio; and a 2d edition of it, in 8vo, began to appear in 1759. The parts written by Mr Campbell were, the hiſtories of the Portugueſe, Dutch, Spaniſh, French, Swediſh, Daniſh, and Oſtend Settlements in the Eaſt Indies; and the Hiſtories of the kingdoms of Spain, Portugal, Algarve, and Navarre; and of France, from Clovis to 1656. The degree of LL.D. was very properly and honourably conferred upon him, June 18, 1754, by the univerſity of Glaſgow. His favourite work was, *A political ſurvey of Great Britain*, 2 vols 4to, publiſhed a ſhort time before his death; in which the extent of his knowledge, and his patriotic ſpirit, are equally conſpicuous. Dr Campbell's reputation was not confined to his own country, but extended to the remoteſt parts of Europe. As a ſtriking inſtance of this, in 1774, the empreſs of Ruſſia honoured him with a preſent of her picture, drawn in the robes worn in that country in the days of John Baſiliowitz, grand duke of Muſcovy, who was contemporary with Q. Elizabeth. To manifeſt the doctor's ſenſe of the honour done him, a ſett of the Political Survey of Britain, bound in Morocco, highly ornamented, and accompanied with a letter deſcriptive of the triumphs and feſtivities of her reign, was forwarded to St Peterſburg, and conveyed into her hands by prince Orlof, who had reſided ſome months in this kingdom. In 1736, Dr Campbell married Elizabeth, daughter of Benjamine Vobe, of Leominſter, Gent. with whom he lived near 40 years in the greateſt conjugal happineſs. He ſeldom went abroad; but by moderate exerciſe in his garden or houſe, united with the ſtricteſt temperance, he enjoyed a good ſtate of health, though his conſtitution was delicate. His domeſtic manner of living did not preclude him from a very extenſive and honourable acquaintance. His houſe, eſpecially on a Sunday evening, was the reſort of the moſt diſtinguiſhed perſons of all ranks, and particularly of ſuch as had rendered themſelves eminent by their knowledge or love of literature. He received foreigners, who were fond of learning, with an affability and kindneſs which excited in them the higheſt reſpect and veneration; and his inſtructive and cheerful converſation made him the delight of his friends in general. He was, during the latter part of his life, agent for the province of Georgia in North America; and died in 1775, aged 68. His literary knowledge was by no means confined to the ſubjects on which he treated as an author; he was well acquainted with mathematics, and had read even much in medicine. He was eminently verſed in the different parts of ſacred literature; and his acquaintance with the languages extended not only to the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin among the ancient, and to the French, Italian, and Spaniſh, Portugueſe, and Dutch, among the moderns; he

ut likewiſe to the Oriental tongues. He was particularly fond of the Greek language. His attainment of ſuch a variety of knowledge was exceedingly aſſiſted by a memory ſurpriſingly retentive, and which indeed aſtoniſhed every perſon with whom he was converſant. In communicating his ideas, he had an uncommon readineſs and facility; and the ſtyle of his works was perſpicuous, eaſy, flowing, and harmonious. To all theſe accompliſhments, Dr Campbell added the more important virtues of a moral and pious character. His diſpoſition was gentle, and his manners obliging. He was the tendereſt of huſbands, a moſt indulgent parent, a kind maſter, a firm and ſincere friend. To his great Creator he paid the conſtant and ardent tribute of devotion, duty, and reverence; and in his correſpondences he ſhowed that ſenſe of piety was always neareſt his heart.

(8.) CAMPBELL, a county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by the Fluvanna, which divides it from Amherſt, E. by Charlotte and Prince Edward counties, N. E. by Buckingham, W. by Franklin and Bedford counties, and S. by Pittſylvania. It is 45 m. in length, and 30 in breadth, and contains 7,685 inhabitants, of whom 2,488 are ſlaves.

(1.) CAMPBELTON, a pariſh of Scotland, in Argyllſhire, ſo named about A. D. 1700, from the town, (N. a.) and formerly called CEANNLOCH, and KILKERRAN, from an ancient pariſh united with it. But its moſt ancient name, by which a part of it is ſtill known, was *Dalruadhain*, from its having been the capital of the DALREUDINIAN or ancient Scottiſh kingdom. See DALRUADHAIN. It conſiſts of a large ſection of the peninſula of Kintyre, about 16 Engliſh miles long from N. to S. 15 broad at the N. end, and 9 at the S. but ſomewhat narrower in the middle. The climate is mild, but the air is moiſt. The ſoil is various; partly ſand, partly arable and marſh, but chiefly improveable moſs. Bear, oats, potatoes, beans, and flax are the chief produce. About 2500 bolls of corn are imported annually. The population in 1791, as ſtated in the rev. Dr John Smith's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 8700, and had increaſed 4103 ſince 1755. The Dr eſtimates the number of houſes to be about 1200, and that of ſheep and black cattle about 5000 each. The pariſh abounds with coals, peats, and fuller's earth. For the improvement of the pariſh, Dr Smith propoſes, that the lower grounds ſhould be incloſed, and the higher ſtocked with ſheep: "But God forbid! (adds he) that the people, as in other places ſhould be obliged to remove in order to make room for ſheep. The principal proprietor (viz. the D. of Argyll) has happily diſcovered all along a marked averſion to remove his people; and often refuſed the higher offers of the few, for poſſeſſions held at inferior rents by the many." The Dr farther propoſes, the introduction of planting, the growing of wheat, the raiſing of green crops, and the eſtabliſhment of manufactures, as means of meliorating the condition of the people. He condemns the herring fiſhery, in which the people have been long employed, as "*a game of hazard*" compared with agriculture and manufactures. And he alſo thinks it would be beneficial to aboliſh their next principal buſineſs, the diſtilling of whiſky; which amounted to 26,150 gallons in 1792. "Were it not (he ſays) for preventing the temptation of ſmuggling, a duty next to a prohibition would be *mercy*." But when we conſider the very high tax upon malt liquor, the very low fare of the Highlanders in general, the coldneſs of their climate, and their habitude to this beverage, ſo long eſtabliſhed by cuſtom as to be almoſt conſtitutional, we are apt to think it would be no ſmall *cruelty* to deprive them of this "their *daily fare*," as the Dr ſtiles it; ſpecially as he acknowledges, that they "are ſeldom guilty of *exceſs*" in it, and that very few are given to drunkenneſs. Even their health, we apprehend, would be endangered by ſuch an innovation, if deprived of their chief *medicine* and only *cordial*, in a part of the country, where no ſubſtitute could be found to ſupply the deficiency.

(2.) CAMPBELTON, or } a town in the a-
(2.) CAMPBELTOWN, } bove pariſh (N. 1.), ſeated on the lake of Kilkerran, on the eaſtern ſhore of Kintyre, of which it is the capital. It has a good harbour; and is now a very conſiderable place, though within theſe ſixty years only a petty fiſhing town. It has in fact been created by the fiſhery: for it was appointed the place of rendezvous for the buſſes; and above 260 have been ſeen in the harbour at once. The inhabitants are reckoned to be upwards of 8000 in number. Campbelton has a poſt office, but Dr Smith juſtly remarks, "it is much leſs uſeful to the people and leſs productive to the revenue, than it would otherwiſe be," if there were runners to deliver the letters, to thoſe who do not know when to call for them, and whoſe letters, for want of this *ſecond ſight*, are often returned as dead. The *dawn* of manufactures is begun, 50 weavers being employed in the cotton trade, and many young girls in tambouring muſlins. Two public libraries are alſo eſtabliſhed on eaſy terms, and a good ſchool, with two teachers. This town was erected into a royal burgh in 1701, and is governed by a provoſt, 2 bailies, a dean of guild, treaſurer and counſellors. It joins with Air, Irvine, Inverary and Rothſay, in ſending a member to parliament. It lies 176 m. W. by S. from Edinburgh. Lon. 5. 30. W. Lat. 55. 29. N.

(3.) CAMPBELTOWN, a village of Dauphin county, Pennſylvania; ſituated near a branch of Quitipihilla creek. It is 13 miles E. of Harriſburg, and 96 N. W. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 26. W. Lat. 40. 17. N.

CAMPDEN, a town of Glouceſterſhire, containing about 200 houſes; famous for its ſtocking manufactures. It has 4 fairs, and a market on Wed. It lies 10 m. from Stow, 20 from Tewkſbury, 22 N. E. of Glouceſter, and 87 N. W. by W. of London. Lon. 1. 50. W. Lat. 52. 4. N.

(1.) CAMPEACHY, a town of Mexico, ſeated on the E. coaſt of the bay, (N. a.) It is defended by a good wall and ſtrong forts; but is neither ſo rich, nor carries on ſuch a trade, as formerly: having been the port for the ſale of logwood, the place where it is cut being about 30 miles diſtant. It was taken by the Engliſh in 1596; by the buccaneers in 1650 and 1678; and by the Flibuſters

of St Domingo in 1685, who ſet it on fire and blew up the citadel. Lon. 93. 57. W. Lat. 19. 20. N.

(2.) CAMPEACHY BAY, a bay of N. America, on the W. coaſt of Yucatan.

(3.) CAMPEACHY WOOD, in botany. See HÆMATOXYLUM.

CAMPEN, a ſtrong town of Overyſſel. It has a citadel and a harbour; but the latter is almoſt choked up with ſand. It was taken by the Dutch in 1578, and by the French in 1672; but they abandoned it in 1673. It is ſeated near the mouth of the river Yſſel, on the Zuider See. Lon. 5. 33. E. Lat. 52. 38. N.

* CAMPESTRAL. *adj.* [*campeſtris*, Lat.] Growing in fields.—The mountain beech is the whiteſt; but the *campeſtral*, or wild beech, is blacker and more durable. *Mortimer.*

CAMPESTRE, in antiquity, a cover for the privities, worn by the Roman ſoldiers in their field exerciſes; being girt under the navel, and hanging down to the knees. The name is formed from *campus*, the field, where they performed theſe exerciſes.

(1.)* CAMP-FIGHT. *n. ſ.* An old word for *combat.*—For their trial by *camp-fight*, the accuſer was, with the peril of his own body, to prove the accuſed guilty; and, by offering him his glove or gantlet, to challenge him to this trial. *Hakewill.*

(2.) CAMP FIGHT, among our old law writers, is ſpelt KAMP FIGHT. We therefore refer the reader, for an account of this obſolete mode of legal duelling to that article.

(1.)* CAMPHIRE *Tree. n. ſ.* [*camphora*, Lat.] There are two ſorts of this tree; one is a native of the iſle of Borneo, from which the beſt *camphire* is taken, which is ſuppoſed to be a natural exſudation from the tree, produced in ſuch places where the bark of the tree has been wounded or cut. The other ſort is a native of Japan, which Dr Kempfer deſcribes to be a kind of bay, bearing black or purple berries, and from whence the inhabitants prepare their *camphire*, by making a ſimple decoction of the root and wood of this tree, cut into ſmall pieces; but this ſort of *camphire* is, in value, eighty or an hundred times leſs than the true Bornean *camphire*. *Miller.*—It is oftener uſed for the gum of this tree.

(2.) CAMPHIRE, } a ſolid concrete juice ex-
CAMPHOR, } tracted from the wood of
CAMPHORA, } the laurus camphora. Pure camphire is very white, pellucid, ſomewhat unctuous; of a bitteriſh aromatic taſte, yet accompanied with a ſenſe of coolneſs; of a very fragrant ſmell, ſomewhat like that of roſemary, but much ſtronger. It has been long eſteemed one of the moſt efficacious diaphoretics, and is celebrated in fevers, malignant and epidemical diſtempers. In deliria, alſo, where opiates could not procure ſleep, but rather aggravated the ſymptoms, it has often been obſerved to procure it. See CHEMISTRY, LAURUS, and MATERIA MEDICA.

* CAMPHORATA, the name given by Tournefort to the genus of plants, called by Linnæus CAMPHORISMA.

* CAMPHORATE. *adj.* [from *camphora*, Lat.] Impregnated with camphire.—By ſhaking the ſame and *camphorate* liquors together, we eaſily confounded them into one high-coloured liquor. *Boyle.*

CAMPHORATED SPIRIT OF WINE is a remedy frequently applied externally in caſes of inflammation, bruiſes, ſprains, &c.

CAMPHOROSMA, in botany, ſtinking gromwell, a genus of the tetrandria order, in the monogynia claſs of plants: ranking in the natural method under the 12th order, Holeraceæ. The cup is pitcher-ſhaped and indented, there is no corolla; and the capſule contains a ſingle ſeed. It is reputed cephalic and nervine; though little uſed in modern practice. It takes the name from its ſmell, which bears ſome reſemblance to that of camphire. There are 4 ſpecies. Of theſe the principal is

CAMPHOROSMA MONSPELIENSIS, which grows by the road ſide in Languedoc, and eſpecially about Montpelier. It has been produced as a ſpecific for the dropſy, and aſthma. Mr Boccone has given its hiſtory, analyſis, and an account of its virtues.

CAMPHUYSEN, Dirk Theodore Raphael, an eminent painter, born at Gorcum in 1580. He learned the art from Goveritze, but ſoon far ſurpaſſed his maſter. He had an uncommon genius, and ſtudied nature. His ſubjects were landſcapes, moſtly ſmall, with ruinous buildings, huts of peaſants, or views of villages on the banks of rivers. He generally repreſented them by moon light. His pencil is remarkably ſoft; his colouring very tranſparent, and his expertneſs in perſpective is ſeen in the proportional diſtances of his objects, which have a ſurpriſing degree of truth. Few of his works are to be met with, and they bring conſiderable prices; for he practiſed only till he was 18 years of age, and being then recommended as a tutor to the ſons of the lord of Nieuport, he diſcharged it with ſo much credit, that he was appointed ſecretary to that nobleman. He excelled in drawing with a pen; and the deſigns which he finiſhed in that manner are exceedingly valuable.

CAMPIAN, Edmund, an Engliſh jeſuit, born at London, of indigent parents, in 1540; was educated at Chriſt's hoſpital, where he had the honour to deliver an oration before Q. Mary on her acceſſion to the throne. He was admitted a ſcholar of St John's college in Oxford at its foundation, and took the degree of M. A. in 1564. About the ſame time he was ordained by a biſhop of the church of England, and became an eloquent Proteſtant preacher. In 1566, when Q. Elizabeth was entertained by the univerſity of Oxford, he ſpoke an elegant oration before her majeſty, and was alſo reſpondent in the philoſophy act in St Mary's church. In 1568, he was junior proctor of the univerſity. In 1569, he went over to Ireland, where he wrote a hiſtory of that kingdom, and turned papiſt; but being found rather too buſy in perſuading others to follow his example, he was committed to priſon. He ſoon however made his eſcape, and in 1571, proceeded to Douay in Flanders, where he publicly recanted his former opinions, and was created B. D. He went ſoon after to Rome, where, in 1573, he was admitted of the Society of Jeſus, and was ſent by the general to Vienna, where he wrote his tragedy, called *Nectar et ambroſia*, which was acted before the emperor with great applauſe. He went

next to Prague, where he reſided in the Jeſuits college about ſix years, and then returned to Rome. From thence, in 1580, he was ſent by Pope Gregory XIII. with Father Parſons, to convert the people of England. Some time before, ſeveral Engliſh prieſts, who ſuppoſed themſelves inſpired, had undertaken to convert their countrymen, and ſo of theſe foreign miſſionaries, beſides ſeveral others who had been converted in England, were actually engaged in this *pious* work; but ſeeing at laſt that the harveſt was abundant and the labourers were few, they ſolicited the aſſiſtance of the Jeſuits; who accordingly ſent Campian and Parſons to England. They were joyfully received by their friends at London; but had not been long in England, before Walſingham uſed every means to have Campian apprehended; and he was at laſt taken by one Elliot, a noted *prieſt-taker*, who found him at Lyford in Berkſhire, and conducted him in triumph to London. He was impriſoned in the tower; where, Wood ſays, "he did undergo many examinations, abuſes, racks, tortures;" *exquiſitiſſimis cruciatibus* as, ſays Pitts. It is hoped, for the credit of reformers, this torturing part of the ſtory is falſe. He was, however, condemned, on ſtatute 25 Ed. III. for high treaſon; and executed at Tyburn, with 2 or 3 of his fraternity. All writers (ſays the Oxford antiquary), Proteſtants or Popiſh, ſay, that he was poſſeſſed of admirable parts; an elegant orator, a ſubtile ſophiſter and diſputant, and an exact maſter in Engliſh or Latin, of a ſweet and ready, and a well poliſhed man." His Hiſtory of Ireland, in two books was written in 1570; and publiſhed by Sir James Ware, from a MS. in Sion college library, Dublin, 1633, folio. He wrote *Decemnologia univerſalis*, a very learned work; and various other tracts.

CAMPICURSIO, in the ancient military art, a march of armed men for ſeveral miles, from and back again to the camp, to inſtruct them in the military pace.

CAMPIDOCTORES, or CAMPIDUCTORES, in the Roman army, officers who inſtructed the ſoldiery in the diſcipline and exerciſes of war, and the art of handling their weapons to advantage. Theſe are alſo ſometimes called CAMPIGENI and *armidoctores*.

CAMPIDUCTOR, in writers of the middle age, ſignifies the leader or commander of an army, or party.

CAMPIGENI. See CAMPIDOCTORES.

(1.) CAMPION, a town of the kingdom of Tanguth in Tartary. It was formerly remarkable for being a place through which the caravans paſſed in the road from Bukharia to China. Lon. 94. 53. W. Lat. 40. 25. N.

(2.) * CAMPION. *n. ſ.* [*lychnis*, Lat.] A plant.

(3.) CAMPION, in botany. See LYCHNIS.

(4.) CAMPION, VISCOUS. See SILENE.

(5.) CAMPION, WILD. See AGROSTEMA.

CAMPIPARS. See CHAMPART.

CAMPISTRON, a celebrated French dramatic author, born in 1656. Racine directed his poetical talents to the theatre, and aſſiſted him in his firſt pieces. He died in 1723.

CAMPITÆ, in church hiſtory, an appellation given to the Donatiſts, on account of their aſſembling in the fields for want of churches. For ſimilar reaſons, they were alſo denominated MONTENSES and RUPITANI.

CAMPIUSA, in botany. See SCABIOSA.

CAMPOIDES, in botany. See SCORPIURUS.

CAMPOLI, or CAMPLI, a town of Italy, in Naples, and in the farther Abruzzo. Lon. 13. 55. E. Lat. 42. 38. N.

CAMPO, a river of Africa, in Benin.

CAMPO MAJOR, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo. It has a modern fortreſs, and two caſtles. It lies 10 m. N. of Elvas. Lon. 7. 24. W. Lat. 38. 50. N.

CAMPO MALDULI. See CAMALDOLI, N. 2.

CAMPREDON, a town of Catalonia in Spain, ſeated at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, 50 m. N. of Barcelona. The fortifications were demoliſhed by the French in 1691. Lon. 2. 7. W. Lat. 42. 26. N.

CAMPS, Francis DE, abbot of Notre Dame at Sigi, was born at Amiens in 1643; and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his knowledge of medals, by writing a Hiſtory of France, and ſeveral other works. He died at Paris in 1723.

CAMPSALL, a village in Yorkſhire, 4 m. S. E. of Pontefract.

CAMPS-CASTLE, 15 miles from Cambridge.

(1.) CAMPSEY, or CAMPSIE, [from *Camſi*, Celt. *i. e.* crooked glen,] a pariſh of Scotland, in Stirling-ſhire, 8 m. long, and 7 broad, containing about 36 ſquare miles, or 14,400 acres. Being partly hilly, (See N° 2.) the climate is extremely variable, but healthy, though rather wet; the ſoil is alſo various, but great part of it is very fertile; and produces oats, barley, potatoes, lint and graſs. Servitudes are not totally aboliſhed. The population, in 1793, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Lapſlie, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2517, and had increaſed 1117 ſince 1755. At that period, there were 2469 black cattle, and 1600 ſheep in the pariſh. It abounds with waters, woods, coals, and lime-ſtone. Of the latter, 3000 chaldrons are burnt and ſold annually: and, L. 2750 were drawn for coals in 1793, beſides what were conſumed in the lime works, &c. The roads are good, and there are 19 ſtone bridges in the pariſh. Two very extenſive printfields were erected within theſe 13 years, which employ 612 perſons, and pay about L. 8000 per annum to government.

(2.) CAMPSIE FELLS, or CAMPSIE HILLS, a range of hills in the above pariſh, (N° 1.) of which they conſtitute about a 5th part, running the whole length of it from E. to W. Their ſurface is ſomewhat broken with craigs and glens: the ſummit and back part is a deep moor ground interſperſed with moſs, fit for rearing ſheep and black cattle. The higheſt ridge is about 1500 feet above the ſea level, and 1200 from its baſe. It conſiſts of various ſtrata of lime-ſtone, moor ſtone, iron ſtone, ſpar and cryſtal, and is ſuppoſed to contain copper and lead. Its aſcent is very rapid. In one part of the Fells there are beautiful baſaltes, and ſome fine pebbles have been found among the rocks.

CAMPSMICHAEL. See CAMBUSMICHAEL.

CAMPS-SHADY, a village 15 m. from Cambridge, near Eſſex.

CAMPTON, in Bedfordſhire, near Wreſt.

CAMPVERE. See VEER.

CAMPULUM, a diſtortion of the eye-lids.

CAMP-VOLANT, in military affairs, a flying camp.

(1.) CAMPUS, in antiquity, a field or vacant plain in a city, not built upon, left vacant on account of ſhows, combats, exerciſes, or other uſes of the citizens.

(2.) CAMPUS MAII, in ancient cuſtoms, an anniverſary aſſembly, held by our anceſtors on May-day, when they confederated together for the defence of the kingdom againſt its enemies.

(3.) CAMPUS MARTIUS, a large plain in the ſuburbs of ancient Rome, lying between the Quirinal and Capitoline mounts and the Tiber; thus called becauſe conſecrated to the god Mars, and ſet apart for military ſports and exerciſes, to which the Roman youth were trained; ſuch as the uſe of arms, and all manner of feats of activity. Here were the races run, either with chariots or ſingle horſes; here alſo ſtood the villa publica or palace for the reception of ambaſſadors, who were not permitted to enter the city. Many of the public comitia were held in the ſame field, part of which was for that purpoſe cantoned out. The place was alſo nobly decorated with ſtatues, arches, columns, porticoes, and the like ſtructures.

(4.) CAMPUS SCELERATUS, a place without the walls of ancient Rome, where the Veſtals who had violated their vows of virginity were buried alive.

(1.) CAMS, a village S. E. of Farham, Hampſ.

(2.) CAMS, UPPER, in Glouceſterſ. S. of Cambridge.

CAMSWICK, near Kendal, Weſtmoreland.

CAMUL, a town of Aſia, on the E. extremity of the kingdom of Cialus, on the frontiers of Tangut. Lon. 98. 3. E. Lat. 37. 15. N.

(1.) CAMUS, Charles Stephen Lewis, a celebrated French mathematician, born at Creſſy, 25th Aug. 1699. His early ingenuity in mechanics induced his parents to ſend him to a college at Paris, at 10 years of age; where within two years he made ſuch rapid progreſs, that he gave lectures on mathematics and defrayed his own expences, without farther charge to them. In 1727, he gained the prize given by the Academy of Sciences "to determine the moſt advantageous way of maſting ſhips:" in conſequence of which, he was made adjoint mechanician to the academy; and, in 1730, profeſſor of architecture. In 1733, he was made ſecretary and aſſociate; and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his memoirs on living forces, bodies in motion acted on by forces, on the figure of the teeth of wheels and pinions; and on pump work, &c. In 1736, he was ſent with Meſſrs Clairaut, Maupertuis, and Monnier, on the celebrated expedition to meaſure a degree at the North Polar circle; in which he proved highly uſeful, both as a mathematician and mechanician. In 1741, he was appointed geometrician in the academy, and invented a gauging rod, to meaſure all kinds of caſks and calculate their contents. In 1747 he was appointed examiner of the ſchools of artillery, and in 1765 he was elected F. R. S. of London. He died 4th May, 1768, after having publiſhed many mathematical works; of which Dr Hutton gives a liſt in his *Math. and Phil. Dict.*

(2.) CAMUS, John Peter, a French prelate born in 1582. He was author of a number of pious romances (the taſte of his time,) and other theological works, to the amount of 200 vols. His definition of politics is remarkable: *Ars non tam regendi, quam fallendi, homines;* "the art not ſo much of governing, as of deceiving mankind." He died in 1652.

(3.) CAMUS, *n. ſ.* a perſon with a low flat noſe, hollowed in the middle. The Tartars are great admirers of camus beauties. Rubruquis obſerves, that the wife of the great Jenghiz Khan, a celebrated beauty, had only two holes for a noſe!

(4.) * CAMUS. *n. ſ.* [probably from *camiſa*, Lat.] A thin dreſs mentioned by *Spenſer*.—

And was yclad, for heat of ſcorching air,
All in ſilken *camus*, lilly white,
Purfled upon with many a folded plight.
Fairy Queen.

(1.) CAN, a river in Eſſex.

(2.) CAN, a town in Dorſetſhire, S. E. of Shaftsbury.

(3.) * CAN. *n. ſ.* [*canne*, Sax.] A cup; generally a cup made of metal, or ſome other matter than earth.—

I hate as an unfill'd *can*. *Shakeſpeare.*

—One tree, the coco, afforded ſtuff for houſing, cloathing, ſhipping, meat, drink, and *can*. *Grew.*

His empty *can*, with ears half worn away,
Was hung on high, to boaſt the triumph of the day. *Dryden.*

(4.) CAN, in ſea language, is variouſly applied: thus,

1. CAN BUOY. See BUOY, § II. N° 3.

2. CAN-HOOK, an inſtrument uſed to ſling a caſk by the ends of the ſtaves: it is formed by fixing a board and flat hook at each end of a ſhort rope; and the tackle, by which the caſk ſo ſlung may be hoiſted or lowered, is hooked to the middle of the rope.

3. CAN-PUMP, a veſſel wherewith ſea-men pour water into the pump to make it go.

* *To* CAN. *v. n.* [*konnen*, Dutch. It is ſometimes, though rarely, uſed alone; but is in conſtant uſe as an expreſſion of the potential mood; as, I *can* do, thou *canſt* do, I *could* do, thou *couldſt* do. It has no other terminations.] 1. To be able; to have power.—In place there is licence to do good and evil, whereof the latter is a curſe: for, in evil, the beſt condition is not to will; the ſecond not to *can*. *Bacon.*—

O, there's the wonder!
Mecænas and Agrippa, who *can* moſt
With Cæſar, are his foes. *Dryden.*

—He *can* away with no company, whoſe diſcourſe goes beyond what claret and diſſoluteneſs inſpires. *Locke.* 2. It expreſſes the potential mood; as, I *can* do it.—

If ſhe *can* make me bleſt! ſhe only *can*:
Empire and wealth, and all ſhe brings beſide,
Are but the train and trappings of her love.
Dryden.

3. It is diſtinguiſhed from *may*, as *power* from *permiſſion*; I *can* do it; it is in my power: I *may* do

f; it is allowed me: but, in poetry, they are confounded. 4. *Can* is uſed of the perſon with the *verb active*, where *may* is uſed; of the thing, with the *verb paſſive*; as, I *can* do it; it *may* or *an* be done.

CANA, in ancient geography, a town on the confines of Galilee; memorable for our Saviour's firſt miracle of turning water into wine. John ii. It was the birth place of Simon, and of Nathaniel.

(1.) CANAAN, [נָעַן, Heb. *i. e.* a merchant,] the fourth ſon of Ham. The irreverence of Ham towards his father Noah is recorded in Gen. ix. The curſe denounced by the patriarch, not againſt Ham the immediate tranſgreſſor, but againſt his ſon Canaan, has occaſioned various conjectures. Some think Moſes's chief intent in recording this prediction was to raiſe the ſpirits of the Iſraelites, then entering on a terrible war with the children of Canaan, by the aſſurance, that, in conſequence of the curſe, that people were deſtined by God to be ſubdued by them. For the opinion of thoſe, who imagine all Ham's race were here accurſed, is not only repugnant to the plain words of Scripture, but is alſo contrary to fact. Indeed, the prophecy of Noah, that Canaan "ſhould be a ſervant of ſervants to his brethren," ſeems to have been wholly completed in his deſcendants. It was completed with regard to Shem, not only in that a conſiderable part of the 7 nations of the Canaanites were made ſlaves to the Iſraelites, when they took poſſeſſion of their land, as part of the remainder of them were afterwards enſlaved by Solomon; but alſo by the ſubſequent expeditions of the Aſſyrians and Perſians, who were both deſcended from Shem; and under whom the Canaanites ſuffered ſubjection, as well as the Iſraelites; not to mention the conqueſt of part of Canaan by the Elamites, or Perſians, under Chedorlaomer, prior to them all. With regard to Japhet, we find a completion of the prophecy, in the ſucceſſive conqueſts of the Greeks and Romans in Paleſtine and Phœnicia, where the Canaanites were ſettled; but eſpecially in the total ſubverſion of the Carthaginian power by the Romans; beſides ſome invaſions of the northern nations, as the poſterity of Thogarma and Magog: wherein many of them, probably, were carried away captive. The poſterity of Canaan were very numerous. His eldeſt ſon was Sidon, who at leaſt founded and peopled the city of Sidon, and was the father of the Sidonians and Phœnicians. Canaan had beſides ten ſons, who were the fathers of ſo many people, dwelling in Paleſtine, and in part of Syria; namely, the Hittites, the Jebuſites, the Amorites, the Girgaſites, the Hivites, the Arkites, the Sinites, the Arvadites, the Semarites, and Hamathites.

(2.) CANAAN, the tract of country, which lies between the Mediterranean ſea and the mountains of Arabia, and extends from Egypt to Phœnicia: ſo named from CANAAN, N° 1. It was bounded on the E. by the mountains of Arabia; on the S. by the wilderneſs of Paran, Idumæa, and Egypt; on the W. by the Mediterranean, called in Hebrew the Great Sea; on the N. by the mountains of Libanus. Its length from the city of Dan to Beerſheba, was about 70 leagues; and its breadth from the Mediterranean ſea to the eaſtern borders, in ſome places 30. This country, was afterwards called PALESTINE, from the people whom the Hebrews called PHILISTINES, who inhabited the ſea coaſts. It was alſo called the *Land of Promiſe*, from the promiſe God made Abraham of giving it to him; the *Land of Iſrael*, from the Iſraelites having made themſelves maſters of it; of JUDAH, from the tribe of Judah, which was the moſt conſiderable of the twelve; and laſtly, the *Holy Land* from its having been ſanctified by the preſence, actions, miracles, and death of Jeſus Chriſt, which laſt name it ſtill retains. The firſt inhabitants of this land were the CANAANITES, who were deſcended from Canaan, and the eleven ſons of that patriarch. Here they multiplied extremely; trade and war were their firſt occupations; theſe gave riſe to their riches, and the ſeveral colonies ſcattered by them over almoſt all the iſlands and maritime provinces of the Mediterranean. The meaſure of their idolatry and abominations was completed, when God delivered their country into the hands of the Iſraelites. In St Athanaſius's time, the Africans ſtill ſaid they were deſcended from the Canaanites; and it is ſaid, that the Punic tongue was almoſt entirely the ſame with the Canaaniti ſh and Hebrew languages. The colonies which Cadmus carried into Thebes in Boœtia, and his brother Cilix into Cilicia, came from the ſtock of Canaan. The iſles of Sicily, Sardinia, Malta, Cyprus, Corfu, Majorca and Minorca, Gades and Ebuſus, are thought to have been peopled by the Canaanites. Bochart, in his large work, entitled *Canaan*, has ſet all this matter in a clear light. Many of the old inhabitants of the N. W. of Canaan, however, particularly on the coaſt of Tyre and Sidon, were not driven out by the children of Iſrael; whence this tract ſeems to have retained the name of Canaan long after thoſe other parts of the country, which were better inhabited by the Iſraelites, had loſt the name. The Greeks called this tract, inhabited by the old Canaanites, Phœnicia; the more inland parts, being inhabited partly by Canaanites, and partly by Syrians, Syrophœnicia: and hence the woman, ſaid by St Matthew (xv. 22.) to be a woman of Canaan, whoſe daughter Jeſus cured, is ſaid by St Mark (vii. 26.) to be a Syrophœnician by nation, as ſhe was a Greek by religion and language.

(3.) CANAAN, a poſt town of the United States, in Connecticut, ſeated on the E. ſide of the river Houſetoneck, in Litchfield county. It has a congregational church, and lies 264 m. from Philadelphia.

CANAANITES, 1. the deſcendants of Canaan in general; 2. a particular tribe of theſe. See CANAAN, N° 1, and 2.

(1.) CANADA, or the province of QUEBEC, an extenſive country of North America, bounded on the N. E. by the gulph of St Lawrence, and St John's river; on the S. W. by lands inhabited by the ſavage Indians, which are frequently included in this province; on the S. by the provinces of Nova Scotia, New England, and New York; and on the N. W. by other Indian nations. Under this name the French comprehended a very large territory; taking into their claim part of New Scotland, New England, and New York on the

the E. and extending it on the W. as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which was reduced by the Britiſh arms, lies between 61°. and 81°. W. lon. and between 45°. and 52°. of N. lat. The climate is not very different from that of the northern Britiſh colonies; but as it is much farther from the ſea, and more to the northward, than moſt of thoſe provinces, it has a much ſeverer winter, though the air is generally clear; and, like moſt of thoſe American tracts that do not lie too far to the northward, the ſummers are very hot, and exceedingly pleaſant. The ſoil in general is very good, and in many parts extremely fertile; producing many different ſorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt numbers of cattle. The uncultivated parts are a continued wood, compoſed of prodigiouſly large and lofty trees, of which there is ſuch immenſe variety, that even of thoſe who have taken moſt pains to know them, there is not perhaps one that can tell half the number. Canada produces, among others, two ſorts of pines, the white and the red; four ſorts of firs; two ſorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three ſorts of aſh trees, the free, the mongrel, and the baſtard; three ſorts of walnut trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; vaſt numbers of beech trees and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, ſome of which made out of one piece will contain 20 perſons; others are made of the bark; the different pieces of which they ſew together with the inner rind, and daub over the ſeams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter reſembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; the ribs of theſe canoes are made of boughs of trees. In the hollow elms, the bears and wild cats take up their lodging from November to April. The country produces alſo a vaſt variety of other vegetables, particularly tobacco, which thrives well. Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and many excellent ones of iron have been diſcovered. It has alſo been reported that ſilver is found in ſome of the mountains. The rivers are extremely numerous, and many of them very large and deep. The principal are, the Ouattauais, St John's, Seguinay, Deſpaires, and Trois Rivieres; but all theſe are ſwallowed up by the great river ST LAURENCE. This river is the only one upon which any ſettlements of note are as yet formed; but it is very probable, that, in time to come, Canada, and thoſe vaſt regions to the weſt, may be enabled of themſelves to carry on a conſiderable trade upon the great lakes of freſh water which theſe countries environ. Here are 5 lakes, the leaſt of which is of greater extent than the largeſt to be found in any other part of the world: viz. Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan, and Superior. See AMERICA, § 39 and 53. All theſe are navigable by any veſſels, and they all communicate with each other; but the paſſage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a moſt ſtupenduous cataract, called the *falls of Niagara*. See NIAGARA. The St Laurence is the outlet of theſe lakes, by which they diſcharge themſelves into the ocean. The French built forts at the ſtraits between theſe lakes, by which, while the country was in their poſſeſſion, they effectually ſecured the trade of the lakes, and preſerved an influence over all the Indian nations that dwelt near them.

(2.) CANADA, ANIMALS, TRADE, &c. OF. Canada abounds with ſtags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weaſels, large ſquirrels, hares and rabbits. The ſouthern parts breed great numbers of wild bulls, divers ſorts of roe bucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marſhes, lakes, and pools ſwarm with otters and beavers, of which the white are highly valued, as well as the right black kind. A vaſt variety of birds are to be found in the woods; and the St Laurence abounds with ſuch quantities of fiſh, that it is affirmed by ſome writers, this would be a more profitable article than even the fur trade. There are in Canada a multitude of different Indian tribes; but theſe are obſerved to decreaſe in number where the Europeans are moſt numerous; owing chiefly to the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, of which they are exceſſively fond. For their manners, way of living, &c. ſee AMERICANS, § 1—26. The principal towns are Quebec, Trois Rivieres, and Montreal. The commodities required by the Canadians from Europe are, wine, or rather rum; cloths, chiefly coarſe; linen; and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a ſort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds. While the country was in poſſeſſion of the French, the Indians ſupplied them with poultry, and the French had traders, who, like the original inhabitants traverſed the vaſt lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible induſtry and patience, carrying their goods into the remoteſt parts of America, and among nations entirely unknown to us. Thence again brought the furs, &c. home to them, as the Indians were habituated to trade with them. For this purpoſe, people from all parts, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and ſometimes laſted three months. On this occaſion many ſolemnities were obſerved, guards were placed, and the governor aſſiſted to preſerve order in ſo great and various a concourſe of ſtrange nations. But ſometimes great diſorders and tumults happened; and the Indians frequently gave for a dram all that they were poſſeſſed of. It is remarkable, that many of theſe nations actually paſſed by the Engliſh ſettlement of Albany in New York, and travelled 200 miles further to Montreal, though they could have purchaſed the goods they wanted cheaper at the former. Since Britain became poſſeſſed of Canada, our trade with that country has generally employed 34 ſhips and 400 ſeamen: their exports, at an average 3 years, in ſkins, furs, ginſeng ſnake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amount to L.150,000. Their imports from Great Britain are computed at nearly the ſame ſum. It will, however, be always impoſſible to overcome the inconveniences ariſing from the violence of the winter. This is ſo exceſſive from December to April, that the broadeſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow lies commonly from 4 to 6 feet deep on the ground, even in thoſe parts which lie 3° S. of London, and in the temperate latitude of *Paris*. Another incon-

nconvenience arises from the falls in the river St Laurence below Montreal, which prevents ships rom penetrating to that emporium of inland commerce. Our communication therefore with Canada, and the immense regions beyond it, will lways be interrupted during winter, until roads re formed that can be travelled without danger om the Indians. For these savage people often ommit hostilities against us, without any previus notice; and frequently, without any provoation, at least that can be discovered; although must be owned, that our people are too often o blame in beginning quarrels with them.

(3.) CANADA, HISTORY OF. Canada was discovered by Sebastian CABOT, the famous English dventurer, who sailed under a commission from Henry VII. See AMERICA, § 10. But though he English monarch did not make any use of this iscovery, the French quickly attempted it. We ave an account of their fishing for cod on the anks of Newfoundland, and along the coast of anada, in the beginning of the 16th century. bout 1506, one Denys, a Frenchman, drew a ap of the gulph of St Laurence; and two years ter, one Aubert a ship-master of Dieppe, carried er to France some of the natives of Canada. As he new country, however, did not promise the me amazing quantities of gold and silver proced by Mexico and Peru, the French for some ars neglected it. At last, in 1524, Francis I. nt 4 ships under Verazani, a Florentine, to proecute discoveries in that country.. The particurs of his first expedition are not known. He reurned to France and next year he undertook a econd. As he approached the coast, he met with violent storm; however, he came so near as to erceive the natives on the shore making friendly gns to him to land. This being found impracable by reason of the surf upon the coast, one f the sailors threw himself into the sea; but, encavouring to swim back to the ship, a surge hrew him on shore without signs of life. He was, owever, treated by the natives with such care nd humanity, that he recovered his strength, and as allowed to swim back to the ship, which imediately returned to France. This is all we now of Verazani's second expedition. He unertook a third, but was no more heard of, and is thought that he and all his company perished. n 1534, James Cartier of St Maloes set sail under commission from the French king. See AMEICA, § 10. On his return, he was again sent ut with a commission, and a pretty large force; e returned in 1535, and passed the winter at St roix; but the season proved so severe, that he nd his companions must have died of the scurvy, ad they not, by the advice of the natives, made se of the decoction of the tops and bark of the hite pines. As Cartier, however, could proluce neither gold nor silver, all that he could say about the utility of the settlement was disregarded; nd in 1540, he was obliged to become pilot to ne M. Roberval, who was by the French king ppointed viceroy of Canada, and who sailed from rance with 5 vessels. Arriving at the gulph of t Laurence, they built a fort; and Cartier was eft to command the garrison in it, while Roberal returned to France for additional recruits to his new settlement. At last, having embarked in 1549, with a great number of adventurers, neither he nor any of his followers were heard of more. This so greatly discouraged the court of France, that for 50 years, no measures were taken for supplying with necessaries the settlers that were left. At last, Henry IV. appointed the Marquis de la Rouche, lieutenant general of Canada, and the neighbouring countries. In 1598, he landed on the isle of Sable, which he absurdly thought to be a proper place for a settlement, though it was without any port, and without product except briars. Here he left about 40 malefactors, the refuse of the French jails. After cruizing for some time on the coast of Nova Scotia, without being able to relieve these poor wretches, he returned to France, where he died of a broken heart. His colony must have perished, had not a French ship been wrecked on the island, and a few sheep driven upon it at the same time. With the boards of the ship they erected huts; and while the sheep lasted they lived on them, feeding afterwards on fish. Their clothes wearing out, they made coats of seal-skins; and in this miserable condition they spent 7 years, when Henry ordered them to be brought to France. The king had the curiosity to see them in their seal-skin dresses, and was so moved with their appearance, that he forgave them all their offences, and gave each of them 50 crowns to begin the world anew. In 1600, one Chauvin, a commander in the French navy, attended by a merchant of St Malo, called *Pontgrave*, made a voyage to Canada, from whence he returned with a very profitable quantity of furs. Next year he repeated the voyage with the same good fortune, but died while he was preparing for a third. The many specimens of profit to be made by the Canadian trade, at last induced the public to think favourably of it. An armament was equipped, and the command of it given to Pontgrave, with powers to extend his discoveries up the river St Laurence. He sailed in 1603, and took with him Samuel Champlain, who had been a captain in the navy, and was a man of parts and spirit. It was not however, till 1608, that the colony was fully established, by founding the city of Quebec, which from that time commenced the capital of all Canada. The colony for many years continued in a low way, and was often in danger of being totally exterminated by the Indians. The French, however, at last not only concluded a permanent peace with them, but so much ingratiated with them, that they could with ease prevail upon them at any time to murder and scalp the English in their settlements. These practices had a considerable share in bringing about the last war with France, wherein the whole country was conquered by the British in 1761. The most remarkable transaction in that conquest was the siege of QUEBEC; for an account of which, see that article. And for the events that occurred in Canada, during the American war, see AMERICA, § 12—14. 27—33.

* CANAILLE. *n. f.* [Fr.] The lowest people; the dregs; the lees; the offscouring of the people: a French term of reproach.

CANAJOHARIE, a flourishing post of New

York, in Montgomery county, situated on the banks of the Mohawk; 18 m. from Fort Hunter, and 318 N. by E. of Philadelphia.

(1.) * CANAL, *n. s.* [*canalis*, Lat.] 1. A bason of water in a garden.—

The walks and long *canals* reply. *Pope.*

2. Any track or course of water made by art; as the *canals* in Holland. 3. (In anatomy.) A conduit or paſſage through which any of the juices of the body flow.

(2.) CANAL OF COMMUNICATION, an artificial cut in the ground, ſupplied with water from rivers, ſprings, &c. to make a navigable communication betwixt one place and another. *See* § 3—9.

(3.) CANALS, ACCOUNT OF THE METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING. The particular operations neceſſary for making artificial navigations depend upon a number of circumſtances. The ſituation of the ground, the vicinity or connection with rivers, the eaſe or difficulty with which a proper quantity of water can be obtained; theſe and other circumſtances neceſſarily produce great variety in the ſtructure of artificial navigations, and augment or diminiſh the labour and expence of executing them. When the ground is naturally level, and unconnected with rivers, the execution is eaſy, and the navigation is not liable to be diſturbed by floods: but, when the ground riſes and falls, and cannot be reduced to a level, artificial methods of raiſing and lowering veſſels muſt be employed; which likewiſe vary according to circumſtances. Temporary ſluices are ſometimes employed for raiſing boats over falls or ſhoals in rivers by a very ſimple operation. Two poſts or pillars of maſon work, with grooves, are fixed, one on each bank of the river, at ſome diſtance below the ſhoal. The boat having paſſed theſe poſts, planks are let down acroſs the river by pullies into the grooves, by which the water is dammed up to a proper height for allowing the boat to paſs up the river over the ſhoal. The Dutch and Flemings, ſometimes, when obſtructed by cascades, form a rolling bridge upon dry land, alongſt which their veſſels are drawn from the river below the caſcade into the river above it. This, it is ſaid, was the only method employed by the ancients, and is ſtill uſed by the Chineſe, who are ignorant of the nature and utility of locks. Theſe rolling bridges conſiſt of a number of cylindrical rollers which turn eaſily on pivots, and a veſſel is commonly built near by, ſo that the ſame machinery may ſerve the double purpoſe of working the mill and drawing up veſſels. But the conſtruction of canals by locks is far ſuperior to every invention of this kind. A LOCK is a baſon placed lengthwiſe in a river or canal, lined with walls of maſonry on each ſide, and terminated by two gates, placed where there is a caſcade or natural fall of the country; and ſo conſtructed, that the baſon being filled with water by an upper ſluice to the level of the waters above, a veſſel may aſcend through the upper gate; or the water in the lock being reduced to the level of the water at the bottom of the caſcade, the veſſel may deſcend through the lower gate: for when the waters are brought to a level on either ſide, the gate on that ſide may be eaſily opened. But as the lower gate is ſtrained in proportion to the depth of water it ſuſtains, and the perpendicular height of the water exceeds ten or 12 feet, more locks than one become neceſſary. Thus, if the fall be 17 feet, two locks are required, each having 8½ feet fall; and if the fall be 25 feet, three locks are neceſſary, each having the 8 inches fall. The ſide walls of a lock ought to be very ſtrong. Where the natural foundation is bad, they ſhould be founded on piles and platforms of wood; they ſhould likewiſe ſlope outwards, in order to reſiſt the preſſure of the earth from behind. *Plate* LVI. *Fig.* 1. gives a perſpective view of part of a canal; the veſſel L within the lock A C.—*Fig.* 2. Section of a lock: the veſſel L about to enter.—*Fig.* 3. Section of a lock full of water; the veſſel L raiſed to a level with the water in the ſuperior canal.—*Fig.* 4. Ground ſection of a lock. L, a veſſel in the inferior canal. C, the under gate. A, the upper gate. G H, a ſubterraneous paſſage for letting water from the ſuperior canal run into the lock. K F, a ſubterraneous paſſage for water from the lock to the inferior canal. *X* and *Y*, *Fig.* 1. are the two flood gates, each of which conſiſts of two leaves, reſting upon one another, ſo as to form an obtuſe angle, in order the better to reſiſt the preſſure of the water. The gate *X* prevents the water of the ſuperior canal from falling into the lock; and the ſecond, *Y*, dams up and ſuſtains the water in the lock. Theſe flood-gates ought to be very ſtrong, and to turn freely upon their hinges. In order to make them open and ſhut with eaſe, each leaf is furniſhed with a long lever A *b*, A *b*; C *b*, C *b*. They ſhould be made very tight and cloſe, that as little water as poſſible may be loſt. By the ſubterraneous ſluice G H, *fig.* 2. 3. & 4. which deſcends obliquely, by opening the ſluice G, the water is let down from the ſuperior canal D into the lock, when it is ſtopt and retained by the gate C when ſhut. When the water on the lock comes to be on a level with the water in the ſuperior canal D; as repreſented *fig.* 3. When, on the other hand, the water contained by the lock is to be let out, the ſluice G H muſt be ſhut by letting down the ſluice K; the gate A muſt be alſo ſhut, and the paſſage K F opened by raiſing the ſluice K: a free paſſage being thus given to the water, it deſcends through K F, into the inferior canal, until the water in the lock is on a level with the water in the inferior canal B; as repreſented, *fig.* 2. Now, if the veſſel L, *fig.* 2. from the ſuperior canal, D, to the inferior one, B: if the lock happens to be full of water, the ſluice G muſt be ſhut, and alſo the gate A, and the door C opened, ſo that the water in the lock may run out, till it is on a level with the water in the inferior canal B. When the water in the lock comes to be on a level with the water in the canal B, the lower gate C are opened by the levers C *b*, which is eaſily performed, the water on each ſide of the gate being in equilibrio; the veſſel then ſails into the lock. After this the gate C and the ſluice K are ſhut, and the ſluice G opened, in order to fill the lock, till the water in the lock, and conſequently the veſſel, be upon a level with the water in the ſuperior canal D; as is repreſented *fig.* 3. The gate A is in the

Fig. 1. Plate LVI.

Perspective VIEW of part of a CANAL with Locks.

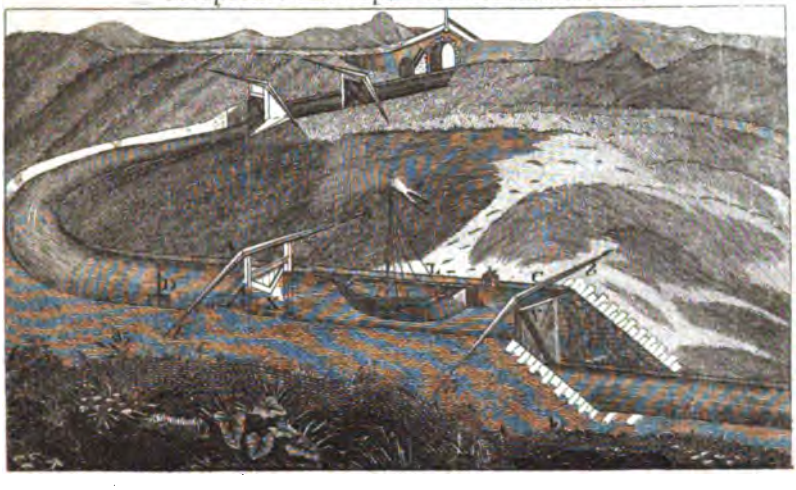


Fig. 2.
Section of a Lock.

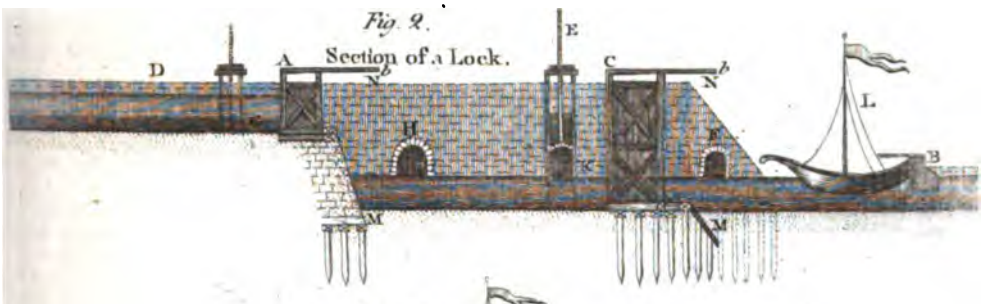
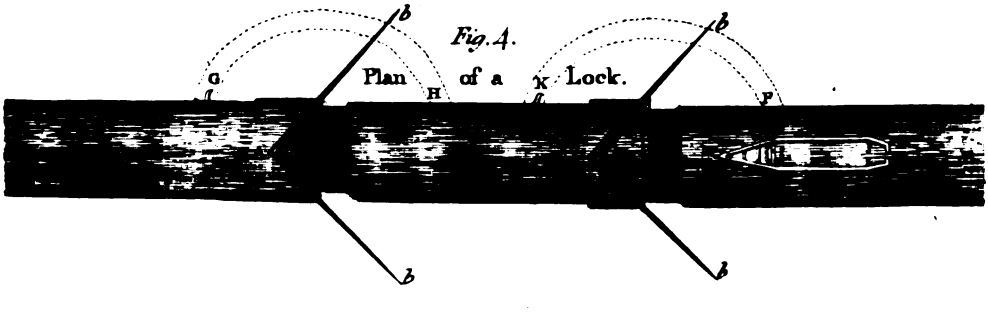


Fig. 3.
Section of a Lock full of water.

Fig. 4.
Plan of a Lock.



like a veſſel deſcend from the canal D into the lower canal B. If the lock is empty, as in *fig.* 2. the gate C and ſluice K muſt be ſhut, and the upper ſluice G opened, ſo that the water in the lock may riſe to a level with the water in the upper canal D. Then open the gate A, and let the veſſel paſs through into the lock. Shut the gate A and the ſluice G; then open the ſluice K, till the water in the lock be on a level with the water in the inferior canal; then the gate C is opened, and the veſſel paſſes along into the canal B, as was required.

(4.) CANALS, ANCIENT ATTEMPTS TO MAKE. The advantages of navigable canals did not eſcape the obſervation of the ancients. From the moſt early accounts, we read of attempts to cut through large iſthmuſes, in order to make a communication by water, either betwixt different nations, or diſtant parts of the ſame nation, where land carriage was long and expenſive. Herodotus relates, that the Cnidians deſigned to cut the iſthmus which joins that peninſula to the continent; but were ſuperſtitious enough to give up the undertaking, becauſe they were interdicted by an oracle. Several kings of Egypt attempted to join the Red Sea to the Mediterranean. Cleopatra was exceedingly fond of this project. Soliman II. emperor of the Turks, employed 50,000 men in this great work. This canal was completed under the caliphate of Omar, but was afterwards allowed to fall into diſrepair; ſo that it is now difficult to diſcover any traces of it. Both the Greeks and Romans intended to make a canal acroſs the iſthmus of Corinth, which joins the Morea and Achaia, in order to make a navigable paſſage by the Ionian ſea into the Archipelago. Demetrius Poliorcetes, Julius Cæſar, Caligula, and Nero, made ſeveral unſucceſsful efforts to open this paſſage. But, as the ancients were entirely ignorant of the uſe of water locks, their whole attention was employed in making level cuts, which is probably the principal reaſon why they ſo often failed in their attempts. Charlemagne formed a deſign of joining the Rhine and the Danube, to make a communication between the ocean and the Black ſea, by a canal from the river Almutz which falls into the Danube, to the Reditz, which runs into the Maine, and this laſt falls into the Rhine near Mayence: for this purpoſe he employed a prodigious number of workmen; but he met with ſo many obſtacles from different quarters, that he was obliged to give up the attempt.

(5.) CANALS, ENGLISH. Though the Romans made a canal between the Nyne, a little below Peterborough, and the Witham, 3 miles below Lincoln, which is now almoſt entirely filled up, yet it is not long ſince canals were revived in England. The firſt canal act only paſſed in 1755. They are now however become very numerous, particularly in the counties of York, Lincoln, and Cheſhire. Moſt of the counties betwixt the mouth of the Thames and the Briſtol Channel are connected together either by natural or artificial navigations; thoſe upon the Thames and Iſis reaching within about 20 miles of thoſe upon the Severn. The duke of Bridgewater's canal in Cheſhire runs 27 miles on a perfect level; but at Barton it is carried by a very high aqueduct bridge 200 yards acroſs a valley, and more than 40 feet high above the Irwell, a navigable river; ſo that it is common for veſſels to be paſſing at the ſame time both under and above the bridge. It likewiſe runs, by a ſubterranean paſſage, ¼ of a mile through the hill, to the duke's coal works. In ſome places the paſſage is cut through the ſolid rock; in others it is arched over with brick. Air funnels, ſome of which are 37 yards perpendicular, are cut at proper diſtances, through the rock to the top of the hill. This canal was finiſhed in 5 years, under the direction of the celebrated J. Brindley. Coals formerly retailed at 7d. per 100 weight, are now ſold at 3½d. The GRAND TRUNK CANAL in Staffordſhire is partly deſcribed under the article BRINDLEY. It is carried over the river Dove in an aqueduct of 23 arches, and over the Trent in another of 6. At Harecaſtle it is conveyed under ground a mile and a half. At Barton it has another ſubterraneous paſſage of 560 yards; another near it of 350, and at Preſton on the hill, where it joins the duke's canal, a 4th, for 1241 yards. Several branches are made from it to Birmingham, Wolverhampton, Worceſter, &c.

(6.) CANALS, FOREIGN. The French have many fine canals: that of Briare was begun under Henry IV. and finiſhed under the direction of cardinal Richelieu in the reign of Louis XIII. See BRIARE. It enters the Loire a little above Briare, and terminates in the Loing at Cepoi. There are 42 locks on it. The canal of Orleans, for making another communication between the Seine and the Loire, was begun in 1675, and finiſhed by Philip of Orleans, regent of France, during the minority of Louis XV. and is furniſhed with 20 locks. It begins at the village of Combleux. The canal from Bruges to Oſtend carries veſſels of 200 tons. But the greateſt work of this kind in France is the junction of the ocean with the Mediterranean by the canal (ci devant *Royal*) of Languedoc. It was propoſed in the reigns of Francis I. and Henry IV. and was undertaken and finiſhed under Louis XIV. It begins with a large reſervoir 4000 paces in circumference, and 24 feet deep, which receives many ſprings from the mountain Noire. This canal is about 64 leagues in length, is ſupplied by a number of rivulets, and is furniſhed with 104 locks, of about 8 feet riſe each. In ſome places it paſſes over bridges of vaſt height; and in others it cuts through ſolid rocks for 1000 paces. At one end it joins the river Garonne near Tholouſe, and terminates at the other in the lake Tau, which extends to the port of Cette. It was planned by Francis Riquet in 1666, and finiſhed in 1682. The Chineſe have alſo a great number of canals. That which runs from Canton to Pekin extends about 825 miles in length, and was executed about 800 years ago. There are likewiſe many canals, in Germany, Holland, Ruſſia, &c. &c.

(7.) CANALS, IRISH. The grand canal of Ireland commences at the W end of Dublin, and is to be carried on to Shannon. It already communicates with the Barrow, whereby a communication is opened with Athy, Carlow, Clonmel, Roſs, Waterford, &c. The execution of this work was arduous; for, beſides having hard and rocky ſtrata to cut through, and aqueducts to erect over rivers and valleys, a long tract of turf bog for ſome time baffled every effort, by filling up the channel,

(from its ſoft conſiſtence,) as often as the digging ceaſed. Theſe difficulties, however, are now got over, and the canal has proved ſuch a drain to the bog, that much of it is recovered and cultivated. By a branch now carried, at an immenſe expence, round the S. ſide of the city, the grand canal now communicates with the harbour of Dublin. There are other canals in the N. and W. of Ireland, beſides the royal canal on the N. ſide of Dublin.

(8.) CANAL, THE GRAND TRUNK. See § 5.

(9.) CANAL, THE GREAT, OF SCOTLAND. A navigable canal betwixt the Forth and Clyde dividing the kingdom in two parts, was firſt thought of by Charles II. for tranſports and ſmall ſhips of war; the expence of which was to have been 500,000l. a ſum far beyond the abilities of his reign. It was again projected in 1722, and a ſurvey made; but nothing more done till 1761, when the then Lord Napier, at his own expence, cauſed make a ſurvey, plan, and eſtimate on a ſmall ſcale. In 1764, the truſtees for fiſheries, &c. in Scotland cauſed make another ſurvey, plan, and eſtimate of a canal 5 feet deep, which was to coſt 79,000l. In 1766, a ſubſcription was obtained by a number of the moſt reſpectable merchants in Glaſgow, for making a canal 4 feet deep and 24 feet in breadth; but when the bill was nearly obtained in parliament, it was given up on account of the ſmallneſs of the ſcale, and a new ſubſcription ſet on foot for a canal 7 feet deep, eſtimated at 150,000. This obtained the ſanction of parliament; and the work was begun in 1768, by Mr Smeaton the engineer. The extreme length of the canal from the Forth to the Clyde is 35 miles, beginning at the mouth of the Carron, and ending at Dalmure Burnfoot on the Clyde, ſix miles below Glaſgow, riſing and falling 100 feet by means of 39 locks, 20 on the eaſt ſide of the ſummit, and 19 on the W. as the tide does not ebb ſo low in Clyde as in the Forth by 9 feet. Veſſels drawing 8 feet water, and not exceeding 19 feet beam and 73 feet in length, paſs with eaſe; the canal having been afterwards deepened to more than 8 feet. The carrying the canal through moſs, quickſand, gravel, and rocks, up precipices and over valleys, was attended with inconceivable difficulties. There are 18 draw-bridges and 15 aqueduct bridges of note, beſides ſmall ones and tunnels. In the firſt 3 miles there are only ſix locks; but in the 4th mile there are no leſs than ten locks, and a very fine aqueduct bridge over the great road W. of Falkirk. In the next 6 miles there are only four locks, which carry on to the ſummit. The canal then runs 18 miles on a level, and terminates about a mile from Glaſgow. In this courſe, for a conſiderable way the ground is banked about 25 feet high, and the water is 16 feet deep, and two miles of it is made through a deep moſs. At Kirkintulloch, the canal is carried over the water of Logie on an aqueduct arch of 90 feet broad. This arch was thrown over in 3 ſtretches, having only a centre of 30 feet, which was ſhifted on ſmall rollers from one ſtretch to another; a thing new, and never attempted before with an arch of this ſize; yet the joinings are as fairly equal as any other part, and admired as a very fine piece of maſonry. On each ſide there is a very conſiderable banking over the valley. The work was carried on till within 6 miles of its junction with the Clyde; when the ſubſcription and a ſubſequent loan being exhauſted, it was ſtopt in 1773. The city of Glaſgow, however, by means of a collateral branch, opened a communication with the Forth, which has produced a revenue of above 6000l. annually; and, in order to finiſh the remaining ſix miles, government, in 1784, granted 50,000l. out of the forfeited eſtates, the dividends ariſing from this ſum to be applied to making and repairing roads in the Highlands. Accordingly the work was reſumed in July 1786, and completely finiſhed within 4 years after; the navigation being opened between the Britiſh Sea and Atlantic Ocean, on the 28th July, 1790. See BOWLING BAY. The aqueduct bridge over the Kelvin (ſuppoſed to be the greateſt of the kind in the world) conſiſts of 4 arches, and carries the canal over a valley 65 feet high and 420 in length, exhibiting a very ſingular effort of human ingenuity and labour. To ſupply the canal with water was of itſelf a very great work. There is one reſervoir of 50 acres 24 feet deep; and another of 70 acres 22 feet deep, into which many rivers and ſprings terminate, which it is thought will afford ſufficient ſupply of water at all times. This whole undertaking has coſt about 200,000l. It is the greateſt of the kind in Britain, and muſt prove of immenſe national utility; as it ſhortens the nautical diſtance from 800 to 1000 miles, and affords a ſafe and ſpeedy navigation at all ſeaſons to Ireland and the weſtern parts of Britain, without danger of ſhipwreck. See farther, under FORTH AND CLYDE NAVIGATION.

* CANAL-COAL. *n. ſ.* A fine kind of coal, dug up in England.—Even our *canal-coal* nearly equals the foreign jet. *Woodward.*

CANALEGIE, a town, S. of Padſtow, Cornwall.

* CANALICULATED. *adj.* [from *canaliculatus*, Lat.] Channelled; made like a pipe or gutter. *Dict.*

(1.) CANANDAQUI, a lake of New York, in the county of Ontario.

(2.) CANANDAQUI, a poſt town, the capital of Ontario county, ſeated near the lake, (N. lat. m. from Jeruſalem, and 434 N. N. W. of Philadelphia. Courts of ſeſſions and common pleas are held in it, 1ſt Tueſ. of June and Nov.

CANANITE, or CANAITE, a native of Cana in Galilee. Simon, the apoſtle, is ſtiled in our tranſlation, *the Canaanite*; (*Mat.* x. 4. *Mark* iii. 18.) but this is evidently wrong. The word in the original is, Κανανίτης, or Ζηλωτής.

(1.) CANANORE, a kingdom of Aſia, on the coaſt of Malabar, whoſe king can raiſe a conſiderable army. The natives are generally Mahometans; and the country produces pepper, cardamons, ginger, myrobolans, and tamarinds, in which they drive a conſiderable trade.

(2.) CANANORE, a large maritime town in the above kingdom, (N. lat.) with a very large and fine harbour. It formerly belonged to the Portuguese, and had a ſtrong fort to guard it; but in 1663 the Dutch together with the natives, drove them away; and after they became maſters of the town enlarged the fortifications. They have but a very ſmall trade; but there is a town at the bottom of

the bay independant of the Dutch, whoſe prince can bring 20,000 men into the field. The fort is large, and the governor's lodgings are at a good diſtance from the gate; ſo that, when there was a ſkirmiſh between the factory and the natives, he knew nothing of it till it was over. It is now held by the Engliſh Eaſt India Company. Lon. 74. 10. E. Lat. 12. 0. N.

CANARA, a kingdom of Aſia, on the coaſt of Malabar. The inhabitants are Pagans; and there is a pagod, called *Ramtrut*, which is viſited every year by a great number of pilgrims. Here the cuſtom of burning the wives with their huſbands had its beginning, and is ſtill practiſed. The country is generally governed by a queen, who keeps her court at a town called *Baydor*, two days journey from the ſea. She may marry whom ſhe pleaſes; and is not obliged to burn with her huſband, like her female ſubjects. They are ſo good obſervers of their laws, that a robbery or murder is ſcarce ever heard of among them. The Canarans have forts built of earth along the coaſt, which are garriſoned with 200 or 300 ſoldiers, to guard againſt the robberies of their neighbours. The lower grounds yield every year 2 crops of corn or rice; and the higher produce pepper, betel nuts, ſanders wood, iron and ſteel. The Portugueſe clergy here live very looſely, and make no ſcruple of procuring women for ſtrangers.

(1.) CANARIA, in ancient geography, one of the FORTUNATE ISLANDS, a proof that theſe are what we now call the *Canaries*. Canaria had its name from abounding with dogs of an enormous ſize. See N. 2.

(2.) CANARIA, or the GRAND CANARY, an iſland in the Atlantic Ocean, about 180 miles from the coaſt of Africa. It is 42 m. long, 27 broad; about 100 in circumference, and 33 in diameter. It is fruitful, and famous for its wine. It alſo abounds with apples, melons, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, figs, olives, peaches, and plantains. The fir and palm trees are the moſt common. The towns are, Canary the capital, Gualdera, and Geria.

CANARINA, in botany, a genus of the order monogynia, belonging to the hexandria claſs of plants.

(1.) CANARIUM, in antiquity, [from *canis*, a dog,] a Romah ſacrifice, wherein dogs of a red colour were ſacrificed, for a ſecurity of the fruits of the earth againſt the raging heats of Sirius in the dog-days.

(2.) CANARIUM, in botany, a genus of the dioecia order, in the pentandria claſs of plants. Its characters are, that it hath male and female flowers; that, in both, the calyx has two leaves, and the corolla conſiſts of 3 petals: the fruit is a drupa with a three-cornered nut. There is but one ſpecies.

(1.) * CANARY. *n. ſ.* [from the *Canary* iſlands.] 1. Wine brought from the Canaries; now called ſack.—I will to my honeſt knight Falſtaff, and drink *canary* with him——I think I ſhall drink in pipe wine firſt with him; I'll make him dance. *Shakeſpeare.* 2. An old dance.

(2.) CANARY, or CIVIDAD DE PALMAS, the capital of the iſland CANARIA, N. 1. It has an indifferent caſtle, a court of inquiſition, and the ſupreme council of the reſt of the Canary iſlands. It is a biſhop's ſee, and has 4 convents, two for men and two for women. It is about 3 miles in compaſs, and contains 12,000 inhabitants. The houſes are only one ſtory high, and flat at the top; but they are well built. The cathedral is a handſome ſtructure. Lon. 15. 20. W. Lat. 28. 4. N.

(3.) * CANARY BIRD. An excellent finging bird, formerly bred in the Canaries, and no where elſe, but now bred in ſeveral parts of Europe, particularly Germany.—Of finging birds, they have linnets, goldfinches, ruddocks, *canary birds*, blackbirds, thruſhes, and divers other. *Carew.*

(4.) CANARY BIRDS. See FRINGILLA. Theſe birds are much admired for their ſinging, and take their name from the iſlands, (N. 9.) from whence they originally came, but of late there is a ſpecies brought from Germany, and therefore called *German birds*, which are much better, though both are ſuppoſed to have originally come from the ſame place. The cocks never grow fat, and by ſome cannot be diſtinguiſhed from common green birds; though the Canary birds are much luſtier, have a longer tail, and differ much in heaving the paſſages of the throat when they ſing. Canary birds are diſtinguiſhed by different names at different times and ages: thoſe that are new flown, and cannot feed themſelves, are called *piſhers*; thoſe brought up by hand, *neſtlings*; thoſe of the 1ſt year, under the care of the old ones, *branchers*; thoſe above two years old, *eriſſs*; and thoſe of 3 years, *runts*. Canary birds are various in their notes; ſome having a ſweet ſong, others a low note, others a long ſong, which is beſt, as having the greateſt variety of notes: but they ſing chiefly either the titlark or nightingale notes. See SONG OF BIRDS.

(5.) CANARY BIRDS, DIRECTIONS FOR CHOOSING. Theſe birds being much eſteemed for their ſong, are ſometimes ſold at high prices, according to the excellency of their notes. To know whether a Canary bird is in good health, take him out of their ſtort cage, and put him in a clean cage by himſelf; if he ſtand up boldly, without ſhrinking in his feathers, look with a briſk eye, and does not clap his head under his wing, it is a ſign he is in good health; if he bolts his tail like a nightingale after he has dunged, it is a ſign he is not in good health, or at leaſt that he will ſoon be ſick; but if his dung be very thin like water, or of a ſlimy white without any blackneſs, it is a ſign of approaching death. When in perfect health, his dung lies round and hard, white on the outſide, dark within, and dries quickly; though a ſeed bird ſeldom dungs ſo hard, unleſs he is very young.

(6.) CANARY BIRDS, MANAGEMENT OF. Canary birds are ſubject to many diſeaſes, particularly impoſthumes, which affect the head, cauſe them to fall ſuddenly from the perch, and die in a ſhort time, if not ſpeedily cured. The moſt approved medicine is an ointment made of freſh butter and capon's greaſe melted together. With this the top of the bird's head is to be anointed for 2 or 3 days, and it will diſſolve the impoſthume; but if the medicine has been too long delayed, then, after 3 or 4 times anointing, ſee whether the

the place of his head be ſoft; and if ſo, open it gently, and let out the matter, which will be like the yolk of an egg; when this is done, anoint the place, and the bird will be cured. At the ſame time he muſt have figs with his other food, and in his water a ſlice or two of liquorice, with white ſugar-candy. The Canary birds may be bred with us; and, if treated with proper care, they will become as vigorous and healthful as if bred in their native country. The cages in which theſe birds are kept ſhould be made either of walnut tree or oak, with bars of wire; becauſe theſe, being ſtrong, do not require to be uſed in large pieces. The common ſhape of cages, which is cylindric, is very improper for theſe birds; for this allows little room to walk, and without that the birds uſually become melancholy. The moſt proper of all ſhapes is the high and long, but narrow. If theſe birds eat too much, they grow too fat, loſe their ſhape, and their ſinging is ſpoiled. In this caſe their victuals muſt be given them in a ſmaller quantity, and they will thus be gradually recovered to all their beauty, and will ſing as at firſt. When they are about to build their neſts, ſome hay muſt be put into their cages dried thoroughly in the ſun: with this muſt be mixed ſome moſs dried in the ſame manner, and ſome ſtag's hair. Great care is to be taken of breeding the young birds in the article of food. As ſoon as they are 8 days old, or ſomewhat more, and are able to eat and pick up food of themſelves, they ſhould be taken out of the cage, and each put ſeparately into another, and hung up in a room where it may never have an opportunity of hearing the voice of any other bird. After they have been kept thus about 8 days, they are to be excited to ſing by a bird pipe; but this muſt not be blown too ſhrill. For the firſt 15 days, the cages ſhould be covered with a black cloth, and for the 15 following with a green one. Five leſſons in a day from the pipe are ſufficient for theſe young creatures; and they muſt not be diſturbed with ſeveral ſounds at the ſame time, leſt they puzzle them. Two leſſons ſhould be given them early in the morning, one about the middle of the day, and two more at night. The genius and temper of the ſeveral birds of this kind are very different. The males are almoſt always melancholy, and will not ſing, unleſs excited by hearing others. They will often kill the female, and when there are ſeveral females together with the males, they will often kill each other from jealouſy. It is therefore proper to manage their breeding in this manner: let two female birds be put into one cage, and when they have lived together ſome time, they will have contracted a ſort of fondneſs for one another, which will not eaſily be diſſolved. Put a male bird into the cage with theſe two, and every thing will go well: their friendſhip will keep them from quarrelling about his favours, and from danger of his miſchievous diſpoſition; for if he attacks one of them, the other will immediately take her part; and after a few of theſe battles, the male will find that they are an overmatch for him at fighting, and will then diſtribute his favours to both, and there will ſoon be a young bird or two, which are to be taken away from their parents, and educated as before directed. Some males watch the time of the female's laying and devour the eggs; others take the young ones in their beak as ſoon as hatched, and crush them to death againſt the ſides of the cage. When a male has been once guilty of this, he muſt be ſhut up in a ſmall cage, in the middle of the large one, in which the female is breeding her young, and thus he will comfort her with ſinging all day, while ſhe ſits upon the eggs or takes care of the young ones; and when the time of taking away, to put them into ſeparate cages, is come, the male is to be let out, and he will always after this live in friendſhip with the female. If the male become ſick during the time of the female's ſitting or bringing up her young, he muſt be removed immediately, and only brought to the foot of her cage at certain times, that ſhe may ſee him, till he is perfectly cured; and then he is to be ſhut up again in his cage in the middle.

(7.) CANARY, GRAND. See CANARIA, N. 1.

(8.) CANARY GRASS. See PHALARIS.

(9.) CANARY ISLANDS are ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, over againſt the empire of Morocco in Africa. They were formerly called the *Fortunate Iſlands*, on account of the temperate healthy air, and excellent fruits. The land is very fruitful; both wheat and barley produce 130 for one. The cattle thrive well, and the woods are full of all ſorts of game. The birds are well known all over Europe. See N. 3, & 4. Sugar canes abound greatly, but the Spaniards firſt planted vines here, from whence we have the wine called Canary. Theſe iſlands were not unknown to the ancients; but they were long forgot, till John de Betancourt diſcovered them, in 1402. It is ſaid they were firſt inhabited by the Phœnicians, or Carthaginians, but the inhabitants could not tell from whence they were derived; on the contrary they did not know there was any other country in the world. Their language, manners, and cuſtoms, had no reſemblance to thoſe of their neighbours. However, they were like the people on the coaſt of Barbary in complexion. They had no iron. The Spaniards got poſſeſſion of all theſe iſlands, except Madeira, which belongs to the Portugueſe; and they ſtill retain them. The inhabitants are chiefly Spaniards; though there are ſome of the original natives remaining, who they call GUANCHES. They are ſomewhat civilized by their intercourſe with the Spaniards; and are a hardy, active, bold people. They live on the mountains, and their chief food is goat's milk. Their complexion is tawny, and their noſes flat. The Spaniſh veſſels, when they ſail for the Weſt Indies, always rendezvous at theſe iſlands, going and coming. Their names are Allegranza, Canaria, Ferro, Fue taventura, Gomera, Graciosa, Infierno, Lancerotta, Lobos, Madeira, Palma, Rocca, St Clare, Salvages, and Teneriff. Lon. from 12° to 21°. W. Lat. from 27°. 30′. to 2,° 30′. N.

(10.) CANARY WEED. See ARCHIL.

* *To* CANARY. *v. a.* A cant word, which ſeems to ſignify to dance; to frolick.—Maſter, will you win your love with a French brawl?—how mean'ſt thou, brawling in French?—No, no; compleat maſter; but to jig off a tune at the tongue's end, *canary* to it with your feet, &c.

mour it with turning up your eyelids. *Shakeſpeare.*

(1.) CANCALLE, a town of France in the department of Morbihan, and ci-devant province of Upper Brittany. Here the Britiſh landed in 1758, in their way to St Maloes, where they burnt a great number of ſhips in the harbour, and then retired without loſs. This town was in their power; but they acted like generous enemies, and did no hurt to it, nor any other on the coaſt. Lon. 1. 57. W. Lat. 47. 41. N.

(2.) CANCALLE BAY, a bay of France on the coaſt of Morbihan.

CANCAMUM, among ancient Greek phyſicians, a gum or reſin, ſuppoſed to be GUM LAC.

* *To* CANCEL. *v. a.* [*canceller*, Fr. from *cancellis notare*, to mark with croſs lines] 1. To croſs a writing. 2. To efface; to obliterate in general.

Now welcome night, thou night ſo long expected,
That long day's labour doth at laſt defray,
And all my cares which cruel love collected,
Has ſumm'd in one, and *cancelled* for aye. *Spenſ.*

Know then, I here forget all former griefs,
Cancel all grudge; repeal thee home again.
Shakeſpeare.

Thou whom avenging pow'rs obey,
Cancel my debt, too great to pay,
Before the ſad accounting day. *Roſcommon.*

I paſs the bills, my lords,
For cancelling your debts. *Southerne.*

CANCELIER, in falconry, is when a light brown hawk, in her ſtooping, turns two or three times upon the wing, to recover herſelf before ſhe ſeizes.

CANCELLARIUS. See CHANCELLOR.

* CANCELLATED. *partic. adj.* [from *cancel.*] Croſs barred; marked with lines croſſing each other.—The tail of the caſtor is almoſt bald, though the beaſt is very hairy; and *cancellated*, with ſome reſemblance to the ſcales of fiſhes. *Grew.*

* CANCELLATION *n. ſ.* [from *cancel.*] According to Bartolus, is an expunging or wiping out of the contents of an inſtrument, by two lines drawn in the manner of a croſs. *Ayliffe.*

(1.) CANCELLI, in building, lattice windows, or thoſe made of croſs bars diſpoſed latticewiſe. It is alſo uſed for rails or balluſters incloſing the communion table, a court of juſtice, or the like; and for the network in the inſide of hollow bones.

(2.) CANCELLI, in military affairs, the ſame with barriers.

CANCELLING, in the civil law, an act whereby a perſon conſents that ſome former deed be rendered null and void; otherwiſe called *reſciſion.*

CANCELLUS, a ſynonime of the hermit crab. See CANCER, § IV. N. 4.

(I.) * CANCER. *n. ſ.* [*cancer*, Lat.] 1. A crabiſh. 2. The ſign of the ſummer ſolſtice.—

When now no more th' alternate Twins are ſeen,
And *Cancer* reddens with the ſolar blaze,
Short is the doubtful empire of the night. *Thomſon.*

3. A virulent ſwelling, or ſore, not to be cured.—Any of theſe three may degenerate into a ſchirrus, and that ſchirrus into a *cancer.* *Wiſeman.*—

As when a *cancer* on the body feeds,
And gradual death from limb to limb proceeds;
So does the chilneſs to each vital part,
Spread by degrees, and creeps into the heart.
Addiſon.

(II. 1.) CANCER, in aſtronomy, one of the 12 ſigns, repreſented on the globe in the form of a crab, and thus marked (♋) in books. It is the 4th conſtellation in the ſtarry zodiac. See ASTRONOMY, § 548. The reaſon generally aſſigned for its name as well as figure, is a ſuppoſed reſemblance which the ſun's motion in this ſign bears to the crab. As the latter walks backwards, ſo the former, in this part of his courſe, begins to go backwards, or recede from us. By others, the diſpoſition of ſtars in this ſign is ſuppoſed to have given the firſt hint to the repreſentation of a crab. It gives name to a quadrant of the ecliptic, viz.

(2.) CANCER, TROPIC OF, in aſtronomy, a leſſer circle of the ſphere parallel to the equator, and paſſing through the beginning of the ſign Cancer. See ASTRONOMY, *Index.*

(III.) CANCER, in medicine, a roundiſh, unequal, hard, and livid tumour, generally ſeated in the glandulous part of the body, ſuppoſed to be ſo called, becauſe it appears at length with turgid veins ſhooting out from it, ſo as to reſemble, as it is thought, the figure of a crab fiſh; or, others ſay, becauſe, like that fiſh, where it has once got, it is ſcarce poſſible to drive it away. See MEDICINE, *Index.*

(IV.) CANCER, in zoology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of inſecta aptera. The generic characters are theſe: they have 8 legs, (ſeldom ten or ſix,) beſides the two large claws which anſwer the purpoſe of hands. They have two eyes at a conſiderable diſtance from each other, and for the moſt part ſupported by a kind of pedunculi or footſtalks; the eyes are likewiſe elongated and moveable; they have two clawed palpi, and the tail is jointed. There are no leſs than 87 ſpecies of cancer, diſtinguiſhed principally by the length of their tails and the margins of their breaſts. The following are the moſt remarkable.

1. CANCER ASTACUS, or the craw-fiſh, with a projecting ſnout ſlightly ſerrated on the ſides; a ſmooth thorax; back ſmooth, with two ſmall ſpines on each ſide; claws large, beſet with ſmall tubercles; two firſt pair of legs clawed, the two next ſubulated; tail conſiſting of 5 joints; the caudal fins rounded. It inhabits many of the rivers in England, lodging in holes which they form in the clayey banks. Cardan ſays, that this ſpecies indicates the goodneſs of water; for in the beſt water they are boiled into the reddeſt colour.

2. CANCER ATOMOS, atom lobſter, with a ſlender body; filiform antennæ; three pair of legs near the head; behind which are two pair of oval veſiculæ; beyond are three pair of legs, and a ſlender tail between the laſt pair. It is very minute, and the help of the microſcope is often neceſſary for its inſpection.

3. CANCER CRANGON, the SHRIMP, with long ſlender feelers, and between them two projecting laminæ; claws with a ſingle, hooked, moveable fang; three pair of legs; 7 joints in the tail; the

middle

middle caudal fin ſubulated, the other 4 rounded and fringed, a ſpine on the exterior ſide of each of the outmoſt. In inhabits the ſhores of Britain in vaſt quantities, and is the moſt delicious of the genus.

4. CANCER DIOGENES, ſoldier crab, or hermit crab, with rough claws; the left claw is the longeſt (this being the only difference between the *diogenes* and *bernardus*); the legs are ſubulated, and ſerrated along the upper ridge; the tail naked and tender, and furniſhed with a hook by which it ſecures itſelf in its lodging. See *Plate* XLIX. This ſpecies is paraſitic; and inhabits the empty cavities of turbinated ſhells, changing its habitation according to its increaſe of growth from the ſmall *nerite* to the large *whelk*. Nature denies it the ſtrong covering behind, which it hath given to others of this claſs; and therefore directs it to take refuge in the deſerted caſes of other animals. They crawl very faſt with the ſhell on their back; and at the approach of danger draw themſelves within the ſhell, and, thruſting out the larger claw, will pinch very hard whatever moleſts them. Ariſtotle deſcribes it very exactly under the nome of κασσιπωρ. By the moderns it is called the *ſoldier*, from the idea of its dwelling in a tent; or the *hermit*, from retiring into a cell. When this animal wants to change its ſhell, it travels along that line of pebbles and ſhells which is formed by the extremeſt wave; ſtill, however, dragging its old incommodious habitation at its tail, unwilling to part with one ſhell, even though a troubleſome appendage, till it can find another more convenient. It is ſeen ſtopping at one ſhell, turning it, and paſſing it by; going on to another, contemplating that for a while, and then ſlipping its tail from its old habitation to try on the new: if this alſo is found to be inconvenient, it quickly returns to its old ſhell again. In this manner it frequently changes, till at laſt it finds one light, roomy, and commodious; to this it adheres, though the ſhell be ſometimes ſo large as to hide the body of the animal, claws and all. Yet it is not till after many trials, and many combats alſo, that the ſoldier is thus completely equipped; for there is often a conteſt between two of them for ſome well-looking favourite ſhell for which they are rivals. They both endeavour to take poſſeſſion; they ſtrike with their claws, they bite each other, till the weakeſt is obliged to yield by giving up the object of diſpute. It is then that the victor immediately takes poſſeſſion, and parades in his new conqueſt 3 or 4 times back and forward upon the ſtrand before his envious antagoniſt. When this animal is taken, it ſends forth a feeble cry, endeavouring to ſeize the enemy with its nippers; which if it faſtens upon it, will ſooner die than quit the graſp. The hermit crabs frequent moſtly thoſe parts of the ſea ſhores which are covered with ſhrubs and trees, producing various wild fruits on which they ſubſiſt; though they will alſo feed on the fragments of fiſh and other animal ſubſtances caſt on ſhore. When roaſted in the ſhell, they are eſteemed delicate.

rmit crab, hung in the air, diſſolves into a
il, which ſpeedily cures the rheumatiſm,
upon the part.

ICER ERYTHROPUS, or red-clawed crab, is of a ſmall ſize, and brown colour; it has two claws of unequal bigneſs, red at the ends; and legs, which ſeem of leſs uſe to them than thoſe other crabs; for when on the ground, they crawl with ſlow pace, dragging their bodies along; but they are moſtly ſeen graſping with their claws, and hanging to ſome ſea-plant, or other marine ſubſtance.

6. CANCER GAMMARUS, the common LOBSTER, with a ſmooth thorax, ſhort ſerrated front, very long antennæ; and between them too ſhorter ones, bifid; claws and fangs large, the greater tuberculated; the leſſer ſerrated on the inner edge; four pair of legs; ſix joints in the tail; tail-fins rounded. It inhabits all the rocky ſhores of our iſland, but chiefly where there is a depth of water. In Llyn in Caernarvonſhire a certain ſmall lobſter, nothing different except in ſize, burrows in the ſand. They are brought in vaſt quantities from the Orkney iſles, and many parts of the eaſtern coaſt of Scotland, to the London markets. From the neighbourhood of Montroſe alone, 60, or 70,000 are annually brought. The lobſter was well known to the ancients, and is well deſcribed by Ariſtotle under the name of καραβος. It is found as far as the Helleſpont; and is called at Conſtantinople *liezyda* and *liezyna*. Lobſters fear thunder, and are apt to caſt their claws on a great clap: It is ſaid that they will do the ſame on the firing of a great gun; and that, when men of war meet a lobſter boat, a jocular threat is uſed, that if the maſter does not ſell them good lobſters, they will *ſalute him*. This ſpecies is fond of bit the cleareſt water, at the foot of rocks that impend over the ſea; which has given opportunity of examining more cloſely into the natural hiſtory of the animal, than of many others who live in an element, that in a great meaſure, limits the inquiries of the moſt inquiſitive. Some lobſters are taken by hand; but the greater quantity in pots, a ſort of trap formed of twigs, and baited with garbage. They are formed like a wire mouſe trap, ſo that when the lobſter gets in it cannot return. Theſe are faſtened to a cord left in the ſea, and their place marked by a buoy. Lobſters begin to breed in ſpring, and continue breeding moſt part of the ſummer. They propagate *more humano*, and are extremely prolific. Dr Baſter ſays he counted 12,444 eggs under the tail, beſides thoſe that remained in the body unprotruded. They depoſite thoſe eggs in the ſea, where they are ſoon hatched. Lobſters change their ſhells annually. Previous to their putting off their old ones, they appear ſick, languid, and reſtleſs. They acquire an entire new coat in a few days; but during the time that they remain defenceleſs, they ſeek ſome very lonely place, for fear of being devoured by ſuch of their brethren as are not in the ſame ſituation. It is remarkable, that lobſters and crabs renew their claws, when accidentally torn off; and they grow again in a few weeks, though they never attain to the ſize of the firſt. They are very voracious animals, and feed on ſea-weeds, garbage, and all ſorts of dead bodies. The pincers of one of the lobſters large claws are furniſhed with knobs, and thoſe of the other are always ſerrated. With the former it keeps firm hold of the ſtalks of ſubmarine plants

lants, and with the latter it cuts and minces its od very dexterously. The knobbed or *numb* aw, as the fishermen call it, is sometimes on the ght and sometimes on the left side indifferently. is more dangerous to be seized by them with e cutting claw than the other; but, in either se, the quickest way to get disengaged from the eature is to pull off its claw. The female or n lobster does not cast her shell the same year at she deposites her ova, or, in the common rase, is in *berry*. When the ova first appear nder her tail, they are small, and extremely lack; but they become in succession almost as rge as ripe elder berries before they are depo- ted, and turn of a dark brown colour, especial- towards the end of the time of her depositing em. They continue full, and deposite the ova constant succession, as long as any of that black bstance is in their bodies, which, when boiled, rns of a beautiful red colour, and is called their *ral*. Hen lobsters are found in berry at all times f the year, but chiefly in winter. It is a com- on mistake, that a berried hen is always in per- ction for the table. When her berries appear rge and brownish, she will always be found ex- austed, watery, and poor. Though the ova be t at all seasons, they seem only to come to life July and August. Great numbers of them ay then be found, in the form of tadpoles, wimming about the little pools left by the tides mong the rocks, and many also under their pro- er form from half an inch to 4 inches in length. casting their shells, it is hard to conceive how he lobster is able to draw the fish of their large laws out, leaving the shells entire and attached o the shell of their body, in which state they are onstantly found. The fishermen say, the lobster ines before casting, till the fish of its large claw s no thicker than the quill of a goose, which en- bles it to draw its parts through the joints and arrow passage near the trunk. The new shell is ite membranaceous at first, but hardens by de- rees. Lobsters only grow in size while their ells are in their soft state. They are chosen for he table, by their being heavy in proportion to heir size; and by the hardness of their shells on heir sides, which, when in perfection, will not ield to moderate pressure. Barnacles and other mall fish adhering to them are reckoned certain gns of superior goodness. Cock lobsters are in eneral better than the hens in winter; they are istinguished by the narrowness of their tails, and y their having a strong spine upon the centre of ach of the transverse processes beneath the tail, hich support the 4 middle plates of their tails. The fish of a lobster's claw is more tender, deli- ate, and easy of digestion, than that of the tail. n summer, the lobsters are found near the shore, nd thence to about six fathoms water; in winter, hey are seldom taken in less than 12 or 15 fa- homs. Like other insects, they are much more ctive and alert in warm weather than in cold. In he water, they can run nimbly upon their legs r small claws; and, if alarmed, can spring, tail oremost, to a surprising distance, as swift as a ird can fly. The fishermen can see them pass bout 30 feet; and, by the swiftness of their mo- ion, suppose they may go much further. Athe- næus remarks this circumstance, and says, that "the incurvated lobsters will spring with the ac- tivity of dolphins." Their eyes are raised upon moveable bases, which enables them to see readi- ly every way. When frightened, they will spring from a considerable distance to their hold in the rock, and, what is not less surprising than true, will throw themselves into their hold in that man- ner through an entrance barely sufficient for their bodies to pass.

7. CANCER GRANULATUS, or rough-shelled crab: these crabs are pretty large, and are com- monly taken from the bottom of the sea in shal- low water; the legs are small in proportion to the body; the two claws are remarkably large and flat. The whole shell is covered over with innu- merable little tubercles like shagreen: the colour is brown, variously stained with purple.

8. CANCER GRAPSUS, or the red mottled crab, has a round body, the legs longer and larger than in other kinds; the claws are red, and the rest of the animal is mottled in a beautiful manner with red and white. These crabs inhabit the rocks hanging over the sea; they are the nimblest of all crabs, and run with surprising agility along the upright side of a rock, and even under the rocks that hang horizontally below the water. This they are often necessitated to do for escaping the assaults of rapacious birds that pursue them. These crabs never go to land; but frequent mos- ly those parts of the promontories and islands of rocks in and near the sea, where, by the continu- al and violent agitation of the waves against the rocks, they are always wet, continually receiving the spray of the sea, which often washes them in- to it; but they instantly return to the rock again, not being able to live under water, and yet re- quiring more of that element than any of the crus- taceous kind that are not fish.

9. CANCER HORRIDUS, the horrid crab, with a projecting bifurcated snout, the end diverging; body heart-shaped; with the claws and legs co- vered with long and very sharp spines.—It is a large species, and inhabits the rocks on the eastern coasts of Scotland. It is common to Norway and Scotland, as many of the marine animals and birds are. See *Plate* XLIX.

10. CANCER LOCUSTA, the locust lobster, with 4 antennæ; two pair of imperfect claws; the first joint ovated; the body consists of 14 joints. It abounds, in summer, on the shores, beneath stones and algæ, and leaps about with vast agility.

11. CANCER MÆNAS, the common CRAB, with 3 notches on the front; 5 serrated teeth on each side; claws ovated; next joint toothed; hind feet subulated; of a dirty green colour, but red when boiled. It inhabits all our shores; lurks under the algæ, or burrows under the sand; and is sold and eaten.

12. CANCER PAGURUS, or the black-clawed crab, with a crenated thorax; smooth body; quin- quedentated front; smooth claws and black tips; hind feet subulated. It inhabits the rocky coasts; is very delicious meat, and casts its shell between Christmas and Easter. The tips of the claws of this species are used in medicine; to absorb acidi- ties in the stomach and bowels.

13. CANCER PISUM, the pea crab, with round-

ed and smooth thorax, entire and blunt; with a tail of the size of the body, which commonly is the bulk of a pea. It inhabits the muscle, and on that account has been deemed poisonous; but the swelling after eating muscles is wholly constitutional. Crabs of this kind the ancients believed to have been the confentaneous inmates of the PINNA, which, being too ſtupid to perceive the approach of their prey, were warned of it by their vigilant friend.

14. CANCER PULEX, the flea lobſter, with 5 pair of legs, and two claws, imperfect; and 12 joints in the body. It is very common in fountains and rivulets; ſwims very ſwiftly in an incurvated poſture on its back; embraces and protects its young between the legs; does not leap.

15. CANCER RURICOLA, the land crab, or violet crab, with a ſmooth entire thorax, and the two laſt joints of the feet armed with ſpines. It inhabits the Bahama iſlands, as well as moſt lands between the tropics; and feeds upon vegetables. Theſe animals live not only in a kind of orderly ſociety in the retreats in the mountains, but regularly once a year march down to the ſea-ſide in a body of ſome millions at a time. As they multiply in great numbers, they chooſe the month of April or May to begin their expedition; and then ſally out by thouſands from the ſtumps of hollow trees, from the clefts of rocks, and from the holes which they dig for themſelves under the ſurface of the earth. At that time the whole ground is covered with this band of adventurers; there is no ſetting down one's foot without treading upon them. The ſea is their place of deſtination, and to that they direct their march with right-lined preciſion. No geometrician could ſend them to their deſtined ſtation by a ſhorter courſe; they neither turn to the right nor left, whatever obſtacles intervene; and even if they meet with a houſe, they will attempt to ſcale the walls to keep the unbroken tenor of their way. But though this be the general order of their route, they, upon other occaſions, are obliged to conform to the face of the country; and if it is interſected with rivers, they are then ſeen to wind along the courſe of the ſtream. The proceſſion ſets forward from the mountains with the regularity of an army under an experienced commander. They are commonly divided into three battalions; of which the firſt conſiſts of the ſtrongeſt and boldeſt males, who, like pioneers, march forward to clear the route and face the greateſt dangers. They are often obliged to halt for want of rain, and to go into the moſt convenient encampment till the weather changes. The main body of the army is compoſed of females, which never leave the mountains till the rain is ſet in for ſome time, and then deſcend in regular battalia, being formed into columns of 50 paces broad, and 3 miles deep, and ſo cloſe that they almoſt cover the ground. The rear-guard follows 3 or 4 days after; a ſtraggling undiſciplined tribe, conſiſting of males and females, but not ſo vigorous as the former. The night is their chief time of proceeding; but if it rains by day, they do not fail to profit by the occaſion; and they continue to move forward in their ſlow uniform manner. When the ſun ſhines and is hot upon the ſurface of the ground, they make an univerſal halt, and wait till the cool of the evening. When they are terrified, they march back in a confuſed diſorderly manner, holding up their nippers, with which they ſometimes tear off a piece of the ſkin, and then leave the weapon where they inflicted the wound. They even try to intimidate their enemies; for they often clatter their nippers together, as if to threaten thoſe that diſturb them. But though they thus ſtrive to be formidable to man, they are much more ſo to each other; for they are poſſeſſed of one moſt unuſual property, which is, that if any of them by accident is maimed in ſuch a manner as to be incapable of proceeding, the reſt fall upon and devour it on the ſpot, and then purſue their journey. When, after a fatiguing march, and eſcaping a thouſand dangers, (for they are ſometimes three months in getting to the ſhore,) they have arrived at their deſtined port, they prepare to caſt their ſpawn. The peas are as yet within their bodies, and not excluded, as is uſual in animals of this kind, under the tail; for the creature waits for the benefit of ſea water to help the delivery. It has no ſooner reached the ſhore, than it goes to the edge of the water, and lets the waves waſh over its body two or three times. This ſeems only a preparation for bringing the ſpawn to maturity; for, without farther delay, they withdraw to ſeek a lodging upon land: in the mean time the ſpawn grows larger, is excluded out of the body, and ſticks to the barbs under the flap, or more properly the tail. This bunch is ſeen as big as an hen's egg, and exactly reſembling the roes of herrings. In this ſtate of pregnancy they once more ſeek the ſhore for the laſt time; and ſhaking off their ſpawn into the water, leave accident to bring it to maturity. At this time whole ſhoals of hungry fiſh are at the ſhore in expectation of this annual ſupply; the ſea to a great diſtance ſeems black with them; and about two thirds of the crabs eggs are immediately devoured by theſe rapacious invaders. The eggs that eſcape are hatched under the ſand; and, ſoon after, millions at a time of theſe little crabs are ſeen quitting the ſhore, and ſlowly travelling up to the mountains. The old ones, however, are not ſo active to return; they have become ſo feeble and lean, that they can hardly creep along, and the fleſh at that time changes its colour. Moſt of them, therefore, are obliged to continue in the flat parts of the country till they recover, making holes in the earth, which they cover at the mouth with leaves and dirt, that no air may enter. There they throw off their old ſhells, which they leave quite whole; the place where they opened on the belly being unſeen. At that time they are quite naked, and almoſt without motion for ſix days together, when they become ſo fat as to be delicious food. They have then under their ſtomachs 4 large white ſtones, which gradually decreaſe in proportion as the ſhell hardens, and, when they come to perfection, are not to be found. It is at that time that the animal is ſeen ſlowly making its way back; which is commonly performed in ſix weeks. This animal, when poſſeſſed of its retreats in the mountains, is impregnable: for, only ſubſiſting upon vegetables, it ſeldom ventures out; and its habitation being in the moſt inacceſſible

places, it remains for a great part of the ſeaſon in perfect ſecurity. It is only when impelled by the deſire of bringing forth its young, and when compelled to deſcend into the flat country, that it is taken. At that time the natives wait for its deſcent in eager expectation, and deſtroy thouſands; but, diſregarding their bodies, they only ſeek for that ſmall prawn which dies on each ſide of the ſtomach within the ſhell, of about the thickneſs of a man's thumb. They are much more valuable upon their return after they have caſt their ſhell; for, being covered with a ſkin reſembling ſoft parchment, almoſt every part except the ſtomach may be eaten. They are taken in the holes by feeling for them with an inſtrument; they are ſought after by light, when on their journey, by flambeaux. The inſtant the animal perceives itſelf attacked, it throws itſelf on its back, and with its claws clinches moſt terribly whatever it happens to faſten on. But the dexterous crab-catcher takes them by the hinder legs in ſuch a manner that the nippers cannot touch them, and thus he throws them into his bag. Sometimes alſo they are caught when they take refuge in the bottoms of holes in rocks by the ſea-ſide, by covering the mouth of the hole, to prevent their getting out; and then ſoon after, the tide coming, enters the hole, and the animal is found, upon its ebbing, drowned in its retreat. Theſe crabs are of various ſizes, the largeſt about 6 inches wide; they walk ſide-ways like the ſea crab, and are ſhaped like them: ſome are black, ſome yellow, ſome red, and others variegated with red, white, and yellow mixed. Some of theſe are poiſonous; and ſeveral people have died by eating them, particularly the black kind. The light coloured are reckoned beſt; and when full in fleſh, are very well taſted. In ſome of the ſugar iſlands they are eat without danger; and are ſo ſmall help to the negro ſlaves, who, on many of theſe iſlands, would fare very hard without them. See *Plate* XLIX.

16. CANCER SERRATUS, or the PRAWN, with a long ſerrated ſnout bending upwards; 3 pair of very long filiform feelers; claws ſmall, furniſhed with two fangs; ſmooth thorax; 5 joints to the tail; middle caudal fin ſubulated, two outmoſt flat and rounded. It is frequent in ſeveral ſhores among looſe ſtones; ſometimes found at ſea, and taken on the ſurface over 30 fathoms depth of water; cinereous when freſh; of a fine red when boiled.

17. CANCER SQUILLA, with a ſnout like a prawn, but deeper and thinner; the feelers longer in proportion to the bulk; the ſub-caudal fins rather larger; is, at full growth, not above half the bulk of the former.—It inhabits the coaſts of Kent; and is ſold in London under the name of the *white ſhrimp*, as it aſſumes that colour when boiled.

18. CANCER STRIGOSUS, or the plated lobſter, with a pyramidal ſpiny ſnout; thorax elegantly plated, each plate marked near its junction with ſhort ſtriæ; claws much longer than the body, thick, echinated, and tuberculated; the upper fang trifid; only 3 legs ſpiny on their ſides; tail broad. The largeſt of this ſpecies is about ſix inches long. It inhabits the coaſts of Angleſea, under ſtones and fuci. It is very active; and, if taken, flaps its tail againſt the body with much violence and noiſe. See *Plate* XLIX.

19. CANCER VELUTINUS, or velvet crab, with the thorax quinquedentated; body covered with ſhort, brown, velvet-like pile; claws covered with minute tubercles; ſmall ſpines round the top of the 2d joint; hind legs broadly ovated. This is among the ſpecies taken notice of by Ariſtotle on account of the broad feet, which, he ſays, aſſiſt them in ſwimming; as web-feet do the water-fowl. It inhabits the weſtern coaſt of Angleſea.

20. CANCER VOLANS, or ſand crab, is but of a ſmall ſize; its colour light brown, or duſky white. It has eight legs, and two claws, one of which is double the ſize of the other: theſe claws ſerve both to defend and feed them. The head has two ſquare holes, which are receptacles for its eyes; out of which it thruſts them, and draws them in again at pleaſure. Their abode is only on the ſandy ſhores of Ilaſhera, and others of the Bahama iſlands. They run very faſt, and retreat from danger into little holes they make in the ſand.

* *To* CANCERATE. *v. n.* [from *cancer*.] To grow cancerous; to become a cancer.—But ſtriking his fiſt upon the point of a nail in the wall, his hand *cancerated*, he fell into a fever, and ſoon after died on't. *L'Eſtrange*.

* CANCERATION. *n. ſ.* [from *cancerate*.] A growing cancerous.

* CANCEROUS. *adj.* [from *cancer*.] Having the virulence and qualities of a cancer.—How they are to be treated when they are ſtrumous, ſchirrhous, or *cancerous*, you may ſee in their proper places. *Wiſeman*.

* CANCEROUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *cancerous*.] The ſtate of being cancerous.

CANCHE, a river of France, which riſes in the department of the Straits of Calais, becomes navigable at Montreuil, and falls into the ſea below Staples.

CANCHERIZANTE, or CANCHERIZATO, in the Italian muſic, a term ſignifying a piece of muſic that begins at the end, being the retrograde motion from the end of a ſong, &c. to the beginning.

CANCHRYS. See CACHRYS, N° II.

CANCRIFORM, *adj.* having the form of a crab.

* CANCRINE. *adj.* [from *cancer*.] Having the qualities of a crab.

CANCROMA, or BOAT-BILL, in ornithology, a genus of birds belonging to the order of *Grallæ* the characters of which are: The bill is broad, with a keel along the middle; the noſtrils are ſmall, and lodged in a furrow; the tongue is ſmall; and the toes are divided. There are two ſpecies:

1. CANCROMA CANCROPHAGA, or the brown boat-bill, reſembles the COCHLEARIA (ſee N° 2.) ſo much in ſize, head, creſt, and every thing almoſt, except the colour, that Mr Lathan conſiders them both as only varieties of the ſame ſpecies. Linnæus however ranks them as diſtinct. In this ſpecies the under parts, inſtead of aſh colour, are of a pale rufous brown; the tail rufous aſh; and the upper parts wholly of a cream colour; the bill and legs of a yellow brown. It inhabits Cayenne, Guiana, and Braſil, and chiefly frequents

such parts as are near the water: in such places it perches on the trees which hang over the streams, and, like the king's fisher, drops down on the fish which swim beneath. It has been thought to live on crabs likewise, whence the Linnæan name.

2. CANCROMA COCHLEARIA, the crested boat-bill, as well as the CANCROPHAGA, (N° 1.) is of the size of a fowl; the length 22 inches. The bill is four inches long, and of singular form, not unlike a boat with the keel uppermost, or, as some think like the bowls of two spoons, placed with the hollow parts together; the upper mandible has a prominent ridge at the top, and on each side of this along channel, at the bottom of which the nostrils are placed; these are oval, and situated obliquely; the general colour of the bill is dusky, and in some dark brown; the skin between the under jaw capable of distension: from the hind head springs a long black creft, the feathers which compose it narrow, and end in a point; the middle ones are fix inches in length, the others lessen by degrees, the outer ones being not more than one inch: between the bill and eye the skin is bare and dusky; the plumage on the forehead white; the reft of the bird of a pale bluish ash colour; across the lower part of the neck behind is a trahverse band of brownish black, which passes forwards on each side towards the breast, ending in a point, but does not encompass it; the fore part of the neck, and under parts, are bluish white, except the belly and thighs, which are rufous: the feathers which hang over the breast are loose, like those of the heron: the tail is 2¾ inches long, and the wings, when closed, reach nearly to the end of it; the leg is 3 inches; and the thigh, from its insertion to the knee, 4: the middle toe 2¼: the bare part above the knee, 1¼: the colour of the bare parts yellowish brown; claws black: the toes are connected at the base by a membrane, which, as in the jumbre, is deepest in the outer one. Its place and manners are the same with those of the CANCROPHAGA. See *Plate* LIV.

CANDACE, a queen of Ethiopia, who is said to have been converted to Christianity by her eunuch, whose conversion by Philip is recorded in Acts viii. 27.

(1.) CANDAHAR, a kingdom of Asia, between Persia and the river Indus, formerly a province of Persia; bounded on the N. by the provinces of Balk; on the E. by that of Cabul; on the S. by Buchor and Sableftan; and on the W. by Segeftan. There have been bloody wars between the Indians and Perfians on account of this province; but in 1650 it fell to the Perfians. The inhabitants are known by the name of *Aghuans*, or AGHANS, who have often endeavoured to throw off the yoke. In 1733, they were fiverely punifhed for the attempt. See PERSIA. Candahar, however, is now governed by its own fovereign, Timur Shah Abdalla, whose dominions extend W. to near the city of Terfhith; including Cabul, Peshore, Ghiznee, Gaur, Seistan, and Korafan; a tract not less than 650 miles in length. Its breadth is not known. On the E. fide of the Indus he poffeffes the territory of Cafhmere and feveral other diftricts above Attock.

(2.) CANDAHAR, the capital of the kingdom, (1.) is feated on a mountain; and being a place of great trade, has a confiderable fhare of the caravans that travel from Perfia and the weft beyond the Caspian fea to the E. Indies, paffing by Candahar, becaufe there is no danger of robbers, and provifions are very reafonable. The religion is Mahometanifm, but there are many Chriftians and Gaebres in it. It is 241 miles S. W. of Cabul, and is the gate of India to Perfia. Lon. 65. 30. E. Lat. 33. 0. N.

CANDAL-BISHOPS, CANDAL-MASON, CANDAL-PURSE, CANDAL-STURTON, & CANDAL-WARE, } The names of fifh villages, in Lincolnfhire, near the mouth of White-Haven.

CANDAULES, the laft king of Lydia of the family of the Heraclidæ. See LYDIA.

CANDELA FUMALIS, the SMOKING CANDLE, is an odoriferous mafs fhaped like a candle, the ufe of which is to fumigate rooms when infected with any contagion or noxious fmell. The ancients, inftead of *candelæ pro fuffitu aderatæ*, as they called, compofe of aromatic powders, mixed up with a third or more of the charcoal of white poplar or lime tree, and reduced to a proper confiftence with a mucilage of gum tragacanth, linfeed oil, or turpentine. It excites a grateful fmell without any flame, and corrects the ftate of the air.

CANDELARES, (from *candela*, a candle) the 20th order in the firft editions of Linnæus's Fragments of a natural method, confifting of thofe plants called *rhizophoræ*, *myrtæ* and *onagræ*. They are removed, in the later editions, into the order of MYRTLE-LEAVED PLANTS. See BOTANY, § 253, 254.

(1.) CANDELARIA, in botany, a name given by fome authors to the great white mullein. See VERBASCUM.

(2.) CANDELARIA, in entomology, a fpecies of the infect, belonging to the genus of fulgora, and order of hemiptera in the Linnæan fyftem. It is common in China.

CANDENT. *adj.* [*candens*, Lat.] Hot; as the higheft degree of heat, next to fufion. Iron may be heated only to one end, accordingly the other end is cooled upward or downward, it moft readily acquires a vertacity, as we have fometimes wires totally *candent*. Brown.

CANDEREOS, in the materia medica, a kind of Indian gum, not much known among us, but fometimes imported. It has much the appearance of amber, only it is white and pellucid. Linnæus and others tell us, that the people of Java have the art of adulterating the true amber with large quantities of this gum.

CANDIA, the modern name of the ifland of Crete. See CRETE. The word is a corruption of KHANDIA, which was originally the Arabic name of the metropolis only, but in time came to be applied to the whole ifland.

(1.) CANDIA, ANIMALS OF. The quadrupeds belonging to the ifland are not of a formidable character. There are no lions, tigers, bears or wolves, nor indeed any dangerous animal. Wild goats are the only inhabitants of the hills that overfpread the forty mountains; and they have nothing to fear but the ball of the markfman. hares inhabit the hills and the valleys, living in fecurity on the thyme and the herbs they feed on, folded every night, and the flocks

y without being disturbed with the fear that wild nimals may invade and ravage his folds. The habitants are happy in not being exposed to the roublesome bite of noxious insects, the poison f serpents, and the rapacity of the wild beasts of the desart. The ancient Cretans believed that he island enjoyed these singular advantages, on count of its having been the birth-place of Jupiter. "The Cretans, says Ælian, celebrate in heir songs the beneficence of Jupiter, and the favour which he conferred on their island, which as the place of his birth and education, by freeing it from every noxious animal, and even rendering it unfit for nourishing those that are introduced into it from foreign countries."

(3.) CANDIA, CLIMATE AND NATURAL ADVANTAGES OF. Of the climate of Candia travellers peak with rapture. The heat is never excessive; nd in the plains violent cold is never felt. In the armest days of summer, the atmosphere is cooled by breezes from the sea. Winter properly begins here with December and ends with January; nd during that short period snow never falls on he lower grounds, and the surface of the water s rarely frozen over. Most frequently the weaher is as fine then, as in Britain at the beginning f June. These two months have received the ame of *winter*, because in them there is a copious fall of rain, the sky is obscured with clouds, nd the north winds blow violently; but the rains re favourable to agriculture, the winds chase the louds towards the summits of the mountains, here a repository is formed for those waters hich are to fertilize the fields; and the inhabiants of the plain suffer no inconvenience from hese transient blasts. In February, the ground is verspread with flowers and rising crops. The eft of the year is almost one continued fine day. The inhabitants of Crete never experience any of hose mortifying returns of piercing cold, which re so frequently felt in Britain and even more outhern countries; and which, succeeding suddenly after the cherishing heats of spring, nip the blossoming flowers, wither the open buds, destroy half the fruits of the year, and are fatal to delicate constitutions. The sky is always unclouded and serene; the winds are mild and refreshing breezes. The radiant sun proceeds in smiling majesty along the azure vault, and ripens the fruits n the lofty mountains, the rising hills, and the plains. The nights are no less beautiful; their coolness is delicious. The atmosphere not being overloaded with vapours, the sky unfolds to the observer's view a countless profusion of stars; sparkling with the most vivid rays. Nothing can be more magnificent than this sight, and the Cretans enjoy it for six months in the year. To the charms of the climate are added other advantages; There are scarce any morasses in the island; the waters never stagnate; they flow in numberless streams from the tops of the mountains, and form large fountains or small rivers that empty themselves into the sea; the elevated situation of their springs causes them to dash down with such rapidity, that they never gather in pools or lakes; consequently insects cannote depolit their eggs upon them, as they would be immediately hurried down into the sea; and Candia is not infested, like Egypt, with those clouds of insects, and whose sting is insufferably painful; nor is the atmosphere loaded with those noxious vapours which rise from marshy grounds. The mountains and hills are overspread with various kinds of thyme, savoury, wild thyme, and with a multitude of oderiferous and balsamic plants; the rivulets which flow down the vallies are overhung with myrtles and laurel roses; clumps of orange, citron and almond trees, are plentifully scattered over the fields; the gardens are adorned with tufts of Arabian jasmine. In spring, they are bestrewed with beds of violets; some extensive plains are arrayed in saffron; and the cavities of the rocks are fringed with sweet smelling dittany. In a word, from the hills, the vales, and the plains, on all hands, there arise clouds of exquisite perfumes, which embalm the air, and render it a luxury to breathe it.

(4.) CANDIA, DISEASES OF. Diseases are very rare in a country whose atmosphere is exceedingly pure; and in Candia, epidemical diseases are unknown. Fevers prevail here in summer, but are not dangerous; and the plague would be wholly unknown, had not the Turks destroyed the lazarets that were established by the Venetians, for strangers to perform quarantine in. Since these were demolished, it is occasionally introduced by ships from Smyrna and Constantinople. As no precautions are taken against it, it gains ground, and spreads over the island from one province to another; and as the colds and heats are never intemperate, it sometimes continues its ravages for six months at a time. This fine country is infested with a disease less dangerous than the plague, but whose symptoms are more hideous, viz. leprosy. In ancient times, Syria was the focus in which it raged with most fury; and from Syria it was carried into several of the islands of the Archipelago. It is infectious, and is instantaneously communicated by contact. The victims who are attacked by it, are driven from society, and confined to little ruinous houses on the high way. They are strictly forbidden to leave these miserable dwellings, or hold intercourse with any person. Those poor wretches have generally beside their huts a small garden producing pulse, and feeding poultry; and with that support, and what they obtain from passengers, they find means to drag out a painful life in circumstances of shocking bodily distress. Their bloated skin is covered with a scaly crust, speckled with red and white spots; which afflict them with intolerable itchings. A hoarse and tremulous voice issues from the bottom of their breasts. Their words are scarce articulated; because their distemper inwardly preys upon the organs of speech. These frightful spectres gradually lose the use of their limbs. They continue to breathe till such time as the whole mass of their blood is corrupted, and their bodies are entirely in a state of putrefaction. The rich are not attacked by this distemper: it confines itself to the poor, chiefly to to the Greeks. But those Greeks observe strictly their 4 lents; and eat nothing during that time but salt fish, botorgo, salted and smoked pickled

olives

olives, and cheeſe. They drink plentifully of the hot and muddy wines of the iſland. The natural tendency of ſuch a regimen muſt be, to fire the blood, to thicken the fluid part of it, and thus at length to bring on a leproſy.

(5.) CANDIA, GOVERNMENT OF. Candia is at preſent governed by 3 Pachas, who reſide reſpectively at Candia, Canea, and Retimo. The firſt, who is always a Pacha of 3 tails, may be conſidered as viceroy of the iſland. He enjoys more extenſive powers than the others. To him the inſpection of the forts and arſenals is entruſted. He nominates to ſuch military employments as fall vacant, as well as to the governments of the Sude, Grabuſa, Spina Longua, and Gira-petra. The governors of theſe forts are denominated Beys. Each of them has a conſtable and 3 general officers under him: one of whom is commander of the artillery; another of the cavalry; and the third of the janiſſaries. The council of the pacha conſiſts of a kyaia, who is the channel through which all orders are iſſued, and all favours beſtowed; an aga of the janiſſaries, colonel general of the troops, who has the chief care of the regulation of the police; two topigi bachi; a defterdar, who is treaſurer general for the imperial revenues; a keeper of the imperial treaſury; and the chief officers of the army. This government is entirely military, and the power of the pacha ſeraſquier is abſolute. The juſtice of his ſentences is never called into queſtion; they are inſtantly carried into execution. The people of the law are the mufti, who is the religious head, and the cadi. The firſt interprets thoſe laws which regard the diviſion of the patrimony among the children of a family, ſucceſſions, and marriages; in a word, all that are contained in the Koran; and he alſo decides on every thing that relates to the ceremonies of the Muſſulman religion. The cadi cannot pronounce ſentence on affairs connected with theſe laws, without firſt taking the opinion of the mufti in writing, which is named *Faitfa*. It is his buſineſs to receive the declarations, complaints, and donations of private perſons; and to decide on ſuch differences as ariſe among them. The pacha is obliged to conſult thoſe judges, when he puts a Turk legally to death; but the pacha, who is dignified with 3 tails, ſets himſelf above all laws, condemns to death, and ſee his ſentence executed, of his own authority. All the moſques have their *Iam*, a kind of curate, whoſe duty is to perform the ſervice. There are ſchoolmaſters in the different quarters of the city. Theſe perſons are much reſpected in Turky, and are honoured with the title of Effendi. The pachas of Canea and Retimo are no leſs abſolute, within the bounds of their reſpective provinces, than the pacha of Candia. They enjoy the ſame privileges with him, and their council conſiſts of the ſame officers. Their chief object is to get rich as ſpeedily as poſſible; and to accompliſh this, they practiſe all the arts and cruelties of oppreſſion, to ſqueeze money from the Greeks. In truth, thoſe poor wretches run to meet the chains with which they are loaded. Envy always preys upon them, and if ſome one among them, enjoys a decent fortune, the reſt aſſiduouſly ſeek ſome pretence for accuſing him before the pacha, who takes advantage of theſe diſſentions, to ſeize the property of both the parties. It is by no means aſtoniſhing, that under ſo barbarous a government, the number of the Greeks is daily diminiſhed. See § 9.

(6.) CANDIA, HISTORY OF THE SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF. Candia came into the poſſeſſion of the Venetians by purchaſe, in the year 1204, and ſoon began to flouriſh under the laws of that republic. The inhabitants, encouraged by their maſters, engaged in commerce and agriculture. The Venetian commandants readily afforded to thoſe travellers who viſited the iſland, every aſſiſtance neceſſary to enable them to extend and improve uſeful knowledge. Belon, the naturaliſt, is laviſh in praiſe of their good offices, and deſcribes, in an intereſting manner, the flouriſhing ſtate of that part of the iſland which he viſited. The ſeat of government was eſtabliſhed at Candia. The magiſtrates and officers, who compoſed the council, reſided there. The proviſor general was preſident. He poſſeſſed the chief authority; and his power extended over the whole principality. It continued in the poſſeſſion of the Venetians for five centuries and an half. Cornaro held the chief command when it was threatened with a ſtorm, on the ſide of Conſtantinople. The Turks, for a whole year, had been employed in preparing a vaſt armament. They deceived Cornaro, by aſſuring him that it was intended againſt Malta. In 1645, in the midſt of a ſolemn peace, they appeared unexpectedly before Crete with a fleet of 400 ſail, having on board 60,000 land forces, under the command of 4 pachas. The emperor Ibrahim, under whom this expedition was undertaken, had no fair pretext to offer in juſtification of his enterprize. He made uſe of all that perfidy which characterizes the people of the eaſt, to impoſe on the Venetian ſenate. He loaded their ambaſſador with preſents, directed his fleet to bear for Cape Matapan, as if they had been going beyond the Archipelago; and caused the governors of Tina and Cerigna to be ſolemnly aſſured, that the republic had nothing to fear for her poſſeſſions. At the very inſtant when he was making thoſe aſſurances, his naval armament entered the gulf of Canea; and, paſſing between that city and St Theodore, anchored at the mouth of Platania. The Venetians, not expecting this ſudden attack, had made no preparations to repel it. The Turks landed without oppoſition. The iſle of St Theodore is but a league and a half from Canea, and is only three quarters of a league in compaſs. The Venetians had erected two forts there; one of which, ſtanding on the ſummit of the higheſt eminence, on the coaſt of that little iſle, was called Turluru; the other on a lower ſituation, was named St Theodore. It was an important object to the Muſſulmans to make themſelves maſters of that rock, which might annoy their ſhips. They immediately attacked it with ardour. The firſt of thoſe fortreſſes, being deſtitute of ſoldiers and cannon, was taken without ſtriking a blow. The garriſon of the other conſiſted of no more than 60 men. They made a gallant defence and ſtood out till the laſt extremity; and when the Turks at laſt prevailed, their number was diminiſhed to ten, whom the captain

paid

pacha cruelly cauſed to be beheaded. Being now maſters of that important poſt, as well as of Lazaret, an elevated rock, ſtanding above half a league from Canea, the Turks inveſted the city by ſea and land. General Cornaro was ſtruck, as with a thunder-clap, when he learned the deſcent of the enemy. In the whole iſland there were no more than a body of 3500 infantry, and a ſmall number of cavalry. The beſieged city was defended only by 1000 regular troops, and a few citizens, who were able to bear arms. He made haſte to give the republic notice of his diſtreſs; and poſted himſelf off the road, that he might the more readily ſuccour the beſieged city. He threw a body of 250 men into the town, before the lines of the enemy were completed. He afterwards made ſeveral attempts to ſtrengthen the beſieged with other reinforcements; but in vain. The Turks had advanced in bodies cloſe to the town, had carried a half-moon battery, which covered the gate of Retimo; and were battering the walls night and day with their numerous artillery. The beſieged defended themſelves with reſolute valour, and the ſmalleſt advantage which the beſiegers gained coſt them dear. General Cornaro made an attempt to arm the Greeks, particularly the Sphachiots, who boaſted loudly of their valour. He formed a battalion of theſe. But the æra of their valour was long paſt. When they beheld the enemy, and heard the thunder of the cannon, they took to flight; not one of them would ſtand fire. While the ſenate of Venice were deliberating on the means to be uſed for relieving Canea, and endeavouring to equip a fleet, the Mahometan generals were ſacrificing the lives of their ſoldiers to bring their enterpriſe to a glorious termination. In different engagements they had already loſt 10,000 warriors; but, deſcending into the ditches, they had undermined the walls, and blown up the moſt impregnable forts with exploſions of powder. They ſprung one of thoſe mines beneath the baſtion of St Demetri. It overturned a conſiderable part of the wall, which cruſhed all the defenders of the baſtion. That inſtant the beſiegers ſprung up with their ſabres in their hands, and taking advantage of the general conſternation of the beſieged on that quarter, made themſelves maſters of the poſt. The beſieged, recovering from their terror, attacked them with unequalled intrepidity. About 400 men aſſailed 300 Turks already firmly poſted on the wall, and preſſed upon them with ſuch obſtinate and dauntleſs valour, that they killed a great number, and drove the reſt down into the ditch. In this extremity, every perſon in the city was in arms. The Greek monks took up muſkets; and the women, forgetting the delicacy of their ſex, appeared on the walls among the defenders, either ſupplying the men with ammunition and arms, or fighting themſelves; and ſeveral of thoſe daring heroines loſt their lives. For 30 days the city held out againſt all the forces of the Turks. If, even at the end of that time, the Venetians had ſent a naval armament to its relief, the kingdom of Candia might have been ſaved. Doubtleſs, they were not ignorant of this well known fact. The north wind blows ſtraight into the harbour of Canea. When it blows a little briſkly, the ſea rages. It is then impoſſible for any ſquadron of ſhips, however numerous, to form in line of battle in the harbour, and to meet an enemy. If the Venetians had ſet out from Cerigo with a fair wind, they might have reached Canea in five hours, and might have entered the harbour with full ſails, without being expoſed to one cannon ſhot; while none of the Turkiſh ſhips would have dared to appear before them; or if they had ventured, muſt have been driven back on the ſhore, and daſhed in pieces among the rocks. But, inſtead of thus taking advantage of the natural circumſtances of the place, they ſent a few galleys, which, not daring to double Cape Spada, coaſted along the ſouthern ſhore of the iſland, and failed of accompliſhing the deſign of their expedition. At laſt, the Caneans, deſpairing of relief from Venice, ſeeing three breaches made in their walls, through which the infidels might eaſily advance upon them, exhauſted with fatigue, and covered with wounds, and reduced to the number of 500 men, who were obliged to ſcatter themſelves round the walls, which were half a league in extent, and undermined in all quarters, demanded a parley, and offered to capitulate. They obtained very honourable conditions; and after a glorious defence of two months, which coſt the Turks 20,000 men, marched out of the city with the honours of war. Thoſe citizens, who did not chuſe to continue in the city, were permitted to remove; and the Ottomans faithfully obſerved their ſtipulations. The Venetians, after the loſs of Canea, retired to Retimo. The captain pacha laid ſiege to the citadel of the Sude, ſituated in the entrance of the bay, on a high rock, of about a quarter of a league in circumference. He raiſed earthen batteries, and made an ineffectual attempt to level its ramparts. At laſt, deſpairing of taking it by aſſault, he left ſome forces to block it up from all communication, and advanced towards Retimo. That city, being unwalled, was defended by a citadel, ſtanding on an eminence which overlooks the harbour. General Cornaro had retired thither. At the approach of the enemy, he advanced from the city, and waited for them in the open field. During the action, he encouraged his ſoldiers, by fighting in the ranks. A glorious death was the reward of his valour; but his fall determined the fate of Retimo. The Turks having landed additional forces, they introduced the plague, which was almoſt a conſtant attendant on their armies. This dreadful peſt deſtroyed moſt part of the inhabitants. The reſt eſcaped into the Venetian territories, and the iſland was left almoſt deſolate. The ſiege of the capital commenced in 1646, and was protracted much longer than that of Troy. For two years the Turks ſcarce gained any advantages before that city. They were often routed by the Venetians, and ſometimes compelled to retire to Retimo. In 1649, Uſſein Pacha, who blockaded Candia, receiving no ſupplies, owing to the revolutions at Conſtantinople by the depoſition and death of Ibrahim, and acceſſion of Mahomet IV. was compelled to raiſe the ſiege, and retreat to Canea. The Venetians were then on the ſea with a ſtrong ſquadron. They attacked the Turkiſh fleet in the bay of Smyrna, burnt 12 of their ſhips and

and 2 gallies; and killed 6000 of their men. Some time after, the Mahometans having landed an army on Candia, renewed the ſiege of the city with greater vigour, and made themſelves maſters of an advanced fort that was very troubleſome to be beſieged; which obliged them to blow it up. From 1650 till 1658, the Venetians, continuing maſters of the ſea, intercepted the Turks every year in the ſtraits of the Dardanelles, and fought them in 4 naval engagements; in which they defeated their numerous fleets, ſunk a number of their caravels, took others, and extended the terror of their arms even to the walls of Conſtantinople. That capital became a ſcene of tumult and diſorder. The Grand Signior, alarmed, left the city with precipitation. Theſe great ſucceſſes revived the hopes of the Venetians, and depreſſed the courage of the Turks. They converted the ſiege of Candia into a blockade, and ſuffered conſiderable loſſes. The Sultan, to exclude the Venetian fleet from the Dardanelles, cauſed two fortreſſes to be built at the entrance of the ſtraits. He ordered the Pacha of Canea to appear again before the walls of Candia, and to make every poſſible effort to gain the city. In the mean time, the Venetians made ſeveral attempts on Canea. In 1660, the city was about to ſurrender, when the Pacha of Rhodes reinforced it with a body of 2000 men. He doubled the extremity of Cape Melec, within ſight of the Venetian fleet, which was becalmed off Cape Spada, and could not advance one fathom to oppoſe an enemy conſiderably weaker than themſelves. Kiopruli, knowing that the murmurs of the people againſt the long continuance of the ſiege of Candia were riſing to a height, and fearing a general revolt, ſet out from Conſtantinople about the end of 1666, at the head of a formidable army. Having eſcaped the Venetian fleet, which was lying off Canea, he landed at Palio Caſtro, and formed the lines around Candia. Under his command were 4 Pachas, and the flower of the Ottoman forces. Thoſe troops, being encouraged by their chiefs, and ſupported by a great quantity of artillery, performed prodigies of valour. All the exterior forts were deſtroyed. Nothing now remained to the beſieged but the bare line of the walls, unprotected by fortreſſes; and theſe being battered by an inceſſant diſcharge of artillery, ſoon gave way on all quarters. Still, however, (incredible as it may appear,) the Caneans held out 3 years againſt all the forces of the Ottoman empire. At laſt they were going to capitulate, when the hope of aſſiſtance from France reanimated their valour. The expected ſuccours arrived on the 26th of June 1669. They were conducted by the duke of Noailles. Next day the ardour of the French prompted them to make a general ſally. The duke of Beaufort, admiral of France, aſſumed the command. He was the firſt to advance againſt the Muſſulmans, and was followed by a numerous body of infantry and cavalry. They advanced furiouſly upon the enemy, forced the trenches, and would have compelled them to abandon their lines and artillery, had not an unforeſeen accident damped their courage. In the midſt of the engagement a powder magazine blew up; the D. of Beaufort and the foremoſt of the combatants loſt their lives; the French ranks were broken, and fled in diſorder; and the duke of Noailles, with difficulty, effected a retreat within the walls of Candia. The French accuſed the Italians of having betrayed them; and on that pretext prepared to ſet off ſooner than the time agreed upon. No treaties of the commandant could prevail with them to delay their departure. This determined the fate of the city, which had only 500 men left to defend it. Morofini capitulated with Kiopruli, to whom he ſurrendered the kingdom of Crete, excepting only the Sude, Grabuſa, and Spina-Longua. The grand viſir made his entrance into Candia, Oct. 4th, 1670; and ſtayed 8 months in it, inſpecting the reparation of its walls and fortreſſes. The 3 fortreſſes left in the hands of the Venetians continued long in their poſſeſſion, but were all taken at laſt. In ſhort, after a war of 36 years continuance, in the courſe of which more than 200,000 men fell, Candia was entirely ſubdued by the Turks, in whoſe hands it ſtill continues.

(7.) CANDIA, INHABITANTS OF. The Mahometan men are generally from 5½ to 6 feet. They bear a ſtrong reſemblance to ancient ſtatues; and it muſt have been after ſuch models that the ancient artiſts wrought. The women alſo are generally beautiful. Their dreſs does not reſtrain the growth of any part of their bodies, and their ſhape therefore aſſumes thoſe admirable proportions, with which the hand of the Creator has graced his faireſt workmanſhip on earth. They are not all charming, but ſome of them are beautiful, particularly the Turkiſh ladies. In general, the Cretan women have a riſing throat, a neck gracefully rounded, black eyes ſparkling with animation, a ſmall mouth, a fine noſe, and cheeks delicately coloured with the freſh vermilion of health. But the oval of their form is different from that of the Europeans, and the character of their beauty is peculiar to their own nation.

(8.) CANDIA, MILITARY FORCE OF. The garriſon of Candia conſiſts of 46 companies, compoſing a military force of about 10,000 men. All theſe forces do not reſide conſtantly in the city, but they can be muſtered in a very ſhort time. They are all regularly paid every 3 months, excepting the janiſſaries, none of whom but the officers receive pay. The different gradations of this military body do not depend on the pay. The council of each company, conſiſting of veterans, and of officers in actual ſervice, has the power of naming to them. A perſon can occupy the ſame poſt for no longer than two years: but the poſt of *Sorbagi*, or captain, which is purchaſed at Conſtantinople, is held for life. The ſurgeon, or cook, is alſo continued in his employment as long as the company to which he belongs is ſatisfied with him. Each company has an almoner, denominated *imam*. The garriſons of Canea and Retimo, formed on a ſimilar plan, are much leſs numerous. The firſt conſiſts of about 3000 men, the other of 500; but as all the male children of the Turks are enrolled among the janiſſaries as ſoon as born, the number of theſe troops might be greatly augmented in time of war. They are, however, far from formidable. Moſt of them have

have never ſeen fire, nor are they ever exerciſed in military evolutions.

(9.) CANDIA, POPULATION OF. The total number of inhabitants in this iſland does not exceed 350,000. There are ſcarcely 150,000 Greeks in the iſland, of whom 65,000 pay the carach. The Turks have not poſſeſſed the iſland for more than 120 years; yet, as they are not expoſed to the ſame oppreſſion, they have multiplied in it, and raiſed themſelves upon the ruin of the ancient inhabitants. Their number amounts to 200,000. The Jews amount only to 200. This fertile country is in want of nothing but induſtrious huſbandmen, ſecure of enjoying the fruit of their labours. It might maintain four times its preſent number of inhabitants. Antiquity has celebrated the iſland of Crete as containing 100 populous cities; and geographers have preſerved their names and ſituations. Many of theſe cities contained no fewer than 30,000 inhabitants. By reckoning them, on an average, at 6,000 each, we ſhall in all probability be rather within than beyond the truth. This calculation gives for 100 cities 600,000
Allowing as many in the reſt of the iſland, 600,000

The whole number of the inhabitants of ancient Crete will amount to 1,200,000
This number cannot be exaggerated. When Candia was in the hands of the Venetians, it was reckoned to contain 996 villages. It appears therefore, that when this iſland enjoyed the bleſſings of liberty, it maintained to the number of 749,800 more inhabitants than it does at preſent. But ſince thoſe happy times, ſhe has been deprived of her laws by the tyranny of the Romans; has groaned under the deſtructive ſway of the monarchs of the lower empire; has been expoſed for a period of 120 years to the ravages of the Arabians; has next paſſed under the dominion of the Venetians; and has at laſt been ſubjected to the deſpotiſm of the Turks, who have produced a dreadful depopulation in all the countries which have been ſubdued by their arms.

(10.) CANDIA, RIVERS, MOUNTAINS, AND PRODUCE OF. This iſland is watered by many fine rivers, anciently known by the names of *Cratus*, *Jaxus*, *Therenus*, *Triton*, &c. which, in ſpite of Turkiſh indolence, render it very productive. Weſt of the city, (N° II.) there is an extenſive range of hills, which are a continuation of mount Ida, and of which the extremity forms the promontory of Dion. For more than half a league round the walls of Candia there is not a ſingle tree to be ſeen. The Turks cut them all down in the time of the ſiege, and laid waſte the gardens and orchards. Beyond that extent, the country is plentifully covered with corn and fruit trees. The neighbouring hills are overſpread with vineyards, which produce the *malmſey* of mount Ida, worthy of preference at the table of the moſt exquiſite connoiſſeur in wines. This ſpecies of wine has a fine flavour, a very pleaſant reliſh, and is highly eſteemed in the iſland. Candia produces alſo oil, ſilk, wool and excellent honey.

(11.) CANDIA, STATE OF THE GREEK HIERARCHY IN. The Turks allow the Greeks the free exerciſe of their religion, but forbid them to repair their churches or monaſteries; and accordingly they cannot obtain permiſſion to repair their places of worſhip, or religious houſes, but by the powerful influence of gold. From this article the pachas derive very conſiderable ſums. They have 12 biſhops as formerly, the firſt of whom has the title of Abp. of Gortynia. He reſides at Candia; in which city the metropolitan church ſtands. He is appointed by the patriarch of Conſtantinople; and has the right of nominating to all the other biſhoprics of the iſland; the names of which are, Gortynia, Cnoſſou, Mirabella, Hyera, Gira-petra, Arcadia, Cherroneſe, Lambis, Milopotamo, Retimo, Canea, Ciſamo. Theſe biſhoprics are nearly the ſame as under the reign of the Greek emperors. The patriarch wears a triple tiara, writes his ſignature in red ink, and anſwers for all the debts of the clergy. To enable him to fulfil his engagements, he lays impoſitions on the reſt of the biſhops, and particularly on the monaſteries, from which he draws very handſome contributions. He is conſidered as the head of the Greeks, whom he protects, as far as his ſlender credit goes. The orders of government are directed to him on important occaſions; and he is the only one of all the Greeks in the iſland who enjoys the privilege of entering the city on horſeback.

(II.) CANDIA, the capital of the iſland (N° I.) is ſituated on its northern coaſt, on the ſite of the ancient Heraclea, and is the ſeat of government under the Turks. Its walls, which are more than a league in compaſs, are in good repair, and defended by deep ditches, but not protected by any exterior fort. Towards the ſea, it has no attacks to fear; becauſe the ſhallowneſs of the harbour renders it inacceſſible to ſhips of war. The Pacha of 3 tails with the principal officers, and ſeveral bodies of the Ottoman ſoldiery, are ſtationed here. This city, when under the Venetians, was opulent, commercial, and populous; but it has now loſt much of its former ſtrength and grandeur. The harbour, naturally a fine baſon, in which ſhips are ſecurely ſheltered from every ſtorm, is every day becoming narrower and ſhallower. At preſent it admits only boats, and ſmall ſhips after they have diſcharged a part of their freight. Thoſe veſſels, which the Turks freight at Candia, are obliged to go almoſt empty to the ports of Standie, whether their cargoes are conveyed to them in barks. Candia, which was embelliſhed by the Venetians with regular ſtreets, handſome houſes, a fine ſquare, and a magnificent ciſtern, contains at preſent but a ſmall number of inhabitants, notwithſtanding the vaſt extent of the area incloſed within its walls. Several diviſions of the city are void of inhabitants. That in which the market place ſtands is the only one which diſcovers any ſtir of buſineſs, or ſhow of affluence. The Mahometans have converted moſt of the Chriſtian temples into moſques; yet they have left two churches to the Greeks, one to the Armenians, and a ſynagogue to the Jews. The Capuchins poſſeſs a ſmall convent, with a chapel in which the vice-conſul of France hears maſs. At preſent he is the only Frenchman who attends it, as the French merchants have taken up their reſidence at Canea. Candia lies 500 miles from Conſtantinople. Lon. 25. 23. E. Lat. 35. 16. N.

(1.) CANDIAC, a town of France in the department of Gard, and ci-devant province of Languedoc.

(2.) CANDIAC, John Lewis, a premature genius, born at Candiac, (N. 1.) in 1719. In the cradle he diſtinguiſhed his letters: at 13 months, he knew them perfectly: at 3 years of age he read Latin, either printed or in MS.: at 4 he tranſlated from that tongue: at 6, he read Greek and Hebrew; was maſter of the principles of arithmetic, hiſtory, geography, heraldry, and the ſcience of medals; and had read the beſt authors on almoſt every branch of literature. He died of a complication of diſorders, at Paris, in 1726.

* CANDICANT. *adj.* [*candicans*, Lat.] Growing white; whitiſh. *Dict.*

* CANDID. *adj.* [*candidus*, Lat.] 1. White. This ſenſe is very rare —

The box receives all black: but, pour'd from thence,
The ſtones came *candid* forth, the hue of innocence. *Dryden.*

2. Free from malice; not deſirous to find faults; fair; open; ingenuous.—The import of the diſcourſe will, for the moſt part, if there be no deſigned fallacy, ſufficiently lead *candid* and intelligent readers into the true meaning of it. *Locke.*—

A *candid* judge will read each piece of wit,
With the ſame ſpirit that its author writ. *Pope.*

(1.) * CANDIDATE. *n. ſ.* [*candidatus*, Lat.] 1. A competitor; one that ſolicits, or propoſes himſelf for ſomething of advancement.—

So many *candidates* there ſtand for wit,
A place at court is ſcarce ſo hard to get.
Anonymous.

—One would be ſurpriſed to ſee ſo many *candidates* for glory. *Addiſon.*—2. It has generally *for* before the thing ſought.—

What could thus high thy raſh ambition raiſe?
Art thou, fond youth, a *candidate for* praiſe? *Pope.*

3. Sometimes *of*.—

Thy firſt-fruits of poeſy were giv'n,
To make thyſelf a welcome inmate there,
While yet a young probationer,
And *candidate of* heav'n. *Dryden.*

(2.) CANDIDATE is derived, by Mr Chambers, from *candidus*, white, becauſe in the Roman commonwealth, candidates were obliged to wear a white gown during the time of their ſoliciting a place. This garment, according to Plutarch, they wore without any other clothes, that the people might not ſuſpect they concealed money for purchaſing votes, and alſo that they might more eaſily ſhow to the people the ſcars of thoſe wounds they had received in fighting for the defence of the commonwealth. The candidates uſually declared their pretenſions a year before the time of election, which they ſpent in making intereſt and gaining friends. Various arts of popularity were practiſed for this purpoſe, and frequent circuits made round the city, and viſits and compliments to all ſorts of perſons, the proceſs of which was called *ambitus*. See AMBITUS.

(1.) CANDIDATI MILITES, an order of ſoldiers, among the Romans, who ſerved as the emperor's body guards to defend him in battle. They were the talleſt and ſtrongeſt of the whole troops, and moſt proper to inſpire terror. They were called *candidati*, becauſe clothed in white, either that they might be more conſpicuous, or becauſe they were conſidered in the way of preferment.

(2.) CANDIDATI PRINCIPIS, perſons recommended to any office by the emperors.

* CANDIDLY. *adv.* [from *candid*.] Fairly; without trick; without malice; ingenuouſly.—We have often deſired, they would deal *candidly* with us; for if the matter ſtuck only there, we would propoſe, that every man ſhould ſwear, that he is a member of the church of Ireland. *Swift.*

* CANDIDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *candid*.] Ingenuity; openneſs of temper; purity of mind.—He preſently ſees the guilt of a ſinful action; and, on the other ſide, obſerves the *candidneſs* of a man's very principles, and the ſincerity of his intentions. *South.*

* *To* CANDIFY. *v. a.* [*candifico*, Lat.] To make white; to whiten. *Dict.*

CANDIOT, *adj.* belonging to Candia.

CANDISATION, *n. ſ.* the candying of ſugar.

CANDISH, a conſiderable province of Aſia, in the dominions of the Great Mogul, bounded by Chytor and Malva on the N. Orixa on the E. Decan on the S. and Guzarat on the W. It is populous and rich; and abounds in cotton, rice, and Indigo. Brampore is the capital town. It is ſubject to the Poonal Mahrattas.

CANDITEERS, in fortification, frames to lay brushwood on, to cover the workmen.

(1.) * CANDLE. *n. ſ.* [*candela*, Lat.] 1. A light made of wax or tallow, ſurrounding a wick of flax or cotton.—

Here burns my *candle* out, ay, here it dies,
Which, while it lafted, gave king Henry light.
Shakeſpeare.

—We ſee that wax *candles* laſt longer than tallow *candles*, becauſe wax is more firm and hard. *Bacon's Nat. Hiſtory.*—Take a child, and, ſetting a *candle* before him, you ſhall find his pupil to contract very much, to exclude the light, with the brightneſs whereof it would otherwiſe be darkled. *Ray.* 2. Light or luminary.—

By theſe bleſſed *candles* of the night,
Had you been there, I think you would have begg'd
The ring of me, to give the worthy doctor.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) CANDLE. A tallow candle, to be good, muſt be half ſheep's and half bullock's tallow. Hog's tallow makes the candle gutter, and always gives an offenſive ſmell, with a thick black ſmoke. The wick ought to be pure, ſufficiently dry, and properly twiſted; otherwiſe the candle will emit an inconſtant vibratory flame, which is both prejudicial to the eyes and inſufficient for the diſtinct illumination of objects. There are two ſorts of tallow candles; the one dipped, the other moulded: (See § 8.) the former are the common candles; the others the invention of the ſieur le Brege at Paris. Candles are alſo made of ſpermaceti.

(3.) CANDLE, in medicine. See CANDELA.

(4.) CANDLE, MEDICATED. See BOUGIE.

(5.) CANDLE, SALE, or AUCTION BY INCH OF, is when a ſmall piece of candle, being lighted, the byſtanders are allowed to bid for the merchan-

dize

dize that is ſelling; but the moment the candle is out, the commodity is adjudged to the laſt bidder. This mode of ſale ſeems to have been borrowed from the church of Rome, where there is an excommunication by inch of candle, when the ſinner is allowed to come to repentance while a candle continues burning; but after it is conſumed he remains finally excommunicated.

(6.) CANDLES, ANCIENT. The Roman candles were at firſt little ſtrings dipt in pitch, or ſurrounded with wax; though afterwards they made them of papyrus, covered likewiſe with wax; and ſometimes alſo of ruſhes, by ſtripping off the outer rind, and only retaining the pith.—For religious offices, wax candles were uſed; for common uſes, thoſe of tallow.

(7.) CANDLES, METHOD OF LIGHTING, BY ELECTRIC SPARKS. This method, invented by Dr Ingenhouſz, is recorded in the *Phil. Tranſ.* vol. xviii. It is done by a ſmall phial, having 8 or 10 inches of metallic coating, or even leſs, charged with electricity, which may be done at any time of the night by a perſon who has an electrical machine in his room. "When I have occaſion to light a candle (ſays he), I charge a ſmall coated phial, whoſe knob is bent outwards, ſo as to hang a little over the body of the phial; then I wrap ſome looſe cotton over the extremity of a long braſs pin or a wire, ſo as to ſtick moderately faſt to its ſubſtance. I next roll this extremity of the pin wrapped up with cotton in ſome fine powder of reſin, which I always keep in readineſs upon the table for this purpoſe, either in a wide-mouthed phial or in a looſe paper; this being done, I apply the extremity of the pin or wire to the external coating of the charged phial, and bring as quickly as poſſible the other extremity wrapped round with cotton to the knob: the powder of reſin takes fire, and communicates its flame to the cotton, and both together burn long enough to light a candle. As I do not want more than half a minute to light my candle in this way, I find it a readier method than kindling it by a flint and ſteel, or calling a ſervant. I have found that powder of white or yellow reſin lights eaſier than that of brown. The *farina lycopodii* may be uſed for the ſame purpoſe, but it is not ſo good as the powder of reſin, becauſe it does not take fire quite ſo readily, requiring a ſtronger ſpark not to miſs: beſides, it is ſoon burnt away. By dipping the cotton in oil of turpentine, the ſame effect may be as readily obtained, if you take a jar ſomewhat greater in ſize. This oil will inflame ſo much the readier if you ſtrew a few fine particles of braſs upon it. The pin duſt is the beſt for this purpoſe; but as this oil is ſcattered about by the exploſion, and when kindled fills the room with much more ſmoke than the powder of reſin, I prefer the laſt."

(8.) CANDLES, METHOD OF MAKING. After the tallow has been weighed, and mixed in the due proportions, it is cut into very ſmall pieces, that it may melt the ſooner; for the tallow in lumps, as it comes from the butchers, would be in danger of burning or turning black, if it were left too long over the fire. Being perfectly melted and ſkimmed, they pour a certain quantity of water into it, proportionable to the quantity of tallow. This ſerves to precipitate to the bottom of the veſſel the impurities of the tallow which may have eſcaped the ſkimmer. No water, however, muſt be thrown into the tallow deſigned for the three firſt dips; becauſe the wick being ſtill quite dry, would imbibe the water, which makes the candles crackle in burning. The tallow, thus melted, is poured into a tub, through a coarſe ſieve of horſe hair, to purify it ſtill more, and may be uſed after having ſtood 3 hours. It will continue fit for uſe 24 hours in ſummer and 15 in winter. The wicks are made of ſpun cotton, which the tallow chandlers buy in ſkains, and which they wind up into bottoms or clues; whence they are cut out, with an inſtrument contrived on purpoſe, into pieces of the length required; then put on the ſticks or broaches, or elſe placed in the moulds, as the candles are intended to be either dipped or moulded.

(9.) CANDLES, PROPORTIONAL VALUE OF DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Lord Bacon propoſes candles of divers compoſitions and ingredients, and of different ſorts of wicks; with experiments of the degrees of duration, and light of each. Some good houſewives bury their candles in flour or bran, which it is ſaid lengthens their duration nearly one half. It is obſerved in optics, that the flames of two candles joined, give a much ſtronger light than both of them ſeparate. The remark was firſt made by Dr Franklin. Probably the union of the two flames produces a greater degree of heat, whereby the vapour is attenuated, and the particles of which light conſiſts more copiouſly emitted. Experiments have been made to determine the real and comparative expence of burning candles of different ſorts and ſizes. The following table exhibits the reſult of theſe. The time that one candle laſted was calculated from an average of ſeveral different trials in each ſize. The laſt column though ſtated at 6d per dozen will alſo ſhow the proportion of expence at any price.

TABLE *exhibiting the* REAL *and* COMPARATIVE EXPENCE, *in farthings and* 100*th parts, of* CANDLES *of different ſorts and ſizes.*

	N° of candles in one pound.	Weight of one candle.	Time one candle laſted.	Time that one lb. will laſt.	Expence in 12 hours, at 6d per doz.
		oz. dr.	h. min.	h. min.	
Sm. wick	18⅓	0 14	3 15	59 26	4.85
Lar. wick	19	0 13½	2 40	50 34	5.70
	16½	0 15½	2 40	44 2	6.54
	12	1 5⅓	3 27	41 24	6.96
	10⅔	1 8	3 36	38 24	7.50
	7¼	2 1	4 9	32 12	8.94
	8	2 0	4 15	34 0	8.47
	5¼	2 13	5 19	30 15	9.53
		Moulded Candles.			
					at 7s *per doz.*
	5⅞	2 12	7 20	42 39	7.87
	4	4 0	9 3	36 20	9.18

(10.) CANDLES, RUSH, uſed in different parts of England, are made of the pith of a ſort of ruſhes, peeled or ſtripped of the ſkin, except on one ſide, and dipped in melted tallow.

(11.) CANDLES, STATUTES RESPECTING THE MAKING OF. If any chandlers mix with their wares any thing deceitfully, &c. the candles ſhall be forfeited. Stat. 23 Eliz. and a tax or duty is granted on candles, by 8 & 9 Anne, cap. 6. made for ſale, of one penny a pound, beſides the duty upon tallow, by 8 Anne, cap. 9. And by 24 Geo. III. cap. 11. an additional duty of an halfpenny a pound: and by the ſame an additional duty of an halfpenny a pound is laid upon all candles imported, (except thoſe of wax and ſpermaceti, for which ſee WAX CANDLES,) ſubject alſo to the two additional 5 per cents. impoſed by 19 and 22 Geo. III. beſides the duty of 2½d. formerly impoſed by 2 W. ſeſſ. 2. cap. 4. 8 Anne, cap. 9. and 9 Anne, cap. 6. And every maker of candles, other than wax candles for ſale, ſhall annually take out a licence at 1l. The maker of candles ſhall, in 4 weeks within the bills, and elſewhere in 6 weeks, after entry, clear off the duties on pain of double duty: nor ſell any after default in payment on pain of double value; 8 Anne, cap. 9. The makers of candles are not to uſe melting houſes, without making a true entry, on pain of 100l. and to give notice of making candles to the exciſe officer for the duties; and of the number, &c. or ſhall forfeit 50l. Stat. 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. See alſo 23 Geo. II. cap. 21. and 26 Geo. II. cap. 32. No maker of candles for ſale ſhall begin to make candles, without notice firſt given to the officer, unleſs from September 29th to March 25th yearly, between ſeven in the morning and five in the evening, and from March 25th to September 29th, between five in the morning and ſeven in the evening, on pain of 10l. 10 Anne, cap. 26. The penalty of obſtructing the officer is 20l. and of removing candles before they are ſurveyed 20l. 8 Anne, cap. 9. The penalty of privately making candles is the forfeiture of the ſame and utenſils, and 100l. 5 Geo. III. cap. 43. And the penalty of mingling weighed with unweighed candles, of removing them before they are weighed, or of concealing them, is the forfeiture of 100l. 11 Geo. cap. 30. Candles, for which the duty hath been paid, may be exported, and the duty drawn back; but no draw-back ſhall be allowed on the exportation of any foreign candles imported. 8 Anne, cap. 9. 23 Geo. II. cap. 21.

(12.) CANDLES, WAX. See WAX CANDLES.

(1.) * CANDLEBERRY TREE. See SWEET-WILLOW; of which it is a ſpecies.

(2.) CANDLEBERRY TREE. See MYRICA.

CANDLE BOMBS, a name given to ſmall glaſs bubbles, having a neck about an inch long, with a very ſlender bore, by means of which a ſmall quantity of water is introduced into them, and the orifice afterwards cloſed up. The ſtalk being put through the wick of a burning candle, the vicinity of the flame ſoon rarifies the water into a ſteam, by the elaſticity of which the glaſs is burſt with a loud crack.

* CANDLEHOLDER. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *hold.*] 1. He that holds the candle. 2. He that remotely aſſiſts.—

Let wantons, light of heart,
Tickle the ſenſeleſs ruſhes with their heels;
For I am proverb'd with a grandſire phraſe,
To be a *candleholder*, and look on. *Shakeſp.*

* CANDLELIGHT. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *light.*] 1. The light of a candle.—In darkneſs *candlelight* may ſerve to guide men's ſteps, which, to walk the day, were madneſs. *Hooker.*—

Before the day was done, her work ſhe ſped,
And never went by *candlelight* to bed.
Dryden's Fables.

The boding owl
Steals from her private cell by night,
And flies about by *candlelight*. *Swift.*

—Such as are adapted to meals, will indifferently ſerve for dinners or ſuppers, only diſtinguiſhed between daylight and *candlelight*. *Swift.* 2. The neceſſary candles for uſe.—I ſhall find him coals and *candlelight*. *Molineux to Locke.*

CANDLE-MAKER, one who makes candles.

CANDLE-MAKING, the art of making candles. See CANDLES, § 8.

(1.) * CANDLEMAS. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *maſs.*] The feaſt of the Purification of the Bleſſed Virgin, which was formerly celebrated with many lights in churches.—The harveſt dinners are held by every wealthy man, or, as we term it, by every good liver, between Michaelmas and *Candlemas*. *Carew's Survey of Cornwall.*—There is a general tradition in moſt parts of Europe, that intenſes the coldneſs of the ſucceeding winter, upon the ſight of the ſun upon *Candlemas* day. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

Come *Candlemas* nine years ago ſhe dy'd,
And now lies bury'd by the yew-tree ſide. *Gay.*

(2.) CANDLEMAS is held on the 2d of February. The ancient Chriſtians on that day uſed lights in their churches and proceſſions, in memory, it is ſaid, of our Saviour's being on that day declared by Simon "to be a light to lighten the Gentiles." In imitation of this cuſtom, the Roman catholics on this day conſecrate all the tapers and candles which they uſe in their churches during the whole year. At Rome, the Pope performs that ceremony himſelf; and diſtributes wax-candles to the cardinals and others, who carry them in proceſſion through the great hall of the Pope's palace. This ceremony was prohibited in England by an order of council in 1548.

(3.) CANDLEMAS is one of the 4 terms of the year for paying and receiving rents or borrowed money, &c. In the courts of law, Candlemas term begins 15th January, and ends 3d February.

CANDLESBY, } two villages in Lincolnſhire.
CANDLESHOW, } N. E. of Spilsby.

(1.) * CANDLESTICK. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *ſtick.*] The inſtrument that holds candles.—

The horſemen ſit like fixed *candleſticks*,
With torch-ſtaves in their hands; and their poor jades
Lob down their heads. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Theſe countries were once Chriſtian, and members of the church, and where the golden *candleſticks* did ſtand. *Bacon.*—I know a friend, who has converted the eſſays of a man of quality, into a kind of *fringe* for his *candleſticks*. *Addiſon.*

(2.) CAN-

(1.) CANDLESTICK, GOLDEN, was one of the ıcred utenfils made by Moſes to be placed in the ewith tabernacle. It was made of hammered old, a talent in weight. It conſiſted of 7 branches ıpported by a baſe or foot. Theſe branches vere adorned at equal diſtances with ſix flowers ke lilies, and with as many bowls and knobs laced alternately. Upon the ſtock and 6 branches f the candleſtick were the golden lamps, which vere immoveable, wherein were put oil and cotton. Theſe 7 lamps were lighted every evening, and ex-inguiſhed every morning. They had their tongs or nuffers to draw the cotton in or out, and diſhes un-er them to receive the ſparks or droppings of the il. This candleſtick was placed in the antichamber f the ſanctuary on the S. ſide, and ſerved to illu-ninate the altar of perfume and the tabernacle of he ſhew-bread. When Solomon had built the emple of the Lord, he placed in it ten golden andleſticks of the ſame form as that deſcribed by ſoſes, 5 on the N. and 5 on the S. ſide of the oly place: But after the Babyloniſh captivity, he golden candleſtick was again placed in the emple, as it had been before in the tabernacle by ſoſes. This ſacred utenſil, upon the deſtruction f the temple by the Romans, was lodged in the emple of peace built by Veſpaſian; and the re-reſentation of it is ſtill to be ſeen on the trium-hal arch at the foot of mount Palatine, on which eſpaſian's triumph is delineated.

* CANDLESTUFF. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *ſtuff*.] ny thing of which candles may be made; kitchen-tuff, greaſe; tallow.—By the help of oil, and wax, nd other *candleſtuff*, the flame may continue, and he wick not burn. *Bacon.*

* CANDLEWASTER. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *waſte*.] One that conſumes candles; a ſpendthrift.

Patch grief with proverbs, make misfortune drunk
With *candlewaſters*. *Shakeſpeare.*

CANDLE Wood, ſlips of pine about the hickneſs of a finger, uſed in New England and ther colonies to burn inſtead of candles, giving a ery good light. The French inhabitants of Tur-uga uſe ſlips of yellow ſantal-wood for the ſame urpoſe, and under the ſame denomination, which ields a clear flame though of a green colour.

CANDO, Condi, or Cundi, in commerce, a ng meaſure uſed in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt In-ies, particularly at Goa, to meaſure linen. The ando uſed in Pegu is equal to the Venetian ell.

* CANDOCK. *n. ſ.* a weed that grows in rivers. -Let the pond lie dry ſix or twelve months, both o kill the water-weeds, as water-lilies, *candocks*, eate, and bulruſhes, and alſo, that as theſe die for want of water, ſo graſs may grow on the pond's ottom. *Walton.*

* CANDOUR. *n. ſ.* [*candor*, Lat.] Sweetneſs f temper; purity of mind; openneſs; ingenuity; indneſs.—He ſhould have ſo much of a natural *ndour* and ſweetneſs, mixed with all the im-rovement of learning, as might convey know-dge with a ſort of gentle inſinuation. *Watts.*

(1.) CANDY, a large kingdom of Aſia, in Cey-n. It contains about a quarter of the iſland; nd as it is encompaſſed with high mountains, nd covered with thick foreſts, through which the ads and paths are narrow and difficult, the king has them guarded to prevent his ſubjects from go-ing into other countries. It is full of hills, from whence rivulets proceed which are full of fiſh; but as they run among the rocks, they are not fit for boats: however, the inhabitants are very dex-terous in turning them to water their land, which is fruitful in rice, pulſe, and hemp. The king is abſolute, and his ſubjects are idolaters.

(2.) CANDY, the capital of the above kingdom. (N. 1.) It has been often burnt by the Portugueſe, when they were maſters of theſe coaſts. The houſes are very poor, low, and badly furniſhed. Lon. 80. 52. E. Lat. 7. 45. N.

(3.) CANDY, or SUGAR-CANDY, a preparation of ſugar made by melting and cryſtallizing it 6 or 7 times over, to render it hard or tranſparent. It is of three kinds, white, yellow, and red. The white comes from the loaf-ſugar, the yellow from the caſſonado, and the red from the muſcavado.

(1.) * *To* CANDY. *v. a.* [probably from *candare*, a word uſed in later times for *to whiten*.] 1. To conſerve with ſugar, in ſuch a manner as that the ſugar lies in flakes or breaks into ſpangles.—

Should the poor be flatter'd?
No, let the *candy'd* tongue lick abſurd pomp,
And crook the pregnant hinges of the knee,
Where thrift may follow fawning. *Shakeſpeare.*

—They have in Turky confections like to *candied* conſerves, made of ſugar and lemons, or ſugar and citrons, or ſugar and violets, and ſome other flow-ers, and mixture of amber. *Bacon.*—

With *candy'd* plantanes, and the juicy pine,
On choiceſt melons and ſweet grapes they dine.
Waller.

2. To form into congelations.—

Will the cold brook,
Candied with ice, cawdle thy morning toaſt,
To cure thy o'er-night's ſurfeit? *Shakeſpeare.*

3. To incruſt with congelations.—

Since when thoſe froſts that winter brings,
Which *candy* every green,
Renew us like the teeming ſprings,
And we thus freſh are ſeen. *Drayton.*

(2.) * *To* CANDY. *v. n.* To grow congealed.

CANDYING, the act of preſerving ſimples in ſubſtance, by boiling them in ſugar. The perfor-mance of this originally belonged to the apothe-caries, but is now become a part of the buſineſs of the confectioner.

(1.) * CANDY LION'S FOOT. [*catananche*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) CANDY LION'S FOOT. See CATANANCHE.

CANDY TUFT. See IBERIS.

(1.) * CANE. *n. ſ.* [*canna*, Lat.] 1. A kind of ſtrong reed, of which walking ſtaffs are made; a walking ſtaff.—

Shall I to pleaſe another wine-ſprung mind
Loſe all mine own? God hath given me a mea-ſure
Short of his *cane* and body: muſt I find
A pain in that wherein he finds a pleaſure?
Herbert.

—The king thruſt the captain from him with his *cane*; whereupon he took his leave and went home. *Harvey.*—If the poker be out of the way, or broken, ſtir the fire with your maſter's *cane*. *Swift.* 2. The plant which yields the ſugar.—This *cane* or reed grows plentifully both in the

Eaſt

Eaſt and Weſt Indies. Other reeds have their ſkin hard dry, and their pulp void of juice; but the ſkin of the ſugar *cane* is ſoft, and the ſpongy matter or pith it contains very juicy. It uſually grows four or five feet high, and about half an inch in diameter. The ſtem or ſtalk is divided by knots a foot and a half a part. At the top it puts forth a number of long green tufted leaves, from the middle of which ariſe the flower and the ſeed. There are likewiſe leaves ſpringing out from each knot; but theſe uſually fall as the *cane* riſes. They uſually plant them in pieces cut a foot and a half below the top of the flower, and they are ordinarily ripe in ten months, though ſometimes not till fifteen; at which time they are found quite full of a white ſucculent marrow, whence is expreſſed the liquour of which ſugar is made. When ripe, they are cut, and carried in bundles to the mills, which conſiſt of three wooden rollers, covered with ſteel plates. *Chambers.*—

And the ſweet liquour on the *cane* beſtow,
From which prepar'd the luſcious ſugars flow.
Blackmore.

3. A lance; a dart made of cane; whence the Spaniſh *inego de cannas.*—

Abenamar, thy youth theſe ſports has known,
Of which thy age is now ſpectator grown;
Judge-like thou ſitt'ſt, to praiſe or to arraign,
The flying ſkirmiſh of the darted *cane.* *Dryden.*

4. A reed.—Food may be afforded to bees, by ſmall *canes* or troughs conveyed into their hives. *Mortimer's Huſbandry.*

(2.) CANE, in botany. See § 1. *def.* 2. ARUNDO and CALAMUS.

(3.) CANE is alſo the name of a long meaſure, which differs in the ſeveral countries where it is uſed. At Naples the cane is equal to 7 feet 3½ inches Engliſh meaſure: the cane of Thouloufe and the Upper Languedoc, is equal to the varre of Arragon, and contains 5 feet 8½ inches; at Montpellier, Provence, Dauphine, and the Lower Languedoc, to 6 Engliſh feet 5½ inches.

(4.) CANES (§ 1. *def.* 1.) are commonly adorned with a head of gold, ſilver, agate, &c. Some are without knots, and very ſmooth and even; others are full of knots about two inches diſtance from one another. Theſe laſt have very little elaſticity, and will not bend ſo well as the others. The canes of Bengal are the moſt beautiful which the Europeans bring into Europe. Some of them are ſo fine, that people work them into bowls or veſſels, which being varniſhed over in the inſide, with black or yellow lacca, will hold liquors as well as glaſs or China ware does; and the Indians uſe them for that purpoſe.

(5.) CANE, SUGAR. See SACCHARUM.

* *To* CANE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To beat with a walking ſtaff.

CANEA, a conſiderable town of the iſland of Candia, where a baſhaw reſides. See CANDIA, § 6. It was built by the Venetians, and occupies part of the ſite of the ancient CYDONIA. It is but about two miles in compaſs; encircled on the land ſide with a ſingle wall, extremely thick; and defended by a broad and deep ditch, cut through a bed of rock, which extends all round the wall. By cutting it ſtill deeper, they might cauſe the ſea to flow round its ramparts: on which they have raiſed high platforms, that their great guns may command a wider extent of the adjacent ſea. The city has only one gate, viz. that of Retimo, protected by a half-moon battery, which is the only exterior fort. The ſide which faces the ſea is the beſt fortified. On the left of the harbour are four batteries, riſing one above another, and planted with a number of large cannons of brass metal, marked with the arms of Venice. The loweſt of theſe batteries ſtands cloſe on the brink of the ſea. The right ſide of the harbour is defended only by a ſtrong wall, extending along a chain of ſharp rocks which it is dangerous for ſhips to approach. At the extremity of this wall, there is an old caſtle, falling into ruins. Beneath that caſtle, the Venetians had immenſe arſenals, vaulted with ſtone. Each of theſe vaults was of ſufficient length, breadth, and height, to ſerve as a workſhop for building a ſhip of the line. The ground is ſloping, and the outermoſt part of theſe magnificious arſenals is on a level with the ſea; ſo that it was very eaſy to launch the ſhips built there into the water. The Turks are ſuffering that magnificent work to fall into ruins. Canea is laid out on a fine plan. The ſtreets are large and ſtraight, and the ſquares adorned with fountains. There are no remarkable buildings in it. Moſt of the houſes are flat-roofed, and have only one ſtory. Thoſe contiguous to the harbour are adorned with galleries, from which there is a delightful proſpect. From the windows are ſeen the large bay formed between Cape Spada and Cape Melecha, and all the ſhips that are entering in or paſſing out. The harbour, at preſent, receives ſhips of 200 tons burden; and it might be enlarged ſo as to admit the largeſt frigates. Its mouth is expoſed to the violence of the north winds, which ſometimes ſwell the billows above the ramparts. But, as it is narrow, and the bottom is good, ſhips that are well moored run no danger. At the time when Tournefort viſited Crete, Canea did not contain more than 5 or 6000 inhabitants. But, at preſent, when the gates of Gira-Petra, Candia, and Retimo are choaked up, the merchants have retired to Canea; and it is reckoned to contain 16,000 ſouls. The environs of the town are admirable; being adorned with foreſts of olive trees mixed with fields, vineyards, gardens, and brooks bordered with myrtle trees and laurel roſes. The chief revenue of this town conſiſts in olive oil. Lon. 24. 15. E. Lat. 35. 20. N.

CANE, GROTTO DEL, [*i. e.* the dog's grotto] a cave of Naples, 7 miles from Puzzoli, where many poor dogs have been ſuffocated, to ſhew the effect of a mephitic vapour, which riſes a foot above the bottom of this grotto.

CANELLA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the dodecandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, *Holoraceæ.* The calyx is 3 leaved, the petals are 5; the antheræ 16, growing to the urceolated or bladder-ſhaped nectarium; and the fruit is a trilocular berry, with two ſeeds. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

CANELLA ALBA. It grows uſually about 20 feet high, and eight or ten inches in thickneſs, in moſt of the Bahama iſlands. The leaves are narrow at the ſtalk, growing wider at their ends, which are

oad and rounding, having a middle rib only; ey are very ſmooth, and of a light ſhining green. e *Plate* XLIX. In May and June the flowers, hich are pentapetalous, come forth in cluſters at e ends of the branches: they are red, and very agrant, and are ſucceeded by round berries, of e ſize of large peas, green, and when ripe (which in February,) purple, containing two ſhining ack ſeeds, flat on one ſide, otherwiſe not unlike ſhape to a kidney bean: theſe ſeeds in the berry e enveloped in a ſlimy mucilage. The whole ant is very aromatic, the bark particularly, beg more uſed in diſtilling, and in greater eſteem, the more northern parts of the world than in ritain. The bark is the canella alba of the ſhops. is brought to us rolled up into long quills, icker than the cinnamon, and both outwardly d inwardly of a whitiſh colour, lightly inclining yellow. Infuſions of it in water are of a yelwiſh colour, and ſmell of the canella; but they e rather bitter than aromatic. Tinctures in recied ſpirit have the warmth of the bark, but lit: of its ſmell. Proof ſpirit diſſolves the aromatic well as the bitter matter of the canella, and is erefore the beſt menſtruum. The canella is the terior bark freed from an outward thin rough e, and dried in the ſhade. The ſhops diſtinuſh two ſorts of canella, differing from each oer in the length and thickneſs of the quills: ey are both the bark of the ſame tree; the icker being taken from the trunk, and the thinr from the branches. This bark is a warm purnt aromatic, though not of the moſt agreeable nd: nor are any of the preparations of it very ateful. Canella alba is often employed where a arm ſtimulant to the ſtomach is neceſſary, and a corrigent of other articles. It is now, hower, little uſed in compoſition by the London ollege; the only official formula which it enters ing the *pulvis aloeticus*: but with the Edinburgh ollege it is an ingredient in the *tinctura amara*, *inum amarum*, *vinum rhei*, &c. It is uſeful as wering the taſte of ſome other articles.—This rk has been confounded with Winter's bark, hich belongs to a very different tree. See WINERA.

CANELLE, or CANE-LAND, a large country the iſland of Ceylon, formerly called COTA. contains a great number of cantons, the princil of which are occupied by the Dutch. The ief riches of this country conſiſt in cinnamon, which there are large foreſts. There are five wns on the coaſt, ſome forts, and a great numr of harbours. The reſt of the country is inhated by the natives; and there are ſeveral rich ines, from whence rubies, ſapphires, topazes, ts eyes, and ſeveral other precious ſtones are tained.

CANEPHORÆ, in Grecian antiquity, virgins, come marriageable. See next article.

(1.) CANEPHORIA, a ceremony which made rt of a feaſt, celebrated by the Athenian virgins the eve of their marriage day. It conſiſts in is: The maid, conducted by her father and moer, went to the temple of Minerva, carrying ith her a baſket full of little curioſities, as preents to Diana, to engage her to make the marrie ſtate happy; or, as the ſcholiaſt of Theocritus has it, the baſket was intended as a kind of honourable amends made to that goddeſs, the protectrix of virginity, for abandoning her party; or as a ceremony to appeaſe her wrath. Suidas calls it a feſtival in honour of Diana.

(2.) CANEPHORIA, was alſo a feſtival in honour of Bacchus, celebrated particularly by the Athenians, in which the young maids carried golden baſkets full of fruit, covered to conceal the myſtery from the uninitiated.

CANES, in Egypt and other eaſtern countries, a poor ſort of buildings for the reception of ſtrangers and travellers; who are accommodated with a room at a ſmall price, but with no other neceſſaries; ſo that, excepting the room, there are no greater accommodations in theſe houſes than in the deſarts, except that there is a market near.

CANESBY, a village in Lincolnſhire, near Weſt Haulton.

CANESCENT, *adj.* tending to whiteneſs.

CANESTELLUS, [old Lat.] *n. ſ.* a baſket.

CANES VENATICI, in aſtronomy, the GREY HOUNDS, two new conſtellations firſt eſtabliſhed by Hevelius, between the tail of the Great Bear and Bootes's arms, above the Coma Berenices. The firſt is called *aſterion*, being next the Bear's tail; the other *chara*. See ASTRONOMY, § 550. Their longitudes and latitudes are given by Hevelius.

CANETO, a ſtrong town of Italy in Mantua, ſeated on the Oglio, which was ſeveral times taken and retaken by the French and Imperialiſts. It lies 12 m. S. of Mantua, and is now included in the new republic of Ciſpadana. Lon. 10. 45. E. Lat. 40. 55. N.

CANEWDON, a town in Eſſex, near Waſfleet, anciently called CANUTI DOMUS, king Canute the Great having held his court in it. It has a fair June 25.

CANE-WOOD, near Hampſtead, Middleſex.

CANFIELD MAGNA, CANFIELD PARVA, two ſmall towns near Dunmow, in Eſſex.

CANFORD-LAWNDS, CANFORD PARVA, two villages, E. of Winborn-Minſter, near the Stour, Dorſetſhire.

CANG, a gulf of Aſia lying between China and Tartary, at the E. end of the Long Wall.

CANGA, in the Chineſe affairs, a wooden clog born on the neck, by way of puniſhment for divers offences. The canga is compoſed of two pieces of wood notched, to receive the criminal's neck; the load lies on his ſhoulders, and is more or leſs heavy according to the quality of his offence. Some cangas weigh 200lb.; the generality from 50 to 60. The Mandarins condemn to the puniſhment of the canga. Sentence of death is ſometimes changed for this kind of puniſhment.

CANGANI. See CRANGI.

CANGE, Sieur DU. See FRESNE, DU.

CANGERECORA, a large river in the peninſula of Indoſtan, which riſes in the Gaut Mountains, and runs S. W. to the coaſt of Malabar.

CANGI. See CRANGI.

CANGIAGIO, or CAMBIASI, Lewis, one of the moſt eminent of the Genoeſe painters, was born in 1527. His works at Genoa are very numerous; and he was employed by the king of Spain to adorn part of the Eſcurial. He was not

not only expeditious, but worked equally well with both hands; and, by that unuſual power, executed more deſigns, and finiſhed more grand works with his own pencil, in a much ſhorter time, than moſt other artiſts could do with ſeveral aſſiſtants. He died in 1585.

CANHAM, a village in Suffolk, near Edmundſbury.

CANIA, in botany, a named uſed by Pliny and others for the Nettle. See URTICA.

CANIADERAGO, a lake of the United States, in New York, W. of lake Oſwego, about 9 miles long, but narrow.

CANIBAL. See CANNIBAL.

(1.) CANICULA, in aſtronomy, a ſtar in the conſtellation *canis major*, called alſo the DOG-STAR; by the Greeks Σειρὸς, SIRIUS. It is the 10th in order in the Britannic catalogue; in Tycho's and Ptolemy's it is the 2d. It is ſituated in the mouth of the conſtellation; and is of the firſt magnitude, being the largeſt and brighteſt ſtar in the heavens. From the riſing of this ſtar not coſmically, or with the ſun, but heliacally, that is, its emerſion from the ſun's rays, which now happens about the 15th of Auguſt, the ancients reckoned their *dies caniculares*, CANICULAR DAYS, or DOG-DAYS. The Egyptians and Ethiopians began their year at the riſing of the canicula, reckoning to its riſe again the next year, which is called the *annus canarius*, or CANICULA YEAR. The reaſon of their choice of the canicula before the other ſtars to compute their time by, was not only the ſuperior brightneſs of that ſtar, but becauſe its heliacal riſing was in Egypt a time of ſingular note, as falling on the greateſt augmentation of the Nile. Epheſtion adds, that from the aſpect and colour of canicula, the Egyptians drew prognoſtics concerning the riſe of the Nile; and, according to Florus, predicted the future ſtate of the year; ſo that the firſt riſing of this ſtar was annually obſerved with great attention.

(2.) CANICULA, in zoology, the name by which Ariſtotle, Rondeletius, Aldrovandus, and others, have called the CATULUS.

(3.) CANICULA was alſo uſed by Pliny, and other Roman writers, for the fiſh which the Italians expreſs by the name, LAMIOLA, and in Cornwall is called the *tope*. It is a ſpecies of SQUALUS.

(1.) * CANICULAR. *adj.* [*canicularis*, Lat.] Belonging to the dog-ſtar; as *canicular*, or dog-days. —In regard to different latitudes, unto ſome the *canicular* days are in the winter; as unto ſuch as are under the equinoctial line; for, unto them, the dog-ſtar ariſeth, when the ſun is about the tropick of Cancer, which ſeaſon unto them is winter. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

(2.) CANICULAR DAYS, } See CANICULA, N. 1.

(3.) CANICULAR YEAR, } The canicular year among the ancient Egyptians, conſiſted of 365 days, and had an intercalary day every 4th year.

CANICULUM, or } in the Byzantine antiqui-

CANICULUS, } ties, a golden ſtandiſh or ink-veſſel, decorated with precious ſtones, wherein was kept the ſacred *encauſtum*, or red ink, wherewith the emperors ſigned their decrees, letters, &c. The name alludes to the figure of a dog which is repreſented, or rather becauſe it was ſupported by the figures of dogs. The canicula was under the care of a particular officer of the

CANICUM, in botany, a name given by Avicenna and others, to the ſmall celandine. See RANUNCULUS.

CANIGAU, the higheſt peak of the Pyrenean mountains. It is ſaid to be 1440 fathoms, or 8640 feet high.

(1.) CANINA, a diſtrict in the N. of Turkey, part of Albania, the ancient Epirus. It lies at the entrance of the gulph of Venus.

(2.) CANINA, the capital of the diſtrict, N. 1. ſeated on the ſea coaſt, at the foot of the mountains of Chimera. Lon. 19. 25. E. Lat. 40. 0.

(3.) CANINA LAPPA, in botany, a name given by ſome of the old Roman authors to the fruit of aparine or gooſe graſs. See GALIUM.

CANINANA, in zoology, a ſpecies of ſerpent found in America, and eſteemed one of the moſt venomous kinds. It grows to about two feet long, and is green on the back, and yellow on the belly. It feeds on eggs and ſmall birds; the natives cut off the head and tail, and eat the body as a delicate diſh.

(1.) * CANINE. *adj.* [*caninus*, Lat.] 1. Having the properties of a dog.—A kind of words are made up of *canine* particles: theſe are the men who imitate the animals out of which they were taken, always buſy and barking, and fiercely at every one that comes in their way. *Addiſon.* 2. *Canine* hunger, in medicine, is an appetite which cannot be ſatisfied.—It may occaſion an exorbitant appetite of uſual things, which they will eat in ſuch quantities, till they vomit them up like dogs, from whence it is called *canine*. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) CANINE APPETITE. See § 1. *def.* 2. and BULIMY.

(3.) CANINE MADNESS. See MEDICINE, Index.

(4.) CANINE SULPHUR, a ſort of native ſulphur diſcovered near Reggio, intermixed with earthy and ſtony matters; ſo called becauſe dogs are ſo fond of it, as to dig it out of the earth.

(5.) CANINE TEETH are two ſharp edged teeth in each jaw; one on each ſide, placed between the inciſores and molares.

CANINI, John Angelo, and } two brothers and

CANINI, Mark Anthony, } tives of Rome celebrated for their love of antiquities. John excelled in deſigns for engraving on ſtones, particularly heads; Mark engraved them. They were encouraged by Colbert to publiſh a ſucceſſion of all of the heroes and great men of antiquity, deſigned from medals, antique ſtones, and other ancient remains; but John died at Rome ſoon after the work was begun: Mark Anthony, however, procured affiſtance, finiſhed and publiſhed it at Rome, in 1669. The cuts of this edition were engraved by Canini, Picard, and Valet; and a curious explanation is given, which diſcovers the hiſtory of the Canini's in hiſtory and mythology. The French edition of Amſterdam, 1731, is ſpurious.

CANINUS MUSCULUS, the ſame as *levator labii ſuperioris*. See ANATOMY, § 197.

CANINUS SERPENS, in zoology, a name given to the MAUBALLA of Ceylon, a ſnake that flies at every thing that comes in its way, *like a dog*.

(1.) CANIS, the Dog, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds,

quadrupeds, belonging to the order of feræ. The characters of the dog are these: He has six foreteeth in the upper jaw, those in the sides being longer than the intermediate ones, which are lobated; in the under jaw there are likewise six foreteeth, those on the sides being lobated. He has grinders in the upper, and 7 in the lower jaw. The teeth called *dog-teeth* are 4, one on each side, both in the lower and upper jaw; they are sharp-pointed, bent a little inward, and stand at a distance from any of the rest. Zoologists commonly reckon 14 species of this genus. Mr Robert Kerr, in his *Animal Kingdom*, *Vol.* I. enumerates 7. But zoological arrangement seems not yet to have arrived at its utmost degree of perfection. Mr Pennant with considerable propriety, (as Mr Kerr remarks,) excludes all the Hyenæ from this genus. Indeed to ordinary readers it must appear somewhat strange to class animals of such very opposite natures as the fox, the wolf and the hyæna, under the same genus with the dog. But such is the present state of this branch of science. In adopting Mr Kerr's arrangement in general, as far as our lexicographical order will permit, we state the different species and varieties as follows:

i. CANIS ADIVE, the BARBARY FOX, the CHACAL of Buffon, or the jackal adive, has a long and slender nose, sharp upright ears, long bushy tail: colour, a very pale brown; space above and below the eyes, black; from behind each ear, there is a black line, which soon divides into two, which extend to the lower part of the neck; and the tail is surrounded with 3 broad rings. This species is of the size of the common fox, but the limbs are shorter, and the nose is more slender. M. de Buffon informs us, that Mr Bruce told him his animal was common in Barbary, where it was called *thaleb*. But Mr Pennant observes, that Mr Bruce should have given it a more distinguishing name; for *thaleb*, or *taaleb*, is no more than the Arabic name for the common fox, which is also frequent in that country.

ii. CANIS ANTARCTICUS, the NEW HOLLAND DOG, or Dog of New South Wales, mentioned by Gov. Phillips in his *Voyages*, is thus described by Mr Kerr, p. 136. "The tail is bushy, and hangs downwards: the ears are short and erect; and the muzzle is pointed. It inhabits New Holland; is rather less than a foot high; and about 2½ in length. His head resembles that of a fox, having a pointed muzzle, garnished with whiskers, and short erect ears; the body and tail light brown; paler towards the belly, on the sides of the face and throat. The hind parts of the fore legs, the fore parts of the hind legs and all the feet are white. On the whole it is a very elegant animal, but fierce and cruel; from which, with its figure, (see *Plate* LIV.) the total want of the common voice of the dog, and from general resemblance in other respects, it seems more properly to belong to the wolf than the dog kind."

iii. CANIS AUREUS, the SCHACKAL, or JACKAL as described by Mr Pennant, has yellowish brown irides; ears erect, formed like those of a fox, but shorter and less pointed: hairy with white within; brown without, tinged and dusky: head shorter than that of a fox, and nose blunter: lips black, and somewhat loose: neck and body very much resembling those of that animal, but the body more compressed: the legs have the same resemblance, but are longer: tail thickest in the middle, tapering to the point: 5 toes on the fore feet; the inner toe very short, and placed high: 4 toes on the hind feet; all covered with hair even to the claws. The hairs are much stiffer than those of a fox, but scarcely so stiff as those of a wolf; short about the nose; on the back, 3 inches long; on the belly shorter: Those at the end of the tail 4 inches long: Colour of the upper part of the body a dirty tawny; on the back, mixed with black: lower part of the body of a yellowish white: tail tipt with black; the rest of the same colour with the back: the legs of an unmixed tawny brown; the fore legs marked (but not always) with a black spot on the knees: but on no part are those vivid colours which could merit the title of *golden*, bestowed on it by Kæmpfer. The length of this animal from the nose to the root of the tail is little more than 29 inches English: the tail, to the ends of the hairs reaches; the tip reaching to the top of the hind legs: the height, from the space between the shoulders to the ground, rather more than 18½ inches; the hind parts a little higher. This species inhabits all the hot and temperate parts of Asia, India, Persia, Arabia, Great Tartary, and about Mount Caucasus, Syria, and the Holy Land. It is found in most parts of Africa, from Barbary to the Cape of Good Hope. Professor Gueldenstaedt, the able describer of this long lost animal, remarks, that the cæcum entirely agrees in form with that of a dog, and differs from that of the wolf and fox. And Mr Pennant observes, that there is the same agreement in the teeth with those of a dog; and the same variation in them from those of the two other animals. These circumstances strengthen the opinion entertained by some writers, that the dogs of the old world derived their origin from one or other of them. The jackals have indeed so much the nature of dogs, as to give reasonable cause to imagine that they are at least the *chief* stock from which is sprung the various races of those domestic animals. When taken young, they grow instantly tame; attach themselves to mankind; wag their tails; love to be stroked; distinguish their masters from others; will come on being called by the name given to them; will leap on the table, being encouraged to it: they drink, lapping; and make water sideways, with their leg held up. Their dung is hard: *odorat anum alterius, cohæret copula junctus.* When they see dogs, instead of flying, they seek them, and play with them. They will eat bread eagerly; notwithstanding they are in a wild state carnivorous. They have a great resemblance to some of the Calmuc dogs, which perhaps were but a few descents removed from the wild kinds. Our dogs are probably derived from those reclaimed in the first ages of the world; altered by numberless accidents into the many varieties which now appear among us. The wild schackals go in packs of 40, 50, and even two hundred, and hunt like hounds in full cry from evening to morning. They destroy flocks and poultry, but in a less degree than the wolf or fox: ravage the streets of villages and gardens near towns, and will even destroy children,

ren, if left unprotected. They will enter ſtables and outhouſes, and devour ſkins, or any thing made of that material. They will familiarly enter a tent, and ſteal whatſoever they can find from the ſleeping traveller. In defect of living prey, they will feed on roots and fruits; and even on the moſt infected carrion: they will greedily diſinter the dead, and devour the putrid carcaſes; for which reaſon, in many countries the graves are made of a great depth. They attend caravans, and follow armies, in hopes that death will provide them a banquet. Their voice naturally is a howl. Barking, Mr Pennant obſerves, is latently inherent; and in their ſtate of nature ſeldom exerted: but its different modifications are adventitious, and expreſſive of the new paſſions and affections gained by a domeſtic ſtate. Their howlings and clamours in the night are dreadful, and ſo loud that people can ſcarcely hear one another ſpeak. Dellon ſays, their voice is like the cries of a great many children of different ages mixed together: when one begins to howl, the whole pack join in the cry. Kæmpfer ſays, that every now and then a ſort of bark is intermixed; which confirms what is above aſſerted by Mr Pennant. Dellon agrees in the account of their being tamed, and entertained as domeſtic animals. During day they are ſilent. They dig burrows in the earth, in which they lie all day, and come out at night to range for prey: they hunt by the noſe, and are very quick of feet. The females breed only once a year; and go with young only 4 weeks; they bring from 6 to 8 at a time. Both Mr Gueldenſtaedt and Mr Bell contradict the opinion of their being very fierce animals. This animal is vulgarly called the *Lion's Provider*, from an opinion that it rouzes the prey for that bad-nofed quadruped. The fact is, every creature in the foreſt is ſet in motion by the fearful cries of the jackals; the lion, and other beaſts of rapine, by a ſort of inſtinct, attend to the chace, and ſeize ſuch timid animals as betake themſelves to flight at the noiſe of this nightly pack. The jackal is deſcribed by Oppian, under the name of Αυρεὺς, or *yellow wolf*; who mentions its horrible howl. It may, as M. de Buffon conjectures, be the Ωυη of Ariſtotle, who mentions it with the wolf, and ſays that it has the ſame internal ſtructure as the wolf, which is common with congenerous animals. The Thoes of Pliny may alſo be a variety of the ſame animal; for his account of it agrees with the modern hiſtory of the ſchackal, except in the laſt article. See *Lib.* viii. *c.* 34.

iv. CANIS CERDO, the ZERDA, has a very pointed viſage; large bright black eyes; very large ears, of a bright roſe-colour, internally lined with long hairs; the orifice ſo ſmall as not to be viſible, probably covered with a valve or membrace: the legs and feet are like thoſe of a dog; the tail is taper: colour between a ſtraw and pale brown. Length from noſe to tail ten inches; ears 3½ inches long; tail, ſix: height not 1. It inhabits the vaſt deſert of Saara, which extends beyond mount Atlas. It burrows in the ſandy ground, which ſhows the neceſſity of the valves to the ears; and is ſo exceſſively ſwift, that it is very rarely taken alive. It feeds on inſects, eſpecially locuſts; ſits on its rump: is very vigilant: barks like a dog, but much ſhriller, and that chiefly in the night: never is obſerved to be ſportive. We are indebted to Mr Eric Skioldebrand, the late Swediſh conſul at Algiers, for our knowledge of this ſingular animal. He never could procure but one alive, which eſcaped before he examined its teeth: the genus is very uncertain: the form of its head and legs, and ſome of its manners, determined Mr Pennant to rank it in this genus. The which was in poſſeſſion of Mr Skioldebrand, freely from the hand, and would eat bread and boiled meat. Buffon has given a figure of this animal; but from the authority of Mr Bruce aſcribes to it a different place, and different manners. He ſays that it is found to the S. of the Palus Tritonides, in Libya; that it has ſomething of the nature of the hare, and ſomething of the ſquirrel; and that it lives on the palm-trees, and feeds on the fruits.

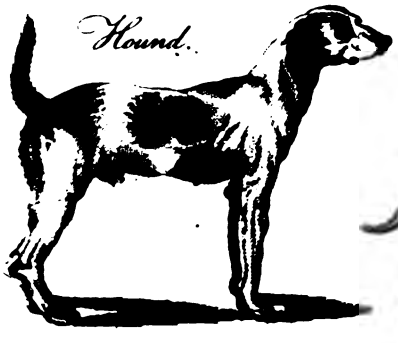
v. CANIS CINEREO-ARGENTEUS, the SILVERY FOX of Louiſiana, reſembles the common fox in form, but has a moſt beautiful coat. The ſhort hairs are of a deep brown; and over them ſpring long ſilvery hairs, which give the animal a very elegant appearance. They live in forefts abounding in game, and never attempt the poultry which are every where pierced with their holes.

vi. CANIS FAMILIARIS, the DOMESTIC, or FAITHFUL DOG, is diſtinguiſhed from the reſt of the ſpecies by having its tail bent to the left ſide; which mark is ſo ſingular, that perhaps the tail of no other quadruped is bent in this manner. Of this ſpecies there are a great number of varieties. Linnæus enumerates 11; Buffon gives figures of 27; and Mr Kerr, enumerates no fewer than 40. See *Plates* LI, LII, LIII, and LIV. The maſtiff is about the ſize of a wolf, with the ſides of the lips hanging down, and a full robuſt body. The large Daniſh dog differs only from the former in being fuller in body, and generally of a larger ſize. The grey-hound is likewiſe of the ſame with the maſtiff; but its make is more ſlender and delicate. Indeed the difference between theſe 2 dogs, although perfectly diſtinguiſhable at firſt ſight, is not greater than that betwixt a Dutchman, a Frenchman, and an Italian. The ſheep-herd's dog, the wolf-dog, the Siberian dog, the Lapland dog, the Canada dog, and, in general, all thoſe which have ſtraight ears and a pointed ſnout, are all one kind, differing only in the ſhortneſs, the roughneſs or ſmoothneſs of their hair, the length of their legs and tails. The hound, the beagle, the terrier, the braque or harrier, and the ſpaniel, may be conſidered as the ſame kind: they have the ſame form and the ſame inſtincts; and differ only in the length of their legs and ſize of their ears, which in each of them are long, flat, and pendulous. The bull-dog, the ſmall Dutch dog, the Turkiſh dog, and the Iceland dog, may likewiſe be conſidered as the ſame kind, differing only from climate. For inſtance, the Turkiſh dog, which has no hair, is nothing elſe but the ſmall Daniſh dog tranſported to a warm climate, which makes the hair fall off. A dog of any kind loſes its hair in very warm climates. But this is not the only change which ariſes from difference of climate. In ſome countries, the voice is changed;

Spaniel.

Turnspit.

Hound.



Dalmatian Dog.

Small Water Dog.

Harrier.

Great Water Dog.

Bull Dog.

Mastiff.

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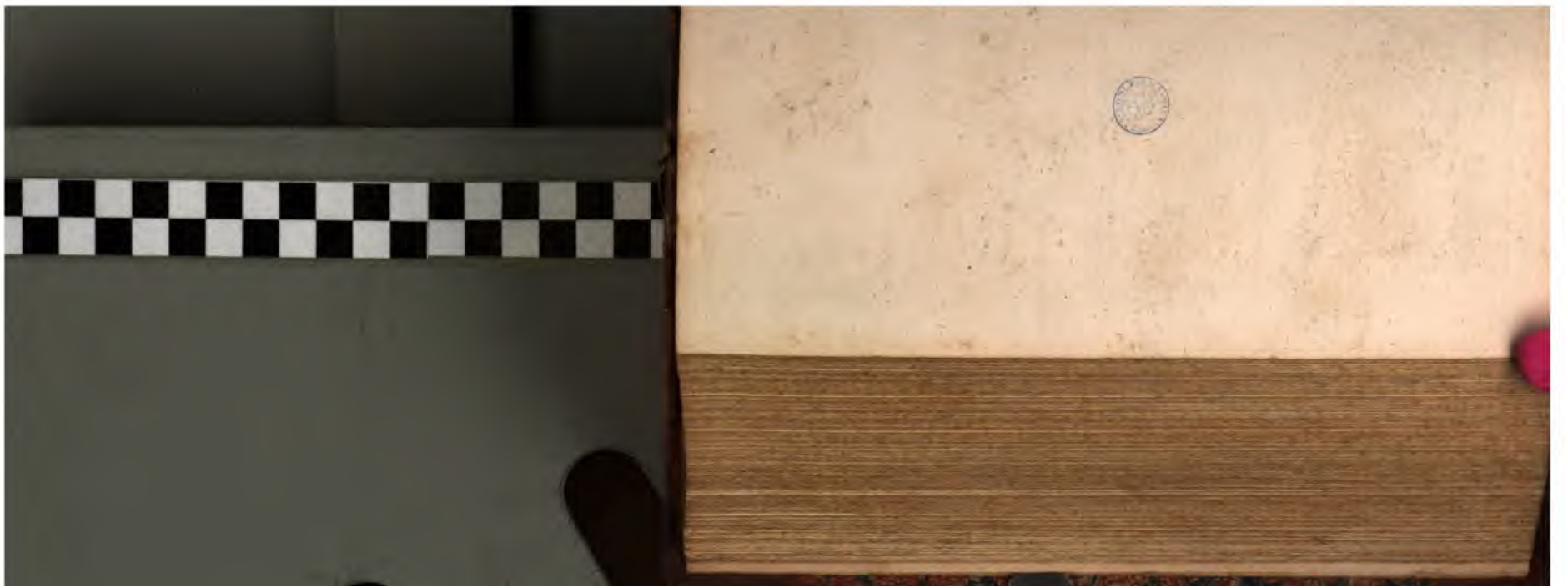


CANIS.

Plate LII.

King Charles's Dog.

Pyrame Dog.

Shock Dog.

Lion Dog.

Small Danish Dog.

Bastard Pug Dog.

Pug Dog.

Naked Turkish Dog.

Mongrel Turkish Dog.

The Wolf.

Mongrel Hound.

CANIS.

Plate LII.

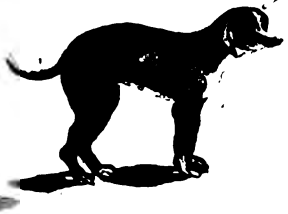
King Charles's Dog.

Pyrame Dog.

Stock Dog.

Lion Dog.

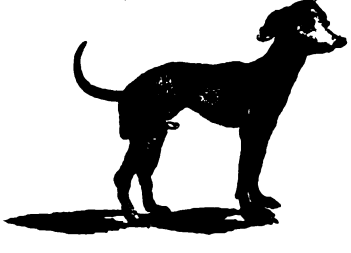
Small Danish Dog.



Bastard Pug Dog.

Pug Dog.

Naked Turkish Dog.



Mongrel Turkish Dog

The Wolf

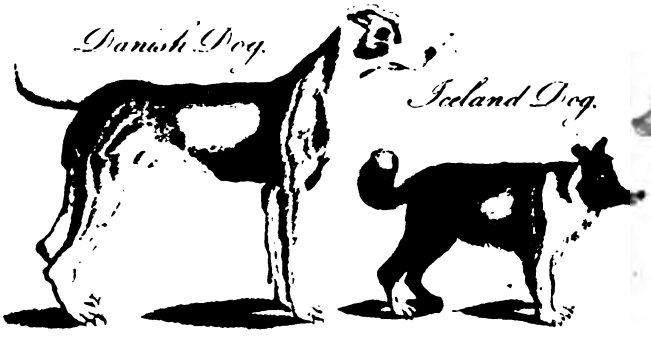
Mongrel Hound.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Perthensis.

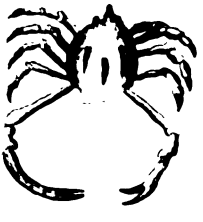
CANIS.
Plate LIV.
Iceland Dog.
New Holland Dog.
American Alec.
CANCROMA COCHLEARIS.
CANCER.
CAIRNS.

CANIS.

Plate LIV.

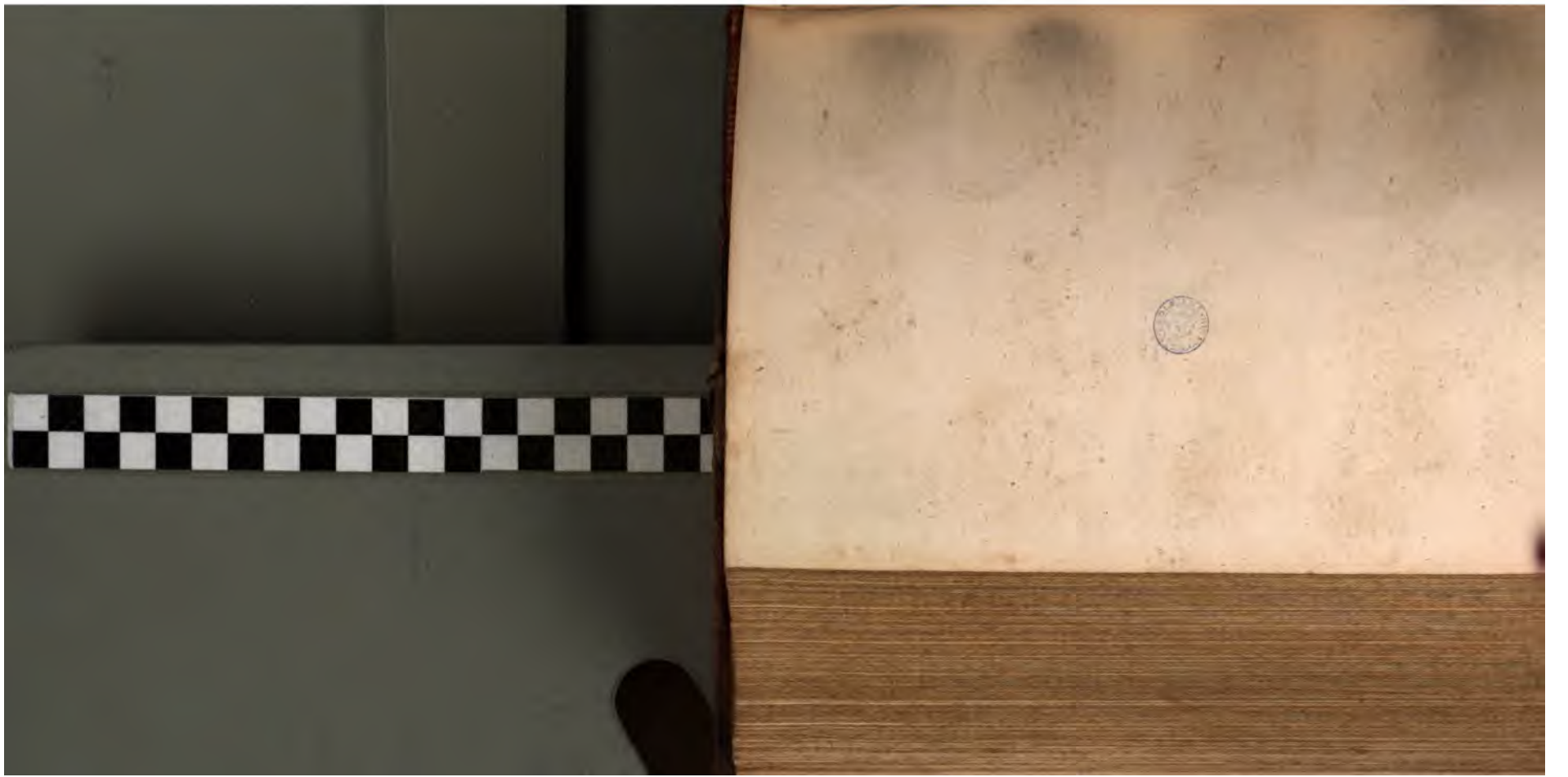


American Hco.



CANCER.

CAIRNS.



of the maſtiff; ſome take the water, others will not, abſolutely refuſing to go in. The country was found uninhabited, which makes it more probable that they were introduced by the Europeans; who uſe them, as the factory dogs in Hudſon's bay, to draw firing from the woods to the forts. The ſavages who trade to Hudſon's bay make uſe of the wolfiſh kind to draw their furs. It is ſingular, that the race of European dogs ſhow as ſtrong an antipathy to this American ſpecies, as they do to the wolf itſelf. They never meet with them, but they ſhow all poſſible ſigns of diſlike, and will fall on and worry them; while the wolfiſh breed, with every mark of timidity, puts its tail between its legs, and runs from the rage of the others. This averſion to the wolf is natural to all genuine dogs; for it is well known that a whelp, which has never ſeen a wolf, will at firſt ſight tremble, and run to its maſter for protection: an old dog will inſtantly attack it. Yet theſe animals may be made to breed with one another as above ſhown; and the following abſtract of a letter from Dr Pallas to Mr Pennant, dated Oct. 5th 1781, affords a firm confirmation of the fact. "I have ſeen at Moſcow, about 20 ſpurious animals from dogs and black wolves. They are for the moſt part like wolves, except that ſome carry their tails higher, and have a kind of hoarſe barking. They multiply among themſelves; and ſome of the whelps are greyiſh, ruſty, or even of the whitiſh hue of the arctic wolves; and one of thoſe I ſaw, in ſhape, tail, and hair, and even in barking, ſo like a cur, that was it not for his head and ears, his ill-natured look, and fearfulneſs at the approach of man, I ſhould hardly have believed that it was of the ſame breed." The dog is liable to many diſeaſes, as the ſcab, madneſs, &c. and he ſeldom wants the tænia or tape-worm in his guts, eſpecially if he drinks dirty water.

(1.) CANIS FAMILIARIS, BRITISH VARIETIES OF THE. Having thus delineated the natural hiſtory of the domeſtic dog, we proceed to deſcribe the numerous varieties of this ſpecies. We begin with thoſe of our own iſland, as deſcribed by Dr Caius, among which are ſome varieties now loſt; and ſhall next give a brief account of all the known varieties in the world, as enumerated by Mr Kerr. Dr Caius, (or more properly KAYE,) arranges the Britiſh dogs in three grand diviſions, which he ſubdivides as follows:

Dr CAIUS's SYNOPSIS *of* BRITISH DOGS,

I. The MOST GENEROUS KINDS.			II. RUSTICI, or FARM DOGS.	III. DEGENERES, or MONGRELS.
Dogs of Chace.		Fowlers.	Lap-dogs.		
Hounds.	Such as hunt by the eye.	(*e*) Spaniel, No. 3.	(*k*) Spaniel gentle or comforter, No. 8.	(*a*) Shepherd's dog, No. 9.	(*a*) Wappe, No. 16.
(*a*) Terrier. See No. 12.	(*d*) Gaze-hound, No. 1.	(*h*) Setter, No. 4.		(*b*) Maſtiff, or ban dog, No. 15.	(*b*) Turnſpit, No. 13.
(*b*) Harrier, No. 6.	(*e*) Grey-hound, No. 5.	(*i*) Water Spaniel or Finder, No. 2.			(*c*) Dancer, No. 10.
(*c*) Bloodhound No. 11.	(*f*) Leviner, No. 7.				
	(*g*) Tumbler, No. 14.				

1. CANIS FAMILIARIS AGASÆUS, the gaze-hound, was amazingly ſwift and quick-ſighted. It chaced indifferently the fox, hare, or buck. It would ſelect from the herd the fatteſt and faireſt deer; purſue it by the eye; and, if loſt, recover it by its ſingular diſtinguiſhing faculty; nay, ſhould he rejoin the herd, this dog would fix unerringly on the ſame. This ſpecies is now loſt, or at leaſt unknown to us.

2. CANIS F. AQUATICUS, or finder, was uſed in fowling; was the ſame with our water ſpaniel; and was uſed to find or recover the game that was ſhot.

3. CANIS F. HISPANIOLUS, the ſpaniel. From the name it may be ſuppoſed that we were indebted to Spain for this breed. There were two varieties of this kind; the firſt uſed to ſpring the game, which are the ſame with our ſtarters. The other variety was uſed only for the net and was called

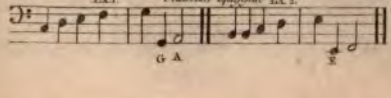
4. CANIS F. INDEX, or the ſetter; a kind well known at preſent. This kingdom has been long remarkable for producing dogs of this ſort, particular care having been taken to preſerve the breed in the utmoſt purity. They are ſtill diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Engliſh ſpaniels*; ſo that, notwithſtanding the derivation of the name, it is probable they are natives of Great Britain.

5. CANIS F. LEPORARIUS, the grey-hound. Dr Caius informs us, that it takes its name *quod præcipui gradus ſit inter canes*, the firſt in rank among dogs. That it was formerly eſteemed ſo, appears from the foreſt laws of king Canute, who enacted that no one under the degree of a *gentleman* ſhould preſume to keep a grey-hound; and ſtill more ſtrongly from an old Welſh ſaying which ſignifies, that "you may know a gentleman by his hawk, his horſe, and his grey-hound: diſtinctions, after all, of no great merit. The variety called the *Highland grey-hound*, and now become very ſcarce, is of very great ſize, ſtrong, deep-cheſted, and covered with long rough hair. This kind was much eſteemed in former days, and uſed in great numbers by the powerful chieftains in their magnificent hunting matches. It had as ſagacious noſtrils as the blood-hound, and was as fierce.

6. CANIS F. LEVERARIUS, the harrier, is a ſpecies well known at preſent: it derives its name from its uſe, that of hunting the hare.

7. CANIS F. LEVINARIUS, or LORARIUS: the leviner or lyemmer; the firſt name is derived from the lightneſs of the kind; the other from the old

Shepherds Dog.
Pomeranian Dog.
Siberian Dog.
Greyhound.
Irish Greyhound.
Lesser.
The Fox.
Jackal Adive.
Zerda.
Striped Hyæna.
Spotted Hyæna.


Ex. 1. Cadenza Spiegata Ex. 2.
G A

barks; peculiar to England; the breed ſcarcer than it has been, ſince the barbarous cuſtom of bull-baiting has declined. There are ſeveral ſub-varieties, differing in ſize and colour.

32. CANIS F. POMERANUS, the Pomeranian or wolf dog of Buffon has long hairs on the head, erect ears, and the tail much curved upwards on the rump.

33. CANIS F. SAGAX, the ſagacious dog, or German hound, has pendulous ears, and a dew-claw on each hind foot.

34. CANIS F. SCOTICUS, the blood-hound, or ſagacious Scotch dog of Geſner. See § 1. N. 11. and BLOOD-HOUND, § 2.

35. CANIS F. SIBERICUS, the Siberian dog, has erect ears, a curled up tail, and long hair on the whole body.

36. CANIS F. VARIEGATUS, the little Daniſh dog, has ſmall half pendulous ears, a ſmall pointed noſe, and thin legs.

37. CANIS F. VENATICUS, the *leit-hund* of Ridinger. Mr Kerr ſays he is "uncertain what particular variety of hound is here meant, as no deſcription of it is given by Dr Gmelin;" whom Mr Kerr chiefly follows in his *Animal Kingdom*.

38—40. CANIS F. VERTEGUS, the turnſpit, or VERSATOR of Caius, (§ 1. N. 13.) has ſhort legs and a long body, which is moſtly ſpotted. Mr Kerr mentions 3 ſub-varieties of this kind; viz.

a, CANIS. F. VERTEGUS RECTUS, with ſtraight legs:

b. CANIS F. VERTEGUS VALGUS, with crooked legs; and

c. CANIS F. VERTEGUS VILLOSUS, with long ſhaggy hair.

vii. CANIS HYÆNA has a ſtraight jointed tail, with the hair of its neck erect, ſmall naked ears, and four toes on each foot. It inhabits Aſiatic Turky, Syria, Perſia, and Barbary. Like the jackal, it violates the repoſitories of the dead, and greedily devours the putrid contents of the grave; like it, preys on the herds and flocks; yet for want of other food, will eat the roots of plants, and the tender ſhoots of the palms: but, contrary to the nature of the former, it is an unſociable animal; is ſolitary, and inhabits the chaſms of the rocks. The ſuperſtitious Arabs, when they kill one, carefully bury the head, leſt it ſhould be employed for magical purpoſes; as the neck was of old by the Theſſalian ſorcereſs. (*Lucan.* vi. 672.) The ancients were wild in their opinion of the hyæna; they believed that its neck conſiſted of one bone without any joint; that it changed its ſex; imitated the human voice; had the power of charming the ſhepherds, and, as it were, rivetting them to the place they ſtood on: no wonder that an ignorant Arab ſhould attribute preternatural powers to its remains. They are cruel, fierce, and untameable animals, of a moſt malevolent aſpect; have a ſort of obſtinate courage, which will make them face ſtronger quadrupeds than themſelves. Kæmpfer relates, that he ſaw one which had put two lions to flight, regarding them with the utmoſt coolneſs. Their voice is hoarſe, a diſagreeable mixture of growling and roaring. Mr Kerr mentions two varieties: viz.

1. CANIS HYÆNA ÆTHIOPICUS, the Abyſſinian Hyæna. "The tail is buſhy and the body is marked with curved ſtripes. It inhabits the N. E. of Africa. Whether this animal (ſays Mr Kerr) as deſcribed and figured by Mr Bruce, be a diſtinct ſpecies, I do not pretend to determine. In magnitude, ferocity, and manners, it reſembles the following ſpecies;" (N. 2.) "but its body, which is of a yelloviſh brown colour, is marked with curved ſtripes of black, in form of a reverſed Italian *ſ*; the muzzle is black; the legs are ſtriped acroſs with black, and the buſhy tail is of a reddiſh brown colour."

2. CANIS HYÆNA CROCUTA, the SPOTTED HYÆNA, is thus deſcribed by Mr Pennant. It has a large and flat head; ſome long hairs above each eye; very long whiſkers on each ſide of the noſe; a ſhort black mane; hair on the body ſhort and ſmooth; ears ſhort and a little pointed, their outſide black, inſide cinereous; face and upper part of the head black; body and limbs reddiſh brown, marked with diſtinct black round ſpots; the hind legs with black tranſverſe bars; the tail thick, black and full of hair. It inhabits Guinea, Ethiopia, and the Cape: lives in holes in the earth, or cliffs of the rocks; preys by night; howls horribly; breaks into the folds, and kills two or three ſheep; devours as much as it can, and carries away one for a future repaſt; will attack mankind, ſcrape open graves, and devour the dead. Boſman has given this creature the name of *jackal*; by which Buffon being miſled, makes it ſynonymous with the common jackal. This hyæna is called the TIGER-WOLF by the coloniſts at the Cape, where it is a very common and formidable beaſt of prey. Of this animal, formerly but imperfectly known, the following account is given by Dr Sparmann in his voyage to the Cape. "The night or the duſk of the evening only, is the time in which theſe animals ſeek their prey, after which they are uſed to roam about both ſeparately and in flocks. But one of the moſt unfortunate properties of this creature is, that it cannot keep its own counſel. The language of it cannot eaſily be taken down upon paper; however, with a view to make this ſpecies of wolf better known than it has been hitherto, I ſhall obſerve, that it is by means of a ſound ſomething like the following, *aauae*, and ſometimes *coae*, yelled out with a tone of deſpair (at the interval of ſome minutes between each howl,) that nature obliges this, the moſt voracious animal in all Africa, to diſcover itſelf, juſt as it does the moſt venomous of all the American ſerpents, by the rattle in its tail, itſelf, to warn every one to avoid its mortal bite. This ſame rattle-ſnake would ſeem, in conſequence of this betraying its own deſigns, and of its great inactivity (to be as it were nature's ſtep-child,) if, according to many credible accounts, it had not the wondrous property of charming its prey by fixing its eye upon it. The like is affirmed alſo of the tiger-wolf. This creature, it is true, is obliged to give information againſt itſelf; but on the other hand, is actually poſſeſſed of the peculiar gift of being enabled, in ſome meaſure, to imitate the cries of other animals; by which means this arch deceiver is ſometimes lucky enough to beguile and attract calves, foals, lambs, and other animals. Near ſome of the larger farms, where there is a great deal of cattle, this ravenous beaſt is to be found

CANIS. Plate LIV.

American Mce.

CANCER.

CANEROMA COCHLEARIA.

CAIRNS.

white, ſhorter and more buſhy than that of the common fox, to which it is about one third ſuperior in ſize. It has much the habit of the wolf, in ears, tail, and ſtrength of limbs. Hence the French name, *loup-renard*, or wolf-fox. It may be a wolf degenerated by climate. The largeſt are thoſe of Senegal: the next are the European: thoſe of North America are ſtill ſmaller. The Mexican wolves, (N° xiii.) which Mr Pennant apprehends to be this ſpecies, are again leſs; and this, which inhabits the Falkland iſles, near the extremity of South America, is dwindled to the ſize deſcribed. This is the only land animal of thoſe diſtant iſles: it has a fetid ſmell, and barks like a dog. It lives near the ſhores; kennels like a fox; and forms regular paths from bay to bay, probably for the conveniency of ſurpriſing the water-fowl, on which it lives. It is at times very meagre, from want of prey; and is extremely tame. The iſlands were probably ſtocked with thoſe animals by means of maſſes of ice broken from the continent, and carried by the currents.

ix. CANIS KARAGAN, or DESERT FOX, is thus deſcribed by Mr Kerr: "The tail is ſtraight; the body is of a grey colour, and the ears are black. It inhabits the deſerts belonging to the Kalmucks and Kirgiſes."

x. CANIS LAGOPUS, the arctic fox, has a ſharp noſe; ſhort rounded ears, almoſt hid in the fur; long and ſoft hair, ſomewhat woolly; ſhort legs; toes covered on all parts, like that of a common hare, with fur; tail ſhort and more buſhy than that of the common fox, of a blueiſh grey or aſh colour, ſometimes white: the young of the grey are black before they come to maturity: the hair much longer in winter than ſummer, as is uſual with animals of cold climates. It inhabits the countries bordering on the Frozen Sea; Kamſchatka; the iſles between it and America, and the oppoſite parts of America diſcovered in captain Bering's expedition, in 1741; and is found in Greenland, Iceland, Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, and Lapland. It burrows under ground, forms holes many feet in length, and ſtrews the bottom with moſs. In Greenland and Spitzbergen it lives in the clefts of rocks, not being able to burrow, by reaſon of the froſt: 2 or 3 pair inhabit the ſame hole. They are in heat about Lady-day; and during that time they continue in the open air, but afterwards take to their holes. They go with young 9 weeks: like dogs, they continue united in copulation: they bark like that animal, for which reaſon the Ruſſians call them *peſeti*, or dogs. They have all the cunning of the common fox; prey on geeſe, ducks and other water fowl, before they can fly; on grouſe, hares, and the eggs of birds; and in Greenland (through neceſſity) on berries, ſhell fiſh, or any thing the ſea throws up. But their principal food in the N. of Aſia and in Lapland is the leming, or Lapland marmot: thoſe of the countries laſt mentioned are very migratory, purſuing the leming, which is a wandering animal: ſometimes theſe foxes will deſert the country for 3 or 4 years, probably in purſuit of their prey; for it is well known that the migrations of the leming very inconſtant, it appearing in ſome countries nce in ſeveral years. The people of Jeneſea they go to the banks of the Oby. Their chief rendezvous is on the banks of the Frozen Sea, and the rivers that flow into it, where they are found in great troops. The Greenlanders take them either in pitfalls dug in the ſnow, and baited with the capelin fiſh; or in ſprings made with whalebone, laid over a hole made in the ſnow, ſtrewed over at bottom with the ſame kind of fiſh; or in traps made like little huts, with flat ſtones, with a broad one by way of door, which falls down (by means of a ſtring baited on the inſide with a piece of fleſh) whenever the fox enters and pulls at it. The Greenlanders preſerve the ſkins for traffic; and in caſes of neceſſity eat the fleſh. They alſo make buttons of the ſkins: and ſplit the tendons, and make uſe of them inſtead of thread. Mr Kerr mentions two varieties: viz.

1. CANIS LAGOPUS ALBUS, the ISATIS, or white arctic fox: and

2. CANIS LAGOPUS CÆRULESCENS, the bluiſh arctic fox. The furs of theſe are more eſteemed than thoſe of the white.

xi. 1. CANIS LUPUS. the WOLF, has a long head, pointed noſe, ears erect and ſharp, long legs well clothed with hair; tail buſhy and bending down, with the tip black; head and neck aſh coloured; body generally pale brown tinged with yellow, ſometimes found white, and ſometimes entirely black. The wolf is larger and fiercer than a dog. His eyes ſparkle, and there is a great degree of fury and wildneſs in his looks. He draws up his claws when he walks, to prevent his tread from being heard. His neck is ſhort, but admits of very quick motion to either ſide. His teeth are large and ſharp; and his bite is terrible, as his ſtrength is great. The wolf, cruel, but cowardly and ſuſpicious, flies from man; and ſeldom ventures out of the woods, except preſſed by hunger: but when this becomes extreme, he braves danger, and will attack men, horſes, dogs, and cattle of all kinds; even the graves of the dead are no proof againſt his rapacity. Unlike the dog, he is an enemy to all ſociety, and keeps no company even with thoſe of his own ſpecies. When ſeveral wolves appear together, it is not a ſociety of peace, but of war; it is attended with tumult and dreadful prowlings, and indicates an attack upon ſome large animal, as a ſtag, an ox, or a formidable maſtiff. This military expedition is no ſooner finiſhed than they ſeparate, and each returns in ſilence to his ſolitude. There is even little intercourſe between the males and females: they feel the mutual attractions of love but once a year, and never remain long together. The females come in ſeaſon in winter: many males follow the ſame female; and this aſſociation is more bloody than the former; for they growl, claſh, fight, and tear one another, and often ſacrifice him that is preferred by the female. The female commonly flies a long time, fatigues her admirers, and retires while they ſleep, with the moſt ardent or moſt favourite male. The ſeaſon of love continues only 12 or 15 days; it commences with the oldeſt females; the young ones are not ſo early diſpoſed. The males have no marked period, but are equally ready at all times. They go from female to female, according as they are in a condition to receive them. They begin with the old females about the end of December, and finiſh

with the young ones in February or beginning of March. The time of geſtation is about 3½ months; and young whelps are found from the end of April to the month of July. The wolves copulate like the dogs, and have an oſſeous penis, ſurrounded with a ring, which ſwells and hinders them from ſeparating. When the females are about to bring forth they ſearch for a concealed place in the inmoſt receſſes of the foreſt. After fixing on the ſpot, they make it ſmooth and plain for a conſiderable ſpace, by cutting and tearing up with their teeth all the brambles and bruſh-wood. They then bring great quantities of moſs, and prepare a commodious bed for their young, which are generally 5 or 6, though ſometimes they bring forth 7, 8, and even 9, but never leſs than three. They come into the world blind, like the dogs; the mother ſuckles them ſome weeks, and ſoon learns them to eat fleſh, which ſhe prepares for them by tearing it into ſmall pieces. Some time after ſhe brings them ſield mice, young hares, partridges, and other fowls. The young wolves begin by playing with theſe animals, and at laſt worry them; then the mother pulls off the feathers, tears them in pieces, and gives a part to each of her young. They never leave their den till the end of ſix weeks or two months. They then follow their mother, who leads them to drink in the hollow trunk of a tree, or in ſome neighbouring pool. She conducts them back to the den, or, when any danger is apprehended, obliges them to conceal themſelves elſewhere. Though, like other females, the ſhe wolf is naturally more timid than the male; yet when her young are attacked, ſhe defends them with intrepidity; ſhe loſes all ſenſe of danger, and becomes perfectly furious. She never leaves them till their education is finiſhed, till they are ſo ſtrong as to need no aſſiſtance or protection, and have acquired talents fit for rapine, which generally happens in 10 or 12 months after their firſt teeth (which commonly fall out in the firſt month) are replaced. Wolves acquire their full growth at the end of 2 or 3 years, and live 15 or 20 years. When old, they turn whitiſh, and their teeth are much worn. When full, or fatigued, they ſleep, but more during the day than the night, and it is always a kind of ſlight ſlumber. They drink often; and, in the time of drought, when there is no water in the hollows, or in the trunks of old trees, they repair, ſeveral times in a day, to the brooks or rivulets. Though extremely voracious, if ſupplied with water, they can paſs 4 or 5 days without meat. The wolf has great ſtrength, eſpecially in the anterior parts of the body, in the muſcles of the neck and jaws. He carries a ſheep in his mouth, and, at the ſame time, outruns the ſhepherd; ſo that he can only be ſtopped or deprived of his prey by dogs. His bite is cruel, and always more obſtinate in proportion to the ſmallneſs of the reſiſtance; for when an animal can defend itſelf, he is cautious and circumſpect. He never fights but from neceſſity, and not from motives of courage. When wounded with a ball, he cries; and yet, when diſpatching him with bludgeons, he complains not. When he falls into a ſnare, he is ſo overcome with terror, that he may either be killed or taken alive without reſiſtance: he allows himſelf to be chained, muzzled, and led any where, without exhibiting the leaſt ſymptom of reſentment or diſcontent. The ſenſes of the wolf are excellent, but particularly his ſenſe of ſmelling, which often extends farther than his eye. The odour of carrion ſtrikes him at the diſtance of more than a league. He likewiſe ſcents live animals very far, and hunts them a long time by following their tract. When he iſſues from the wood, he never loſes the wind. He ſtops upon the borders of the foreſt, ſmells on all ſides, and receives the emanations of living or dead animals brought to him from a diſtance by the wind. Though he gives the preference to living animals; yet he devours the moſt putrid carcaſes. He is fond of human fleſh; and, if ſtronger, he would perhaps eat no other. Wolves have been known to follow armies, to come in troops to the field of battle, where bodies are careleſsly interred, to tear them up, and to devour them with an inſatiable avidity. And, when once accuſtomed to human fleſh, theſe wolves ever after attack men, prefer the ſhepherd to the flock, devour women, and carry off children. Wolves of this vicious diſpoſition are called *Loups garoux* by the French peaſants, who ſuppoſe them to be poſſeſſed with ſome evil ſpirits; and of this nature were the *were wulfs* of the old Saxons. The wolf inhabits the continents of Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America; Kamtſchatka, and even as high as the arctic circle. The wolves of North America are the ſmalleſt; and, when reclaimed, are the dogs of the natives: the wolves of Senegal are the largeſt and fierceſt; they prey in company with the lion. Thoſe of the Cape are grey ſtriped with black; others are black. They are found in Africa as low as the Cape; and are believed to inhabit New Holland, animals reſembling them having been ſeen there by the late circumnavigators. Dampier's people alſo ſaw ſome half-ſtarved animals in the ſame country, which they ſuppoſed to be wolves. In the eaſt, and particularly in Perſia, wolves are exhibited as ſpectacles to the people. When young, they are learned to dance, or rather to perform a kind of wreſtling with a number of men. Chardin tells us, that a wolf, well educated in dancing, is ſold at 500 French crowns. This fact proves, that theſe animals, by time and reſtraint, are ſuſceptible of ſome kind of education. M. Buffon brought up ſeveral of them: "When young, or during the firſt year, (he informs us,) they are very docile, and even careſſing; and, if well fed, neither diſturb the poultry nor any other animal: but, at the age of 18 months or two years, their natural ferocity appears, and they muſt be chained, to prevent them from running off and doing miſchief. I brought up one till the age of 18 or 19 months, in a court along with fowls, none of which he ever attacked; but, for his firſt eſſay, he killed the whole in one night, without eating any of them. Another, having broken his chain, run off, after killing a dog with whom he had lived in great familiarity." Whole countries are ſometimes obliged to arm, in order to deſtroy the wolves. See HUNTING. Wolves are now ſo rare in the populated parts of America, that the inhabitants leave their ſheep the whole night unguarded: yet the governments of Pennſylvania and New

Jerſey ſome years ago allowed a reward of 20 ſh. and the laſt even 30 ſh. for the killing of every wolf. Tradition informed them what a ſcourge thoſe animals had been to the colonies; ſo they wiſely determined to prevent the like evil. In their infant ſtate, wolves came down in multitudes from the mountains, often attracted by the ſmell of the corpſes of hundreds of Indians who died of the ſmall-pox, brought among them by the Europeans: but the animals did not confine their depredations to the dead, but even devoured in their huts the ſick and dying ſavages. Beſides being hunted, wolves are deſtroyed by pitfalls, traps, or poiſon. A peaſant in France who kills a wolf, carries its head from village to village, and collects ſome ſmall reward from the inhabitants: the Kirghis-Coſſacks take the wolves by the help of a large hawk called *berkut*, which is trained for the diverſion, and will faſten on them and tear out their eyes. Britain, a few centuries ago, was much infeſted by them. It was, as appears by Hollingſhed, very noxious to the flocks in Scotland in 1577; nor was it entirely extirpated till about 1680, when the laſt wolf fell by the hand of the famous Sir Ewen Cameron. We may therefore with confidence aſſert the non-exiſtence of theſe animals, in our iſland, notwithſtanding Buffon maintains that the Engliſh pretend to the contrary. It has been a received opinion, that the other parts of theſe kingdoms were in early times delivered from this peſt by the care of king Edgar. In England he attempted to effect it, by commuting the puniſhments of certain crimes into the acceptance of a certain number of wolves tongues from each criminal; and in Wales by converting the tax of gold and ſilver into an annual tax of 300 wolves heads. But, notwithſtanding theſe his endeavours, and the aſſertions of ſome authors, his ſcheme proved abortive. We find, that ſome centuries after the reign of that monarch, theſe animals were increaſed to ſuch a degree as to become again the object of royal attention; accordingly Edward I. iſſued out his royal mandate to Peter Corbet to ſuperintend and aſſiſt in the deſtruction of them in the ſeveral counties of Glouceſter, Worceſter, Hereford, Salop, and Stafford; and in the adjacent county of Derby, (as Camden, p. 902, informs us,) certain perſons at Wormhill held their lands by the duty of hunting and taking the wolves that infeſted the country, whence they were ſtyled *wolvae-hunt*. Farther back, in Athelſtan's reign, wolves abounded ſo much in Yorkſhire, that a retreat was built at Flixton in that county, "to defend paſſengers from the wolves, that they ſhould not be devoured by them:" and ſuch ravages did thoſe animals make during winter, particularly in January, when the cold was ſevereſt, that the Saxons diſtinguiſhed that month by the name of the WOLF MONTH. They alſo called an outlaw *wolf's-head*, as being out of the protection of the law, proſcribed, and as liable to be killed as that deſtructive beaſt. Ireland was infeſted by wolves for many centuries after their extinction in England; for there are accounts of ſome being found there as late as 1710, the laſt preſentment for killing of wolves being made in the county of Cork about that time. In many parts of Sweden the number of wolves has been conſiderably diminiſhed by placing poiſoned carcaſes in their way: but in other places they are found in great multitudes. Hunger ſometimes compels them to eat lichens: theſe vegetables were found in the body of one killed by a ſoldier; but it was ſo weak, that it could ſcarcely move. It probably had fed on the lathyrus vulpinus, which is a known poiſon to theſe animals. Madneſs, in certain years, is apt to ſeize the wolf. The conſequences are often very melancholy. Mad wolves will bite hogs and dogs, and the laſt again the human ſpecies. In a ſingle pariſh 14 perſons were victims to this dreadful malady. The ſymptoms are the ſame with thoſe attendant on the bite of a mad dog. Fury ſparkles in their eyes; a glutinous ſaliva diſtils from their mouths; they carry their tails low, and bite indifferently men and beaſts. It is remarkable that this diſeaſe happens in the depth of winter, ſo can never be attributed to the rage of the dog-days. Often, towards ſpring, wolves get upon the ice of the ſea, to prey on the young ſeals, which they catch aſleep: but this repaſt often proves fatal to them; for the ice, detached from the ſhore, carries them to a great diſtance from land, before they are ſenſible of it. In ſome years a large diſtrict is by this means delivered from theſe pernicious beaſts; which are heard howling in a moſt dreadful manner, far in the ſea. When wolves come to make their attack on cattle, they never fail attempting to frighten away the men by their cries; but the ſound of the horn makes them fly like lightning. There is nothing valuable in the wolf but his ſkin, which makes a warm durable fur. His fleſh is ſo bad, that it is rejected with abhorrence by all other quadrupeds: and no animal but a wolf will voluntarily eat a wolf. The ſmell of his breath is exceedingly offenſive. As, to appeaſe hunger, he ſwallows indiſcriminately every thing he can find, corrupted fleſh, bones, hair, ſkins half tanned and covered with lime, he vomits frequently, and empties himſelf oftener than he fills. In fine, the wolf is conſummately diſagreeable; his aſpect is baſe and ſavage, his voice dreadful, his odour inſupportable, his diſpoſition perverſe, his manners ferocious; odious and deſtructive when living, and, when dead, he is perfectly uſeleſs, except the fur. Mr Kerr enumerates other 4 varieties of this ſpecies: viz.

"2. CANIS LUPUS ALBUS, the white wolf, found near the Jeniſea, in the eaſtern parts of Aſiatic Ruſſia. It is much valued on account of its fur.

"3. CANIS LUPUS FASCIATUS, the ſtriped wolf. It is of a grey colour ſtriped with black, and inhabits the Cape of Good Hope.

"4. CANIS LUPUS FLAVUS, the yellow wolf, found in France and Germany, having a thicker fur and more yellow colour than the common kind. It is more wild, but leſs deſtructive, as it never troubles the flocks, or the habitations of men.

"5. CANIS LUPUS NIGER, the black wolf. This variety inhabits Canada, and is of a uniform black colour. It is not ſo large as the common kind; the ears are larger, more erect and more diſtant, but in every other circumſtance it reſembles the common European wolf.

"XII. CANIS MESOMELAS, the CARESCU of Schre-

er, the TENLIE, or *Lonlie*, of the Hottentots, or CAPE JACKAL, has erect yellowish brown ears, lined with a few scattered black hairs: the head is of a yellowish brown, mixed with black and white, growing darker towards the hind part: the legs are of a light brown, varied with dusky hairs: the body and also the back part of the legs are of yellowish brown, lightest on the body; the throat, neck, and belly white. On the neck, shoulders, and back, is a band of black; broad on the shoulders, and growing narrower to the tail: when the hairs are smooth, the part on the neck seems barred with white; that on the shoulders with white oval marks, one within the other, the end pointing to the back: when the hairs are ruffled, these marks vanish, or grow less distinct, and a hoariness appears in their stead. The tail is bushy, of a yellowish brown; marked on the upper part with a longitudinal stripe of black, and towards the end encircled with two rings of black, and is tipt with white. In length, the animal is 2½ feet, to the origin of the tail: the tail is one foot. It inhabits the countries about the Cape of Good Hope, and probably is found as high as the line.

viii. 1. CANIS MEXICANUS, has a smooth tail, bent downwards. The body is ash coloured, varied with dusky stripes and tawny spots, on the forehead, neck, breast, belly, and tail. Its head is large, and neck thick. It has great jaws and strong teeth. Above its mouth are bristles as long, but not so hard, as the spines of a hedge-hog. Seba calls it the QUAUHPECOTLI, or mountain cat; and Hernandes stiles it the XOLOITZINTLI, or Mexican wolf. It inhabits the warm parts of Mexico and New Spain, and agrees with the European wolf in its manners; whence it is also called LUPUS, though ranked as a different species. Mr Kerr mentions another variety, viz.

2. CANIS MEXICANUS ALBUS, the white Mexican wolf; agreeing in every thing with the preceding except that it is uniformly white.

ix. CANIS THOUS, or the Surinam wolf, has a smooth tail bent downwards. The body is grey on the upper and white on the under parts. Its face has a wart over each eye, on each cheek and under the throat. It is about the size of a large cat; and, according to Linnæus, is found at Surinam. It is mentioned also by Mr Pennant. Mr Kerr says, its tongue is fringed at the sides.

x. CANIS VIRGINIANUS, the GREY FOX, of Catesby, &c. has a sharp nose; sharp, long, upright ears; legs long; colour grey, except a little redness about the ears. It inhabits Carolina, and the warmer parts of North America: It differs from the arctic fox in form, and the nature of its woolling agrees with the common fox in the first, it varies from it in the last: It never burrows, but lives in hollow trees; it gives no diversion to the sportsman; for after a male's chace, it takes to its retreat; it has no strong smell; it feeds on poultry, birds, &c. These foxes are easily made tame; their skins, when in season, are used for muffs.

xvi. 1. CANIS VULPES, the FOX, has a straight tail, white at the point. His body is yellowish, or rather straw-coloured; his ears are small and erect; his lips are whitish, and his fore feet black. From the base of the tail a strong scent is emitted, which to some people is very fragrant, and to others extremely disagreeable. The fox is a native of almost every quarter of the globe, and is of such a wild and savage nature, that it is impossible fully to tame him. He is esteemed to be the most sagacious and the most crafty of all beasts of prey. The former quality he shows in his method of providing himself with an asylum, where he retires from pressing dangers, dwells, and brings up his young: and his craftiness is chiefly discovered by the schemes he falls upon to catch lambs, geese, hens, and all kinds of small birds. The fox fixes his abode on the border of the wood, in the neighbourhood of cottages: he listens to the crowing of the cocks and the cries of the poultry. He scents them at a distance; he chooses his time with judgment; he conceals his road as well as his design; he slips forward with caution, sometimes even trailing his body, and seldom makes a fruitless expedition. If he can leap the wall, or get in underneath, he ravages the court yard, puts all to death, and then retires softly with his prey, which he either hides under the herbage, or carries off to his kennel. He returns in a few minutes for another, which he carries off, or conceals in the same manner, but in a different place. In this way he proceeds till the progress of the sun, or some movements in the house, advertise him that it is time to retire to his den. He plays the same game with the catchers of thrushes, woodcocks, &c. He visits the nets and bird-lime very early in the morning, carries off successively the birds which are entangled, and lays them in different places, especially near the sides of highways, in the furrows, under the herbage or bruthwood, where they sometimes lie 2 or 3 days; but he knows perfectly where to find them when he is in need. He hunts the young hares in the plains, seizes old ones in their seats, never misses those which are wounded, digs out the rabbits in the warrens, discovers the nests of partridges and quails, seizes the mothers on the eggs, and destroys a vast quantity of game. The fox is exceedingly voracious; besides flesh of all kinds, he eats, with equal avidity, eggs, milk, cheese, fruits, and particularly grapes. When the young hares and partridges fail him, he makes war against rats, field mice, serpents, lizards, toads, &c. Of these he destroys vast numbers; and this is the only service he does to mankind. He is so fond of honey, that he attacks the wild bees, wasps, and hornets. They at first put him to flight by a thousand stings; but he retires only for the purpose of rolling himself on the ground to crush them; and he returns so often to the charge, that he obliges them to abandon the hive, which he soon uncovers, and devours both the honey and wax. In a word, he eats fish, lobsters, grass-hoppers, &c. The fox is not easily, and never fully tamed: he languishes when deprived of liberty; and, if kept too long in a domestic state, he dies of chagrin. Foxes produce but once a year; and the litter commonly consists of 4 or 5, seldom 6, and never less than 3. When the female is full, she retires, and seldom goes out of her hole, where she prepares a bed for her young. She comes in season in the winter; and young foxes are found in the month of April. When she perceives that her retreat is discovered, and that

that her young have been disturbed, she carries them off one by one, and goes in search of another habitation. The young are brought forth blind; like the dogs, they grow 18 months, or two years, and live 13 or 14 years.—The senses of the fox are as good as those of the wolf; his sentiment is more delicate; and the organs of his voice are more pliant and perfect. The wolf sends forth only frightful howlings; but the fox barks, yelps, and utters a mournful cry like that of the peacock. He varies his tones according to the different sentiments with which he is affected: he has an accent peculiar to the chace, the tone of desire, of complaint, and of sorrow. He has another cry expressive of acute pain, which he utters only when he is shot, or has some of his members broken; for he never complains of any other wound, and, like the wolf, may be beat till he is killed with a bludgeon without complaining; but he always defends himself to the last with great courage and bravery. His bite is obstinate and dangerous; and the severest blows will hardly make him quit his hold. His yelping is a species of barking, and consists of a quick succession of similar tones; at the end of which he generally raises his voice similar to the cry of the peacock. In winter, particularly during frost, he yelps perpetually; but, in summer, he is almost entirely silent, and, during this season, he casts his hair. He sleeps sound, and may be easily approached without wakening: he sleeps in a round form, like the dog; but, when he only reposes himself, he extends his hind legs, and lies on his belly. It is in this situation that he spies the birds along the hedges, and meditates schemes for their surprise. The fox flies when he hears the explosion of a gun, or smells gun powder. He is exceedingly fond of grapes, and does much mischief in vineyards. Various methods are daily employed to destroy foxes: they are hunted with dogs; iron traps are frequently set at their holes; which are sometimes smoked to make them run out, that they may fall into the snares, or be killed by dogs or fire arms. The chace of the fox requires less apparatus, and is more amusing than that of the wolf. To the latter every dog has great reluctance: but all dogs hunt the fox spontaneously and with pleasure; for, though his odour be strong, they often prefer him to the stag or the hare. See HUNTING. Of all animals the fox has the most significant eye, by which it expresses every passion of love, fear, hatred, &c. He is remarkably playful; but, like all savage creatures half reclaimed, will on the least offence bite those he is most familiar with. He is a great admirer of his bushy tail, with which he frequently amuses and exercises himself, by running in circles to catch it: and in cold weather, wraps it round his nose. The smell of this animal is in general very strong, but that of the urine is remarkably fetid. This seems so offensive even to himself, that he will take the trouble of digging a hole in the ground, stretching his body at full length over it; and there, after depositing his water, cover it over with the earth, as the cat does its dung. The smell is so obnoxious, that it has often proved the means of the fox's escape from the dogs; who have so strong an aversion at the filthy effluvia, as to avoid encountering the animal it came from. It is said that the fox makes use of its urine as an expedient to force the cleanly badger from its habitation: whether that is the means, is rather doubtful; but that the fox makes use of the badger's hole is certain: not through want of ability to form its own retreat, but to save itself the trouble; for after the expulsion of the first inhabitant, the fox improves as well as enlarges it considerably, adding several chambers, and prudently making several entrances to secure a retreat from every quarter. In warm weather, it will quit its habitation for the sake of basking in the sun, or to enjoy the free air; but then it rarely lies exposed, but chooses some thick brake, that it may rest secure from surprize. Crows, magpies, and other birds, who consider the fox as their common enemy, will often, by their notes of danger, point out its retreat.—The skin of this animal is furnished with a warm soft fur, which in many parts of Europe is used to make muffs and to line clothes. Vast numbers are taken in the Vallais, and the Alpine parts of Switzerland. At Lausanne there are furriers who are often in possession of between 2000 and 3000 skins, all taken in one winter. There are several varieties of the fox, differing either in colour or form: viz.

2—4. CANIS VULPES ALOPEX, the brant fox, or field fox of Linnæus, considered by him as a distinct species, has a straight tail, with a black tip, and a blackish fur, thicker than that of the common kind. Mr Kerr says, it "inhabits Europe, Asia, and Chili, and is less frequent, smaller, and of a darker colour, than the common fox, to which it is very similar in all other respects." That described by Mr Pennant came from Pennsylvania. Authors do not seem properly agreed about the animal to which this name is given. At least the *coal fox* of Buffon and the *brant fox* of Pennant are considerably different, though quoted by Gmelin as synonimous." They are therefore added as sub varieties.

a. CANIS VULPES ALOPEX AMERICANUS, the brant fox, as described by Gesner and Linnæus, is of a fiery redness; and called by the Germans *brand fuchs*, by the Swiss *brandraef*; it is scarce less in the size of the common fox: the nose is black and much sharper; the space round the ears ferruginous; the forehead, back, shoulders, thighs, and sides black mixed with red, ash-colour, and black; the belly yellowish; the tail black above, red beneath, and cinereous on its side. It is a native of Pennsylvania.

b. CANIS VULPES ALOPEX EUROPÆUS, the CHARBONNIER, or coal fox of Buffon, has remarkably black feet and legs, and inhabits that part of France formerly called Burgundy. It is of a silver grey colour, and has the tail tipt with white.

5—7. CANIS VULPES BRITANNICUS. There are three sub-varieties of foxes found in the mountainous parts of Britain, which differ a little in form, but not in colour, from each other. They are distinguished in Wales by as many different names. *a.* The *milgi*, or *grey-hound fox*, is the largest, tallest, and boldest; and will attack a grown sheep or wedder: *b.* The *mastiff fox* is less, but more strongly built: *c.* The *cargi*, or *car fox* is the

less

ıfr; lurks about hedges, out-houſes, &c. and the moſt pernicious of the three to the feather-tribe. The firſt of theſe varieties has a white e or tip to the tail; the laſt a black. When ıuted, they never run directly forward, but make great many doublings and turnings; and when danger of being taken, they emit ſuch a ſmell om their poſteriors, that the hunters can hardly ıdure it.

8. CANIS VULPES CHILENSIS, inhabits Chili, d has a very long, ſtraight and ſmooth tail, with e tip of the ſame colour with the body.

9. CANIS VULPES CORSAC, the corſac fox, s upright ears, ſoft downy hair, tail buſhy, co-ur in ſummer pale tawney, in winter grey; the ıſe and tip of the tail black. It is ſmall and in-ıbits the deſarts beyond the Yaik: lives in holes, ›wls and barks, and is caught by the Kirgis hailſtacks with falcons and grey hounds: 40 or ›,000 are annually taken, and ſold to the Ruſſi-›, at the rate of 40 kopeiks, or 20 pence, each: ıe former uſe their ſkins inſtead of money: great ımbers are ſent into Turky.

10. CANIS VULPES CRUCIGERA, the croſs ›x, with a black mark paſſing tranſverſely from ıoulder to ſhoulder, and another along the back › the tail. It inhabits the coldeſt parts of Eu-›pe, Aſia, and North America: a valuable fur, ›icker and ſofter than the common ſort; great umbers of the ſkins are imported from Canada. Dr Gmelin does not take notice of this variety.

11. CANIS VULPES LYCAON, the black fox, is he moſt cunning of the genus, and its ſkin the moſt valuable; a lining of it is, in Ruſſia, eſteem-d preferable to the fineſt ſables: a ſingle ſkin will ll for 400 rubles. It inhabits the northern parts f Europe, Aſia, and North America. The laſt s inferior in goodneſs. Mr Kerr ſays "this ani-nal is exceedingly like the wolf, and is of an in-ermediate ſize between that animal and the fox. ſne colour is entirely black—ſometimes, how-ver, variegated by having the tips of the hairs of ſilvery whiteneſs. Dr Gmelin confounds this pecies of fox with the black wolf, § xi. N° 5.

(II.) CANIS CARCHARIAS, in ichthyology, a ame given by Rondeletius, and others, to the AMIA, or white ſhark.

(III.) CANIS MAJOR, the great dog, in aſtrono-ny, a conſtellation of the ſouthern hemiſphere, elow Orion's feet, though ſomewhat to the weſt-ard of him. See ASTRONOMY, § 548.

(IV.) CANIS MINOR, the little dog, in aſtrono-ny, a conſtellation of the northern hemiſphere; alled alſo by the Greeks, *Procyon*, and by the atins *Antecanis* and *Canicula*. See ASTRONO-MY, § 548.

(V.) CANIS VOLANS, in zoology, a ſpecies of at, diſtinguiſhed by Linnæus by the name of *eſpertilio cauda nulla*, the bat without a tail. See VESPERTILIO.

CANISBAY, a pariſh of Scotland, in Caith-neſs-ſhire, the moſt northern land in Britain, con-taining an extent of above 50 ſquare miles. It is moſtly level ground. The climate is variable, but very healthy. The aurora borealis is often ſeen in great brilliancy, exhibiting the moſt vivid corruſ-cations. The population, in 1793, as ſtated by the rev. Dr Moriſon, in his report to Sir J. Sin-clair, was 1950, and had increaſed 469, ſince 1755. The number of ſheep was 2000, but the pariſh could feed a vaſt number more. It abounds in excellent lime-ſtone and free-ſtone. JOHN O'GROAT'S HOUSE is ſituated in it. The ſhores of Caniſbay are exceedingly valuable; yielding a-bout 100 tons of kelp in a favourable ſeaſon. There are about 60 fiſhing boats around the coaſt, and fiſh of all kinds are very abundant, particu-larly lobſters. Lon. 2. 0. W. Lat. 58. 45. N.

CANISIUS, Henry, a native of Nimeguen, and one of the moſt learned men of his time, was pro-feſſor of canon law at Ingolſtadt; and wrote a great number of books; the principal of which are, 1. *Summa Juris Canonici*. 2. *Antiquæ lectiones*, a very valuable work. He died in 1609.

* CANISTER. *n. ſ.* [*caniſtrum*, Lat.] 1. A ſmall baſket.—

White lilies in full *caniſters* they bring,
With all the glories of the purple ſpring.
Dryden.

2. A ſmall veſſel in which any thing, ſuch as tea or coffee, is laid up.

CANITZ, the baron of, a German poet and ſtateſman, of an illuſtrious family in Brandenburg; born at Berlin in 1654, 5 months after his father's death. He travelled to France, Italy, Hol-land, and England; and upon his return, was charged with important negociations by Frederic II. and Frederic III. Canitz was converſant in many languages, dead as well as living. His Ger-man poems were publiſhed for the 10th time, 1750, in 8vo. He is ſaid to have taken Horace for his model But he did not content himſelf with barely cultivating the fine arts himſelf; he gave all the encouragement he could to them in others. He died at Berlin, in 1699, privy coun-ſellor of ſtate, aged 45.

CANK, or CANNOCK, a village in Staffordſhire, near Penkridge.

CANKEDORT, *n. ſ. obſ.* a deplorable caſe. *Ch.*

(1.) * CANKER. *n. ſ.* [*cancer*, Lat. It ſeems to have the ſame meaning and original with *can-cer*, but to be accidentally written with a *k*, when it denotes bad qualities in a leſs degree; or, *can-ker* might come from *chancre*, Fr. and *cancer* from the Latin.] 1. A worm that preys upon and de-ſtroys fruits.—

And loathful idleneſs he doth deteſt,
The *canker* worm of every gentle breaſt. *Spenſer.*

—That which the locuſt hath left hath the *canker* worm eaten. *Joel*, i. 4.—

Yet writers ſay, as in the ſweeteſt bud
The eating *canker* dwells; ſo eating love
Inhabits in the fineſt wits of all. *Shakeſ.*

A huſſing, ſhining, flatt'ring, cringing coward,
A *canker* worm of peace, was rais'd above him.
Otway.

2. A fly that preys upon fruits.—There be of flies, caterpillars, *canker* flies, and bear flies. *Wal-ton's Angler.* 3. Any thing that corrupts or con-ſumes.—It is the *canker* and ruin of many men's eſtates, which, in proceſs of time, breeds a pub-lick poverty. *Bacon.*—Sacrilege may prove an eat-ing *canker*, and a conſuming moth, in the eſtate that we leave them. *Atterbury.*—

No

No longer live the *cankers* of my court;
All to your ſeveral ſtates with ſpeed reſort;
Waſte in wild riot what your land allows,
There ply the early feaſt, and late carouſe. *Pope.*

4. A kind of wild worthleſs roſe; the dogroſe.—

To put down Richard, that ſweet lovely roſe,
And plant this thorn, this *canker*, Bolingbroke.
Shakeſpeare.

—Draw a cherry with the leaf, the ſhaft of a ſteeple, a ſingle or *canker* roſe. *Peacham.* 5. An eating or corroding humour.—

I am not glad, that ſuch a ſore of time
Should ſeek a plaiſter by a contemn'd revolt,
And heal th' inveterate *canker* of one wound,
By making many. *Shakeſ.*

6. Corroſion; virulence.—

As with age his body uglier grows,
So his mind with *cankers*. *Shakeſ.*

7. A diſeaſe in trees. *Dict.*

(2.) CANKER, a diſeaſe incident to trees, proceeding chiefly from the nature of the ſoil. It makes the bark rot and fall. If the canker be in a bough, cut it off; in a large bough, at ſome diſtance from the ſtem; in a ſmall one, cloſe to it: but for over hot ſtrong ground, the ground is to be cooled about the roots with pond mud and cow dung.

(3.) CANKER, among farriers. See FARRIERY, *Index.*

(1.) * *To* CANKER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To corrupt; to corrode.—

Reſtore to God his due in tithe and time:
A tithe purloin'd, *cankers* the whole eſtate.
Herbert.

2. To infect; to pollute.—An honeſt man will enjoy himſelf better in a moderate fortune, that is gained with honour and reputation, than in an overgrown eſtate, that is *cankered* with the acquiſitions of rapine and exaction. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * *To* CANKER. *v. n.* 1. To grow corrupt: implying ſomething venomous and malignant.—

That cunning architect of *canker'd* guile,
Whom princes late diſpleaſure left in bands,
For falſed letters, and ſuborned wile. *F. Queen.*

I will lift the down trod Mortimer
As high i' th' air as this unthankful king,
As this ingrate and *canker'd* Bolingbroke. *Shakeſ.*

Or what the croſs dire looking planet ſmite,
Or hurtful worm with *canker'd* venom bite.
Milton.

To ſome new clime, or to thy native ſky,
Oh! friendleſs and forſaken virtue, fly:
The Indian air is deadly to thee grown;
Deceit and *canker'd* malice rule thy throne. *Dryd.*

Let envious jealouſy, and *canker'd* ſpright
Produce my actions to ſevereſt light,
And tax my open day, or ſecret night. *Prior.*

2. To decay by ſome corroſive or deſtructive principle.—Silvering will fully and *canker* more than gilding; which, if it might be corrected with a little mixture of gold, will be profitable. *Bacon.*

* CANKERBIT. *particip. adj.* [from *canker* and *bit.*] Bitten with an envenomed tooth.—

Know thy name is loſt;
By treaſon's tooth bareknawn and *cankerbit*.
Shakeſpeare.

CANKER-WORM. See SCARABÆUS.

CANLEY, a hamlet of Stoneley, Warwickſh.

(1.) CANNA, in botany, INDIAN FLOWERING REED; A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the monandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 8th order, Scitaminæ. The corolla is erect, and divided into 6 parts, with a diſtinct lip, bipartite and reflexed back; the ſtyle lanceolate, and growing to the corolla; the calyx is triphyllous. There are 5 ſpecies: viz.

1. CANNA COCCINEA, hath larger leaves than any of the other 4 ſpecies, and the ſtalks riſe much higher. The flowers are produced in large ſpikes, and are of a bright crimſon, or rather ſcarlet colour.

2. CANNA GLAUCA, with a very large flower, is a native of South America.

3. CANNA INDICA, or common broad-leaved flowering cane, is a native of both Indies; the habitants of the Britiſh iſlands in America call *Indian ſhot*, from the roundneſs and hardneſs of the ſeeds. It has a thick, fleſhy, tuberous root, which divides into many irregular knobs; it puts out many large oval leaves, without order. When their firſt appearance the leaves are like a tw horn; but afterwards expand, and are near long, and 5 inches broad in the middle: gradually to both ends, and terminating The ſtalks are herbaceous, riſing 4 feet high, are encompaſſed by the broad leafy foot-ſtalk the leaves; at the upper part of the ſtalk the ers are produced in looſe ſpikes, each being firſt covered with a leafy hood, and turning brown colour. The flowers are ſucceeded by ſule, oblong, rough, and crowned with the five-cornered empalement of the flower which remains. When the fruit is ripe, the capſule opens lengthwiſe into 3 cells, filled with round, ſmooth, hard, and black ſeeds.

4. CANNA LATIFOLIA, with a pale red flower, is a native of Carolina, and ſome other northern provinces of America.

5. CANNA LUTEA, with obtuſe oval leaves, leſs common in America than the other ſorts. Theſe plants muſt always be kept in pots of earth, to be moved to ſhelter in winter. They are propagated by ſeeds ſown on a hot-bed in ſpring; and in ſummer, when they are a little advanced in growth, prick them ſeparately into pots of rich earth, plunging them alſo in the bed, giving ſhade, water, and freſh air; to laſt harden them by degrees, till they bear it. In October they muſt be removed into a ſtove.

(II.) CANNA, in the ancient pharmacy and botany, denoted the *calamus aromaticus*, or, according to others, *caſſia fiſtula.*

(III.) CANNA likewiſe denotes a ſort of meaſure, otherwiſe called by modern authors CANE, by the Latins CALAMUS, and in Scripture a reed.

CANNA MAJOR, } names given by ſome writers
CANNA MINOR, } miſts to the greater and leſſer bones of the leg. See ANATOMY, § 157, and 158.

CANNABACEOUS, *adj.* hempen.

* CANNABINE. *adj.* [*cannabinus*, Lat.] Hempen.

CANNABIS, in botany, HEMP; A genus of the pentandria order, belonging to the

claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 53d order, Scabridæ. The calyx of the male is quinquepartite, with no corolla. In the female the calyx is monophyllous, entire, and gaping at the ſide; there is no corolla, but two ſtyles; the fruit is a nut, bivalved, within the cruſted calyx. Of this there is but one ſpecies, viz.

CANNABIS SATIVA. It is propagated in the rich fenny parts of Lincolnſhire in great quantities, for its bark, which is uſeful for cordage, cloth, &c. and the ſeeds abound with oil. Hemp is always ſown on a deep, moiſt, rich, ſoil, ſuch as is found in Holland, Lincolnſhire, and the fens of the iſland of Ely, where it is cultivated to great advantage, as it might be in many other parts of England where there is a ſoil of the ſame kind; but it will not thrive on clayey or ſtiff cold land. The ground on which hemp is to be ſown, ſhould be well ploughed, and make very fine by harrowing. About the middle of April the ſeed may be ſown; buſhels is the uſual allowance for an acre, but two are ſufficient. In the choice of the ſeed, the heavieſt and brighteſt coloured ſhould be preferred; and particular care ſhould behad to the kernel of the ſeed. For the greater certainty in this matter ſome of the ſeeds ſhould be cracked, to ſee whether they have the germ or future plant perfect; for, in ſome places, the male plants are drawn out too ſoon from the female, *i. e.* before they have impregnated the female plants with the farina; in which caſe, though the ſeeds produced by theſe females may ſeem good to the eye, yet they will not grow; according to the doctrine of Linnæus. See BOTANY, § 63—76. When the plants are come up, they ſhould be hoed out in the ſame manner as turnips, leaving them two feet apart; obſerve alſo to cut down all the weeds, which, if well performed, and in dry weather, will deſtroy them. This crop, however, will require a ſecond hoeing, in about ſix weeks after the firſt; and, if this is well performed, the crop will require no further care. The firſt ſeaſon for pulling hemp is uſually about the middle of Auguſt, when they begin to pull what they call the *ſeed hemp*, being that which is compoſed of the male plants; but it would be much better to defer this for a fortnight or three weeks longer, until thoſe male plants have fully ſhed their farina or duſt, without which the ſeeds will prove only empty huſks. Theſe male plants decay ſoon after they have ſhed their farina. The ſecond pulling is a little after Michaelmas, when the ſeeds are ripe. This is uſually called *karle hemp*, and conſiſts of the female plants which were left. This karle hemp is bound in bundles of a yard compaſs, according to the ſtatute meaſure, which are laid in the ſun for a few days to dry; and then it is ſtacked up, or houſed to keep it dry till the ſeed can be threſhed out. An acre of hemp, on a rich ſoil, will produce near three quarters of ſeed, which, together with the unwrought hemp, is worth from L.6 to L.8. Hemp is eſteemed very effectual for deſtroying weeds; but this it accompliſhes by impoveriſhing the ground, and thus robbing them of their nouriſhment; ſo that a crop of it muſt not be repeated on the ſame ſpot. Some ſeeds of a large kind of hemp growing in China were lately ſent by the Eaſt India Company to the Society for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, who diſtributed them to the members, and other gentlemen who appeared likely to cultivate them; and from experiments made in conſequence, the plant has been found to ſucceed perfectly in this climate. The firſt trials were rather unpromiſing, the hemp produced from the foreign ſeeds proving of very little value. But the rev. Dr Hinton of Northwold, who made the above trial in 1736, having accidentally ſaved ſome ripe ſeeds of that crop, ſowed them in May 1738, on a ſpot of good land. They came up well, and attained as much perfection as ordinary hemp. The produce, when dreſſed, weighed at the rate of 95 ſt. 7 lb. 12 oz. per acre, being above 30 ſtone more, he ſays, than the uſual crops of hemp in that neighbourhood; and at the rate of 3 buſhels 2 pecks and half a pint of ſeed per acre were ſaved. Dr Hinton ſuppoſes that the ſeeds brought from China failed principally, if not entirely, by having been two years old, at which age hemp-ſeed ſeldom vegetates. Now that it is found to ripen with us, freſh ſeeds can always be obtained. It will yet, however, require a few years to determine whether this ſpecies will continue to retain its great ſize, or will degenerate and become the common hemp of Europe. From the leaves of hemp pounded and boiled in the water, the natives of the Eaſt Indies prepare an intoxicating liquor of which they are very fond. The plant when freſh, has a rank narcotic ſmell; the water in which the ſtalks are ſoaked in order to ſeparate the tough rind for mechanic uſes, is ſaid to be violently poiſonous, and to produce its effects almoſt as ſoon as drank. The ſeeds alſo have ſome ſmell of the herb, and their taſte is unctuous and ſweetiſh: they are recommended, boiled in milk, or triturated with water into an emulſion, againſt coughs, heat of urine, and the like. They are alſo ſaid to be uſeful in incontinence of urine, and for reſtraining venereal appetites; but experience does not warrant their having any virtues of that kind.

CANNACORUS, in botany, a ſynonime uſed by Tournefort, for the CANNA.

CANNÆ, in ancient geography, a town of Apulia, in the Adriatic, at the mouth of the river Aufidus, rendered famous by a terrible overthrow which the Romans received from the Carthaginians under Hannibal. The Roman conſuls Æmilius Paulus and Terentius Varro, being authorized by the ſenate to quit the defenſive plan, and take the chance of a battle, marched from Canuſium, and encamped a few miles eaſt, in two unequal diviſions, with the Auſidus between them. In this poſition they meant to wait for an opportunity of engaging to advantage; but Hannibal, whoſe critical ſituation in a deſolate country, without refuge or allies, could admit of no delay, found means to inflame the vanity of Varro by ſome trivial advantages in ſkirmiſhes between the light horſe. Varro, elated with this ſucceſs determined to bring matters to a ſpeedy concluſion. The Romans were vaſtly ſuperior in number to the Carthaginians; but the latter were ſuperior in cavalry. The army of the former conſiſted of 87,000 men; that of the latter of 40,000 foot and 10,000 horſe. Without entering into the particulars

cuſars of the battle, which is fully narrated by the Roman hiſtorians, it is ſufficient to ſay, that, by Hannibal's wiſe diſtribution of his forces, the Romans were ſoon ſurrounded, and their numbers and bravery only ſerved to render the ſlaughter more deſperately bloody. The whole plain was at laſt covered with heaps of dead bodies, inſomuch that Hannibal himſelf, thinking the butchery too terrible, ordered his men to put a ſtop to it. There is a great diſagreement among authors, as to the number of Romans killed and taken at the battle of Cannæ. According to Livy the republic loſt 50,000 men, including the auxiliaries. According to Polybius, of 6000 Roman horſe, only 70 eſcaped to Venuſia with Varro, and 300 of the auxiliary horſe; 70,000 of the Roman foot died on the field of battle, and 13,000 were made priſoners. According to Dionyſius of Halicarnaſſus, of 6000 horſe, only 370 eſcaped the general ſlaughter, and of 80,000 foot, 3000 only were left. The moſt moderate computation makes the number of Romans killed to amount to 45,000, among whom were Æmilius Paulus the conſul, and the pro-conſuls Servilius and Attilius. The ſcene of action is marked by the name of *Pezzo di Sangue*, the Field of Blood. Theſe plains have more than once, ſince the Punic war, afforded room for men to murder each other. Melo of Bari, after raiſing the ſtandard of revolt againſt the Greek emperors, and defeating their generals in ſeveral engagements, was at laſt routed here in 1019, by the Catapan Bolanus. Out of 250 Norman adventurers, the flower of Melo's army, only 10 eſcaped the ſlaughter. In 1201, the Abp. of Palermo and his rebellious aſſociates, who had taken advantage of the nonage of Frederick of Suabia, were cut to pieces at Cannæ by Walter de Brienne, ſent by the Pope to defend the young king's dominions. The traces of this town are very faint, conſiſting of fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under-ground granaries. It was deſtroyed the year before the battle; but being rebuilt, became an epiſcopal ſee in the infancy of Chriſtianity. It was again ruined in the 6th century, but ſeems to have ſubſiſted many ages later; for we read of its contending with Barletta for the territory, which till then had been enjoyed in common by them; and in 1284, Charles I. iſſued an edict for dividing the lands, to prevent all future litigation. The proſperity of the towns along the coaſt, which increaſed in wealth and population, by embarkations for the Cruſadoes and by traffic, proved the annihilation of the great inland cities; and Cannæ was probably abandoned entirely before the end of the 13th century. Mr Walker ſeems to miſtake it for CANUSIUM, as by a reference to CANOSA, he appears to reckon it the ſame with that modern town of Naples. The modern name of Cannæ, if it exiſts at all, is CANNE.

CANNARES, a nation of S. American Indians, in the province of Quito, in Peru.

CANNAT, St, a town of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, the ci-devant Provence.

CANNAY, one of the Weſtern Iſles of Scotland, S. W. of Sky. It is fertile and verdant; has vaſt ranges of baſaltic pillars, riſing above other, from the ſea, ſomewhat reſembling the Giant's Cauſeway in Ireland. See BASALTES, § 5.

CANNE, a ruinous town in Naples, in the territory of Bari. See CANNÆ.

CANNEH. See CALNEH.

(1.) CANNEL, or CATNEL, a village in Suffolk, E. of Needwood foreſt.

(2.) CANNEL COAL. See AMPELITES, and CANAL COAL.

CANNEQUINS, in commerce, white cotton cloths brought from the Eaſt Indies. They are a proper commodity for trading on the coaſt of Guinea, particularly about the rivers Senegal and Gambia. They are folded ſquare, and are about 8 ells long.

CANNES, a town of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, and ci-devant province of Provence, on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, with a harbour and a caſtle. Lon. 5. 47. E. Lat. 43. 34. N.

CANNEVAROLA, a name given by Aldrovandus to the leſſer reed ſparrow. See FRINGILLA.

(1.) * CANNIBAL. *n. ſ.* An anthropophagite; a man-eater.—The *cannibals* themſelves eat no man's fleſh, of thoſe that die of themſelves, but of ſuch as are ſlain. *Bacon.*—They were little better than *cannibals*, who do hunt one another; and he that hath moſt ſtrength and ſwiftneſs, doth eat and devour all his fellows. *Davies on Ireland.*—

It was my hint to ſpeak,
Of the *cannibals* that each other eat;
The anthropophagi. *Shakeſpeare.*

The captive *cannibal*, oppreſt with chains,
Yet braves his foes, reviles, provokes, diſdains;
Of nature fierce, untameable and proud;
He bids defiance to the gaping croud;
And ſpent at laſt, and ſpeechleſs as he lies,
With fiery glances mocks their rage, and dies.
Granville.

—If an eleventh commandment had been given, Thou ſhalt not eat human fleſh; would not the *cannibals* have eſteemed it more difficult than all the reſt? *Bentley.*

(2.) CANNIBALS. See ANTHROPOPHAGI.

* CANNIBALLY. *adv.* [from *cannibal*.] In the manner of a cannibal.—Before Corioli, he ſcotcht him and notcht him like a carbinado.—Had he been *cannibally* given, he might have broiled, and eaten him too. *Shakeſpeare.*

CANNINGTON, a town in Somerſetſhire, 3 m. from Bridgewater.

CANNINGS, BISHOPS, near Devizes, Wilts.

CANNIONS, *n. ſ. obſ.* a kind of boot hoſe.

* CANNIPERS. *n. ſ.* [corrupted from *calliper*, which ſee.] The ſquare is taken by a pair of *cannipers*, or two rulers clapped to the ſide of a tree, meaſuring the diſtance between them. *Mortimer's Huſbandry.*

(1.) CANNOCK, or CANNOT STONE, a baſe ſort of iron ore, in the Staffordſhire mines, of which the coarſeſt metal is made.

(2.) CANNOCK. See CANK.

(1.) * CANNON. *n. ſ.* [*canon*, Fr. from *canna*, Lat. a pipe, meaning a large tube.] 1. A great gun for battery. 2. A gun larger than can be managed by the hand. They are of ſo many ſizes that they decreaſe in the bore from a ball of 48 pounds to a ball of 5 ounces.—

As *cannons* overcharg'd with double cracks,
So they redoubled ſtrokes upon the foe.
Shakeſpeare.

—He hath left all the *cannon* he had taken; and now he ſent all his great *cannon* to a garriſon. *Clarendon.*—The making, or price, of theſe gunpowder inſtruments, is extremely expenſive, as may be eaſily judged by the weight of their materials; a whole *cannon* weighing commonly 8000 pounds; a half *cannon* 5000; a culverin, 4500; a demi-culverin 3000; which, whether it be in iron or braſs, muſt needs be very coſtly. *Wilkins.*

(2.) CANNON, is more accurately defined, a military engine for throwing balls, &c. by the help of GUNPOWDER. The invention of braſs cannon is by Laney aſcribed to J. Owen: he ſays, that they were firſt known in England, in 1535; but yet acknowledges, that, in 1346, there were four pieces of cannon in the Engliſh army, at the battle of Creſſy, and that theſe were the firſt that were known in France. And Mezeray relates, that king Edward, by 5 or 6 pieces of cannon, ſtruck terror into the French army, it being the firſt time they had ſeen any of theſe thundering machines; though others affirm that cannon were known already in France at the ſame time; but that the French army, in his hurry to attack the Engliſh, and in confidence of victory, left all his cannon behind them as uſeleſs incumbrances. See ARTILLERY, § 4 & 5. The Germans carry the invention farther back, and attribute it to Albertus Magnus, a Dominican monk, about A. D. 1250. Voſſius rejects all theſe opinions, and finds cannon in China almoſt 1700 years ago. According to him, they were mounted by the emperor Kitey, A. D. 85. For further particulars of their hiſtory, parts, proportions, management, operation, and effects, ſee GUN and GUNNERY. For the caſting of them, ſee FOUNDERY.

(3.) CANNON. See CANON, § 1. *def.* 8.

(1.) CANNONADE, *n. ſ.* Cannon ſhot. *Bailey.*

(2.) CANNONADE, the application of artillery to the purpoſes of war, or the direction of its efforts againſt ſome diſtant object intended to be ſeized or deſtroyed, as a ſhip, battery, or fortreſs. See GUNNERY. As a large ſhip of war may be conſidered as a combination of floating batteries, it is evident, that the efforts of her artillery muſt be greatly ſuperior to thoſe of a fortreſs on the ſea-coaſt; that is to ſay, in general; becauſe, on ſome particular occaſions, her ſituation may be extremely dangerous, and her cannonading ineffectual. Her ſuperiority conſiſts in ſeveral circumſtances, as the power of bringing her different batteries to converge to one point; of ſhifting the line of her attack ſo as to do the greateſt poſſible execution againſt the enemy, or to lie where ſhe will be the leaſt expoſed to his ſhot; and chiefly becauſe, by employing a much greater number of cannon againſt a fort than it can poſſibly return, the impreſſion of her artillery againſt ſtone-walls ſoon becomes deciſive and irreſiſtible. Beſides theſe advantages in the attack, ſhe is alſo greatly ſuperior in point of defence; becauſe the cannon-ſhot, paſſing with rapidity through her ſides, ſeldom do any execution out of the line of their flight, or occaſion much miſchief by their ſplinters; whereas they very ſoon ſhatter and deſtroy the faces of a parapet, and produce incredible havoc among the men by the fragments of the ſtones, &c. A ſhip may alſo retreat when ſhe finds it too dangerous to remain longer expoſed to the enemy's fire, or when her own fire cannot produce the deſired effect. Finally, the fluctuating ſituation of a ſhip, and of the element on which ſhe reſts, renders the effects of bombs very uncertain, and altogether deſtroys the effect of the *ricochet* or rolling and bounding ſhot, which is ſo pernicious and deſtructive in a fortreſs or land engagement. The chief inconveniency to which a ſhip is expoſed, on the contrary, is, that the low-laid cannon in a fort near the brink of the ſea, may ſtrike her repeatedly on or under the ſurface of the water, ſo as to ſink her before her cannonade can have any conſiderably efficacy.

(1.) * *To* CANNONADE. *v. a.* [from *cannon.*] To fire upon with cannon.

(2.) * *To* CANNONADE. *v. n.* To play the great guns; to batter or attack with great guns.—Both armies *cannonaded* all the enſuing day. *Tatler.*

* CANNON-BALL. } CANNON-SHOT. *n. ſ.*
* CANNON-BULLET. } [from *cannon, ball, bullet,* and *ſhot.*] The balls which are ſhot from great guns.—He reckons thoſe for wounds that are made by bullets, although it be a *cannon-ſhot. Wiſeman's Surgery.*—Let a *cannon bullet* paſs through a room, it muſt ſtrike ſucceſſively the two ſides of the room. *Locke.*

CANNONBY, a village near Maryport, Cumberland.

CANNON-FROME, near Hereford.

* CANNONIER. *n. ſ.* [from *cannon.*] The engineer that manages the cannon.—

Give me the cups;
And let the kettle to the trumpets ſpeak,
The trumpets to the *cannonier* without,
The cannons to the heav'ns, the heav'ns to earth. *Shakeſpeare.*

—A third was a moſt excellent *cannonier*, whoſe good ſkill did much endamage the forces of the king. *Hayward.*

CANNONS, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. in Eſſex, near Nettleſwell: 2. in Middleſex, near Edgeware: 3. in the pariſh of Banſtead, Surry: and 4. LITTLE CANNONS, in Shenley pariſh, Hertfordſhire.

* CANNON-SHOT. See CANNON-BALL.

CANNONS-LEIGH, a village in Devonſhire, between Tiverton and Wellington.

* CANNOT. A word compounded of *can* and *not*: noting inability.—I *cannot* but believe many a child can tell 20, long before he has an idea of infinity at all. *Locke.*

CANNOT STONE. See CANNOCK, N°. 1.

CANNULA, or CANULA, in ſurgery, a tube made of different metals, principally of ſilver and lead, but ſometimes of iron. They are introduced into hollow ulcers, in order to facilitate a diſcharge of pus or any other ſubſtance; or into wounds, either accidental or artificial, of the large cavities, as the thorax or abdomen: they are uſed in the operation of bronchotomy; and, by ſome, after cutting for the ſtone, as a drain for urine. Other cannulas are uſed for introducing cauteries, either actual or potential, into hollow parts, in order to guard the parts adjacent to that

to be cauterized, from injury. They are of various figures; oval, round, and crooked.

(1.) CANO, a kingdom of Africa, in Negroland, bounded by Zaara on the N. by the river Niger on the S. the kingdom of Agades on the W. and that of Caſſina on the E. Some of the inhabitants are herdſmen, and others till the ground and dwell in villages. It produces corn, rice, and cotton. It has many deſerts, and mountains covered with woods, in which are wild citrons and lemon trees.

(2.) CANO, a town in the above kingdom, (N. 1.) The walls and houſes are made of clay, and the principal inhabitants are merchants. Lon. 16. 18. E. Lat. 21. 5. N.

* CANOA. See CANOE.

CANOBIA, a town of Italy, in the Milaneſe, ſeated on the W. bank of Lago Maggiora, or the Greater Lake: 30 m. W. of Como. Lon. 8. 47. E. Lat. 45. 55. N.

CANOBUS. See CANOPUS, N° 3, and 4.

CANOBY, [from *cænobium*, Lat. a monaſtery,] a pariſh of Scotland, in Dumfries-ſhire, on the borders of England, about 9 m. long from E. to W. and 6 broad from N. to S. containing 22,500 acres of ground, of which about 15,000 are arable. The climate is healthy, though wet, and the ſoil moſtly light loam; affording early and plentiful crops. The pariſh abounds in woods, orchards, lime-ſtone, coal, and free-ſtone. It has been greatly improved within theſe 22 years, by the D. of Buccleugh, the proprietor; and the roads (formerly often impaſſable,) and bridges, are excellent. The population, in 1794, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Ruſſel, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2725. It had increaſed no leſs than 992, ſince 1755. There were 407 horſes; about 2500 ſheep, 259 ſwine, and 1516 black cattle in the pariſh, in 1794.

(1.) * CANOE. CANOA. *n. ſ.* A boat made by cutting the trunk of a tree into a hollow veſſel.—Others made rafts of wood, others deviſed the boat of one tree, called the *canoa*, which the Gauls, upon the Rhone, uſed in aſſiſting the tranſportation of Hannibal's army. *Raleigh.*—In a war againſt Semiramis, they had 4000 monoxyla, or *canoes*, of one piece of timber. *Arbuthnot on coins.*

(2.) CANOES are ſometimes formed of ſeveral pieces of bark put together. Canoes are of various ſizes, according to the uſes for which they may be deſigned, or the countries wherein they are formed. The largeſt are made of the cotton tree; ſome of them will carry between 20 and 30 hogſheads of ſugar or molaſſes. Some are made to carry ſail; and for this purpoſe are ſteeped in water till they become pliant; after which their ſides are extended, and ſtrong beams placed between them, on which a deck is afterwards laid that ſerves to ſupport their ſides. The other ſorts very rarely carry ſail, unleſs when going before the wind: their ſails are made of ſhort ſilk graſs or ruſhes. They are commonly rowed with paddles, which are pieces of light wood ſomewhat reſembling a corn ſhovel; and, inſtead of rowing with it horizontally like an oar, they manage it perpendicularly. The ſmall canoes are very narrow, having only room for one perſon in , and ſeven or eight lengthwiſe. The rowers, who are generally American Indians, are very expert in managing their paddles uniformly, and in balancing the canoes with their bodies: which would be difficult for a ſtranger to do, even well accuſtomed ſoever to the conducting of European boats, becauſe the canoes are extremely light, and liable to be overturned. The American Indians, when they are under the neceſſity of landing to avoid a water-fall, or of croſſing the land from one river to another, carry their canoes on their heads, till they arrive at a place where they can launch them again. This is the general conſtruction of canoes, and method of managing them; but ſome nations have veſſels under this name, which differ conſiderably from theſe; as the inhabitants of Greenland, Hudſon's bay, Otaheite, &c.

CANOGE, a town of Indoſtan Proper, on the W. bank of the Ganges, near its confluence with the Calini; 127 m. S. E. of Agra. Lon. 80. 13. E. Lat. 27. 3. N.

(1.) * CANON. *n. ſ.* [κανων.] 1. A rule; a law.—The truth is, they are rules and *canons* of the law, which is written in all men's hearts; the church had for ever, no leſs than now, power to bound to obſerve them, whether the apoſtle had mentioned them, or no. *Hooker.*—His books are almoſt the very *canon* to judge both doctrine and diſciple by. *Hooker.*—

Religious *canons*, civil laws are cruel;
Then what ſhould war be? *Shakſpeare.*

—*Canons* in logick are ſuch as theſe: every part of a diviſion, ſingly taken, muſt contain leſs than the whole; and a definition muſt be peculiar and proper to the thing defined. *Watts.* 2. The laws made by eccleſiaſtical councils.—*Canon* law is that law, which is made and ordained in a general council, or provincial ſynod of the church. *Ayliffe.*—Theſe were looked on as lapſed perſons, and great ſeverities of penance were preſcribed them, by the *canons* of Ancyra. *Stillingfleet.* 3. The books of Holy Scripture; or the great rule.—*Canon* alſo denotes thoſe books of Scripture, which are received as inſpired and canonical, to diſtinguiſh them from either profane, apocryphal, or diſputed books. Thus we ſay, that *Genesis* is part of the ſacred *canon* of the Scripture. *Ayliffe.* 4. A dignitary in cathedral churches.—For deans and *canons*, or prebends, of cathedral churches, they were of great uſe in the church; they were to be of counſel with the biſhop for his revenues, and for his government in cauſes eccleſiaſtical. *Bacon.*—

Swift much admires the place and air,
And longs to be a *canon* there,
A *canon!* that's a place too mean:
No, doctor, you ſhall be a dean:
Two dozen *canons* round your ſtall,
And you the tyrant o'er them all. *Swift.*

5. *Canons Regular.* Such as are placed in monaſteries. *Ayliffe.* 6. *Canons Secular.* Lay canons, who have been, as a mark of honour, admitted into ſome chapters. 7. [Among chirurgeons;] An inſtrument uſed in ſewing up wounds. *Did.* 8. A large ſort of printing letter, probably ſo called from being firſt uſed in printing a book of canons; or perhaps from its ſize, and therefore properly written *cannon.*

(II.) CANON,

(II.) CANON, in an eccleſiaſtical ſenſe, (§ I. *def.* 1.) is a rule, either of doctrine or diſcipline, enacted eſpecially by a council, and confirmed by the authority of the ſovereign. Canons are properly deciſions of matters of religion; or regulations of the policy and diſcipline of a church, made by councils, either general, national, or provincial. Such are the canons of the council of Nice, or Trent, &c. There have been various collections of the canons of the Eaſtern councils; but 4 principal ones, each ampler than the preceding. The firſt, according to Uſſher, A. D. 380, contained only thoſe of the firſt œcumenical council, and the firſt provincial ones: they were but 164 in number. To theſe, Dionyſius Exiguus, in 520, added the 50 canons of the apoſtles, (ſee § V. N° 2.) and thoſe of the other general councils. The Greek canons in this 2d collection and with thoſe of the council of Chalcedon; to which are ſubjoined thoſe of the council of Sardica, and the African councils. The 4th and laſt collection comes down as low as the 2d council of Nice; and it is on this that Balſamon and Zonaras have commented.

(III.) CANON, (§ I. *def.* 3.) See BIBLE, § III. and VI. The ancient canon of the books of the Old Teſtament, ordinarily attributed to Ezra, was divided into the law, the prophets, and the hagiographa; to which our Saviour refers, Luke, xxiv. 45. The ſame diviſion is alſo mentioned by Joſephus. This is the canon allowed to have been followed by the primitive church, till the council of Carthage; and, according to St Jerom, this conſiſted of no more than 22 books; anſwering to the number of the Hebrew alphabet; though at preſent they are claſſed into 24 diviſions. That council enlarged the canon very conſiderably, taking into it the apocryphal books; which the council of Trent further enforced, enjoining them to be received as books of Holy Scripture, upon pain of anathema. The Romaniſts, in defence of this canon, ſay, that it is the ſame with that of the council of Hippo, held in 393; and with that of the 3d council of Carthage, held in 397, at which were preſent 46 biſhops, and, among the reſt, St Auguſtine. Their canon of the New Teſtament, however, generally agrees with ours. It conſiſts of books that are well known; ſome of which have been univerſally acknowledged; ſuch are the 4 Goſpels, the Acts of the Apoſtles, 13 Epiſtles of St Paul, 1ſt of St Peter, and 1ſt of St John: and others, concerning which doubts were entertained, but which were afterwards received as genuine; ſuch are the epiſtle to the Hebrews, that of James, the 2d of Peter, the 2d and 3d of John, that of Jude, and the Revelation. Theſe books were written at different times, and they are not eſtabliſhed not by the decrees of councils or eccleſiaſtical authority, but by ſuch evidence as the nature of the caſe of any other ancient writings. They were very extenſively diffuſed; and held in high eſteem by the firſt Chriſtians: they were cited by Chriſtian writers of the 2d, 3d, and 4th centuries, as Irenæus, Clement the Alexandrian, Tertullian, Origen, Euſebius, &c. and their genuineneſs is aſſerted by the teſtimony of thoſe who were contemporary with the apoſtles themſelves. The 4 Goſpels, and moſt of the other books of the New Teſtament, were collected either by one of the apoſtles, or ſome of their diſciples and ſucceſſors, before the end of the firſt century. The catalogue of canonical books furniſhed by the more ancient Chriſtian writers, as Origen about A. D. 210, Euſebius and Athanaſius in 315, Epiphanius in 370, Jerome in 382, Auſtin in 394, and many others, agrees with that which is now received among Chriſtians. For the time of writing the books of the New Teſtament, ſee MATTHEW, MARK, &c.

(IV.) CANON, (§ I. *def.* 4.) is a perſon who poſſeſſes a prebend, or revenue allotted for the performance of divine ſervice, in a cathedral, or collegiate church. Canons are of no great antiquity: Paſchier obſerves, that the name was not known before Charlemagne; at leaſt the firſt we hear of are in Gregory de Tours, who mentions a college of canons inſtituted by Baldwin XVI. abp. of that city, in the time of Clotharius I. The common opinion attributes the inſtitution of this order to Chrodegangue, biſhop of Metz, about the middle of the 8th century. Canons originally were only prieſts, or inferior eccleſiaſtics, who lived in community; reſiding by the cathedral church, to aſſiſt the biſhop; depending entirely on his will; ſupported by the revenues of the biſhopric; and living in the ſame houſe, as his domeſtics, or counſellors, &c. They even inherited his moveables, till A. D. 817, when this was prohibited by the council of Aix la Chapelle, and a new rule ſubſtituted in the place of that which had been appointed by Chrodegangus, and which was obſerved for the moſt part in the weſt till the 12th century. By degrees, theſe communities of prieſts, ſhaking off their dependence, formed ſeparate bodies; whereof the biſhops, however, were ſtill the heads. In the 10th century, there were communities of the ſame kind, eſtabliſhed even in cities where there were no biſhops: theſe were called collegiates, as they uſed the terms congregation and college indifferently: the name chapter, now given to theſe bodies, being much more modern. Under the race of the French kings, the canonical life had ſpread all over the country; and even cathedral had its chapter, diſtinct from the reſt of the clergy. They had the name canon from the Greek word, which ſignifies a meaſure of things; a rule, a penſion, or fixed ſtipend to live on, and a catalogue of matricula; all which are applicable to them. In time, the canons left the rule of their lives; and, at length, they ceaſed to live in community: the chapter of Metz being, perhaps, the laſt that broke the communion of the common eſtate of the church; not ſtanding the rights of the refectory, dormitory, [illegible] themſelves a peculiar portion of the [illegible] ſtating upon them the obligation of a reſidence during a vacancy, and the charge of a biſhop to ſupply it. There are even ſome chapters exempt from the juriſdiction of the biſhop, and [illegible] head but their dean. After the example of cathedral chapters, collegiate churches [illegible] to form themſelves into chapters, after the manner of cathedrals, living in community. Canons are of ſeveral kinds; as,

I. Canons

1. CANONS, CARDINAL, which are those attached, and, as the Latins call it, *incardinati* to a church, as a priest is to a parish.

2. CANONS, DOMICILLARY, were young canons, who, not being in orders, had no right in any particular chapters.

3. CANONS, EXPECTATIVE, were such as, without having any revenue or prebend, had the title and dignities of canons, a voice in the chapter, and a place in the choir; till such time as a prebend should fall.

4. CANONS, FOREIGN, were such as did not officiate in the canonries to which they belonged.

5. CANONS, LAY or HONORARY, are such among the laity as have been admitted, out of honour and respect, into some chapter of canons. Dr Johnson (§ I. *def.* 6.) confounds these with the SECULAR CANONS.

6. CANONS, MANSIONARY, or RESIDENT, those who officiated in their canonries.

7. CANONS, REGULAR, are those who still live in community; and who have, to the practice of their rules, added the solemn profession of vows. They are called regulars, to distinguish them from those SECULAR CANONS who abandon living in community, and observing the canons made for the maintenance of the ancient discipline. The canons subsisted in their simplicity till the 11th, some say the 12th century, when some of them, separating from the community, got the name of acephalous priests, because they declined to live in community with the bishop; and those who were left thenceforth acquired the denomination of canons regular, and adopted most of the professions of the rule of St Augustine. This order was brought into England by Adelwald, confessor to Henry I. who erected a priory at Nostel in Yorkshire; and obtained for them the church of Carlisle as an episcopal see, with the privilege of choosing their own bishop. They were singularly encouraged by Henry I. who gave them the priory of Dunstable in 1107, and by queen Maud, who, in 1108, gave them the priory of the Holy Trinity in London. Under Edward I. they had 53 priories.

8. CANONS, SECULAR. See N° 5 & 7.

9. CANONS, TERTIARY, those who had only the third part of the revenues of the canonicate.

(V.) CANON, in ecclesiastical matters, is also used, 1. by way of excellence, in the Romish church, for the secret words of the mass, from the preface to the *Pater*; in the middle of which the priest consecrates the host: 2. for the catalogue of saints acknowledged and canonized in the church of Rome: 3. in monastic orders, for a book wherein the religious of every convent have a fair transcript of the rules of their order, frequently read among them as their local statutes. Canon is also applied to other compositions; as,

1. CANON, PASCHAL, a table of the moveable feasts, showing the day of Easter, and the other feasts depending on it, for a cycle of 19 years. The paschal canon is supposed to be the calculation of Eusebius of Cæsarea, and to have been done by order of the council of Nice.

2. CANONS, APOSTOLICAL, those which have been usually ascribed to St Clement. Bellarmin, Baronius, &c. will have them to be genuine canons of the apostles: Cotelerius observes, that they cannot be ascribed to the apostles or Clement, because they are not received with other books of scripture, are not quoted by the writers of the first ages, and contain many things not agreeable to the apostolical times. Hincmar, Ivo Marus, Burridge, &c. take them to be framed by the bishops who were the apostles' disciples to the 2d or 3d century; but Daille, &c. maintain them to have been forged by some heretic in the 4th century and S. Basnage conjectures, that though some of them are ancient, and collected in the 5th century, others are not older than the 9th. The Greek church allow only 85 of them, and the Latins only 50; though there are 84 in the edition given of them in the Corpus Juris Canonici.

(VI.) CANON, in geometry and algebra, a general rule for the solution of all cases of a like nature with the present enquiry. Thus every step of an equation is a canon; and, if turned into words, becomes a rule to solve all questions of the same nature with that proposed.

(VII.) CANON, in ancient music, is a method of determining the intervals of notes. Pythag. rejecting the Aristoxenian way of measuring the intervals in music, by the magnitude of a sense (which was supposed to be formed by the difference between a diapente and a diatessaron) thought that musical intervals should be distinguished, according to the proportions which the sounds terminating those intervals bear to one another, when considered according to their degrees of acuteness or gravity; which, before Archytas, was the old Pythagorean way. He therefore made the diapason consist in a double ratio, the diapente, in a sesquialterate; the diatessaron in a sesquitertian; and the tone itself, in a sesquioctave; and all the other intervals, according to the proportion of the sounds that terminate them. Wherefore taking the canon for a determinate line of any length, he shows how this line must be cut accordingly, so that it may represent the respective intervals: and this method comes pretty exactly to experiment, in the different lengths of musical chords. From this canon, Ptolemy and his followers have been called CANONICI; as those of Aristoxenus were called MUSICI.

(VIII.) CANON, in modern music, is a kind of fugue, which they call a *perpetual* fugue, where the different parts beginning one after another repeat incessantly the same air. Formerly, as Zarlino, they placed, at the head of several fugues, particular directions which showed that this kind of fugues was to be sung and how the directions being properly the rules by which perpetual fugues were composed were called *rules*, or *canons*. From this custom, other fugues took the title for the thing signified, by a metonymy termed this kind of composition canon, and as the fugue is a species compared with the grand genus and of consequence most generally used, the fugue either with the octave or the unison, that is to say, that every part repeats in the same tone the melody of the preceding. In order to form a canon of this kind, it is only necessary for the composer to make an air according to which to add in score as many parts as he chooses, which the voices in octave or unison repeat the same melody; then forming a single air from all the parts

ſucceſſively executed, to try whether this ſucceſſion may form an entire piece which will give pleaſure, as well in the harmony as the melody. In executing ſuch a canon, he who ſings the firſt part begins alone, and continues till the air is finiſhed; then recommences immediately, without any ſuſpence of ſound or interruption of time: as ſoon as he has ended the firſt couplet, which ought to ſerve for the perpetual ſubject upon which the whole canon has been compoſed, the 2d part begins and repeats the ſame couplet, whilſt the firſt who had begun purſues the ſecond; and others in ſucceſſion begin, and proceed the ſame way, as ſoon as he who precedes has reached the end of the firſt couplet. Thus, by inceſſantly recommencing, an univerſal cloſe can never be found, and the canon may be repeated as long as the ſingers pleaſe. A perpetual fugue may likewiſe conſiſt of parts which begin with the intervals of a 4th or 5th; or, in other words, every part may repeat the melody of the firſt, a 4th or a 5th higher or lower. It is then neceſſary that the whole canon ſhould be invented *di prima intenzione*, as the Italians ſay; and that ſharps or flats ſhould be added to the notes, whoſe natural gradations do not anſwer exactly, by a 4th or 5th, to the melody of the preceding part, and produce the ſame intervals with itſelf. Here the compoſer cannot pay the leaſt regard to modulation; his only care is, that the melody may be the ſame, which renders the formation of a canon more difficult; for at every time when any part reſumes the fugue, it takes a new key; it changes the tone almoſt at every note, and what is ſtill worſe, no part is at the ſame time found in the ſame tone with another; hence it is that this kind of canons, in other reſpects far from being eaſy to be purſued, never produces a pleaſing effect, however good the harmony may be, and however properly it may be ſung. There is a 3d kind of canon, extremely difficult, and boaſting no other merit but the pains which have been thrown away in its compoſition. This may be called a *double canon inverted*, as well by the inverſions which are practiſed in it with reſpect to the melody of the parts, as by thoſe which are found among the parts themſelves, in ſinging. The reader may conſult Rouſſeau's Dictionary in his article, where he is referred to plate D fig. 11. for two examples of canons of this ſort extracted from Bontempi, who likewiſe gives rules for their compoſition. To form a canon in which the harmony may be a little varied, it is neceſſary that the parts ſhould not follow each other in ſucceſſion too rapid, and that the one ſhould only begin a conſiderable time after the other. When they follow one another ſo immediately as at the diſtance of a ſemibreve or a minim, the duration is not ſufficient to admit a great number of chords, and the canon muſt of neceſſity exhibit a diſagreeable monotony; but it is a method of compoſing, without much difficulty, a canon in as many parts as the compoſer chooſes. For a canon of 4 bars only, will conſiſt of 8 parts if they follow each other at the diſtance of half a bar; and by each bar which is added, two parts will conſtantly be gained. The emperor Charles VI. who was a great muſician, and compoſed extremely well, took much pleaſure in compoſing and ſinging canons. Italy is ſtill replete with moſt beautiful canons compoſed for this prince, by the beſt maſters in that country. To what has been ſaid by Rouſſeau we need only ſubjoin, that the Engliſh *catch* and the Italian *canon* are much the ſame; as any intelligent reader may perceive, from comparing the ſtructure and execution of the Engliſh *catch* with the account of *canons* now given.

(IX.) CANON LAW, a collection of eccleſiaſtical laws, ſerving as the rule of church government. The power of making laws was exerciſed by the church before the Roman empire became Chriſtian. The canon law that obtained throughout the weſt, till the 12th century, was the collection of canons made by Dionyſius Exiguus in 520, the capitularies of Charlemagne, and the decrees of the popes from Syricius to Anaſtaſius III. The canon law, even when papal authority was at its height in England, was of no force when it contradicted the prerogative of the king, the laws, ſtatutes, and cuſtoms of the realm, or the doctrine of the eſtabliſhed church. The eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction of the ſee of Rome in England was founded on the canon law; and this created quarrels between kings and ſeveral archbiſhops and prelates who adhered to the papal uſurpation. Beſides the foreign canons, there were ſeveral laws and conſtitutions made here for the government of the church: but all theſe received their force from the royal aſſent; and if, at any time, the eccleſiaſtical courts did, by their ſentence, endeavour to enforce obedience to ſuch canons, the courts at common law, upon complaints made, would grant prohibition. The authority veſted in the church of England of making canons, was aſcertained by a ſtatute of Henry VIII. commonly called the *act of the clergy's ſubmiſſion*; by which they acknowledged, that the convocation had always been aſſembled by the king's writ; ſo that though the power of making canons reſided in the clergy met in convocation, their force was derived from the authority of the king's aſſenting to and confirming them. The old canons continued in full force till the reign of James I. when the clergy being aſſembled in convocation, the king gave them leave to treat and conſult upon canons; which they did, and preſented them to the king, who gave them the royal aſſent: theſe were a collection out of the ſeveral preceding canons and injunctions. Some of theſe canons are now obſolete. In the reign of Charles I. ſeveral canons were paſſed by the clergy in convocation.

CANONARCHA, or CANONARCHUS, } an office in the Greek church, anſwering to the precentor in the Latin, or chanter in the Engliſh church.

* CANON-BIT. *n. ſ.* That part of the bit let into the horſe's mouth.—

A goodly perſon, and could manage fair,
His ſtubborn ſteed with *cannonbit*,
Who under him did trample as the air. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * CANONESS. *n. ſ.* [*canoniſſa*, low Lat.] There are in popiſh countries, women they call ſecular *canoneſſes*, living after the example of ſecular canons. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) CANONESS, in the Romiſh church, is a woman

than who enjoys a prebend, affixed, by the foundation, to maids, without their being obliged to renounce the world or make any vows.

(1.) CANONGATE, a burgh adjacent and under vaſſalage to Edinburgh, of which it is one of the ſuburbs. See EDINBURGH. It is governed by a baron bailie and two reſident magiſtrates, appointed by the town council of Edinburgh. Their juriſdiction extends to the E. ſide of the Pleaſance, and to the town of North Leith.

(2.) CANONGATE, a pariſh of Scotland, comprehending ſomewhat more than the burgh, (N° 1.) but not extending to the whole juriſdiction. The population, in 1792, as ſtated by Mr Creech in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 6200.

CANONICA, in philoſophical hiſtory, an appellation given by Epicurus to his doctrine of logic, as conſiſting of a few rules for directing the underſtanding in the purſuit of truth. Epicurus's *canonica* is repreſented as a very ſlight and inſufficient logic by ſeveral of the ancients who put a great value on his ethics and phyſics. Laertius even aſſures us, that the Epicureans rejected logic as a ſuperfluous ſcience; and Plutarch complains that Epicurus made an unſkilful and prepoſterous uſe of ſyllogiſms. But theſe cenſures ſeem too ſevere. Epicurus was not averſe to the ſtudy of logic, but even gave better rules in this art, than thoſe philoſophers who aimed at no glory but that of logics. He only ſeems to have rejected the dialectics of the Stoics, as full of vain ſubtleties and deceits, and fitted rather for parade and diſputation than real uſe. The ſtrength of Epicurus's *canonica* conſiſts in his doctrine of the criteria of truth. All queſtions in philoſophy are either concerning words or things: concerning things, we ſeek their truth; concerning words, their ſignification: things are either natural or moral; and the former are either perceived by ſenſe, or by the underſtanding. Hence, according to Epicurus, ariſe 3 criterions of truth, *viz.* ſenſe, prænotion, and paſſion. The great principle of Epicurus's logic is, that the ſenſes are never deceived; and therefore, that every ſenſation of an appearance is true.

(1.)* CANONICAL. *adj.* [*canonicus*, low Lat.] 1. According to the canon. 2. Conſtituting the canon.—Publick readings there are of books and writings, not *canonical*, whereby the church doth alſo preach, or openly make known the doctrine of virtuous converſation. *Hooker.*—No ſuch book was found amongſt thoſe *canonical* ſcriptures. *Raleigh.* 3. Regular; ſtated; fixed by eccleſiaſtical laws.—Seven times a day do I praiſe thee, ſaid David; from this definite number ſome ages of the church took their pattern for their *canonical* hours. *Taylor.* 4. Spiritual; eccleſiaſtical; relating to the church.—York anciently had a metropolitan juriſdiction over all the biſhops of Scotland, from whom they had their conſecration, and to whom they ſwore *canonical* obedience. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) CANONICAL HOURS are certain ſtated times of the day, aſſigned, more eſpecially by the Romiſh church, to the offices of prayer and devotion. Such are *matins*, *lauds*, *ſixth*, *ninth*, *veſpers*. In England the canonical hours are from 8 to 12 in the forenoon, before or after which marriage cannot be legally performed in any pariſh church.

(3.) CANONICAL LETTERS, in the ancient church, were teſtimonials of the orthodox faith, which the biſhops and clergy ſent each other to keep up the catholic communion, and diſtinguiſh orthodox Chriſtians, from heretics. They were denominated *canonical*, either as being compoſed according to a certain rule, or becauſe they were given to the CANONICI, *i. e.* thoſe comprehended in the canon of their church. When they had occaſion to travel into other countries, recommendatory letters, letters of peace, &c. were ſo many ſpecies of canonical letters.

(4.) CANONICAL LIFE, the rule of living preſcribed by the ancient clergy who lived in community. The canonical life was a kind of medium between the monaſtic and clerical lives. Originally the orders of monks and clerks were entirely diſtinct; but pious perſons afterwards inſtituted colleges of prieſts and canons, where clerks brought up to the miniſtry, as well as others already engaged in it, might live under a fixed rule, which, though ſomewhat more eaſy than the monaſtic, was more reſtrained than the ſecular. Authors are divided about the founder of the canonical life. Some will have it to be founded by the apoſtles; others aſcribe it to pope Urban I. about A. D. 222, who is ſaid to have ordered biſhops to provide ſuch of their clergy as were willing to live in community, with neceſſaries out of the revenues of their churches. The generality attribute it to St Auguſtin; who, having gathered a number of clerks to devote themſelves to religion, inſtituted a monaſtery within his epiſcopal palace, where he lived in community with them. Onuphrius Panvinius ſays, that pope Gelaſius I. about A. D. 496, placed the firſt regular canons of St Auguſtin in the Lateran church.

(5.) CANONICAL OBEDIENCE is that ſubmiſſion which, by the eccleſiaſtical laws, the inferior clergy are to pay to their biſhops, and the religious to their ſuperiors.

(6.) CANONICAL PORTION, ſo much of the effects of a perſon deceaſed, as the canons allow to his pariſh church.

(7.) CANONICAL PUNISHMENTS are thoſe which the church may inflict; ſuch as excommunication, degradation, and penance, in Roman Catholic countries; alſo faſting, alms, whipping, &c.

(8.) CANONICAL SINS, in the ancient church, thoſe which were capital or mortal; Such as idolatry, murder, adultery, hereſy, and ſchiſm.

* CANONICALLY. *adv.* [from *canonical*.] In a manner agreeable to the canon.—It is a known ſtory of the friar, who, on a faſting day, bid the capon be carp, and then very *canonically* eat it. *Government of the Tongue.*

* CANONICALNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *canonical*.] The quality of being canonical.

CANONICATE, *n. ſ.* the office or benefice of a canon.

CANONICI. See CANON, § VII. and CANONICAL, § 3.

CANONICUM denotes, 1. a tax in general: 2. a fee paid by the Greek clergy to biſhops, archbiſhops, and metropolitans, for degrees and promotions: 3. a due of firſt-fruits, paid by the Greek laity to their biſhops or prieſts; according to the number of houſes or chimnies in a place. The conſtitutio-

conſtitution made by the emperor Iſaac Comnenus, and confirmed in 1086, by Alexis Comnenus, enacted, that a village containing 30 fires, was to pay for its *canonicum* one piece of gold, two of ſilver, one ſheep, 6 buſhels of barley, 6 of wheat flour, 6 meaſures of wine, and 30 hens.

(1.) * CANONIST. *n. ſ.* [from *canon*.] A man verſed in the eccleſiaſtical laws; a profeſſour of the canon law.—John Fiſher, biſhop of Rocheſter, when the king would have tranſlated him from that poor biſhoprick, he refuſed, ſaying, he would not forſake his poor little old wife; thinking of the fifteenth canon of the Nicene council, and that of the *canoniſts*, *Matrimonium inter epiſcopum & eccleſiam eſſe contractum, &c. Camden's Remains.*

Of whoſe ſtrange crimes no *canoniſt* can tell,
In what commandment's large contents they dwell. *Pope.*

(2.) CANONISTS and civilians are uſually combined in the ſame perſons: and hence the title of *legum doctor*, or *doctor juris utriuſque*, uſually expreſſed in abbreviature, LL. D. or J. U. D.

(1.) * CANONIZATION. *n. ſ.* [from *canonize*.] The act of declaring any man a ſaint.—It is very ſuſpicious, that the intereſts of particular families, or churches, have too great a ſway in *canonizations*. *Addiſon.*

(2.) CANONIZATION, in the Romiſh church, ſucceeds beatification. Before a beatified perſon is canonized, the qualifications of the candidate are ſtrictly examined into, in ſome conſiſtories held for that purpoſe; after which, one of the conſiſtorial advocates, in the preſence of the pope and cardinals, makes the panegyric of the perſon who is to be proclaimed a ſaint, and gives a particular detail of his life and miracles: which done, the holy father decrees his canonization, and appoints the day. On the day of canonization the pope officiates in white, and the cardinals are dreſt in the ſame colour. St Peter's church is hung with rich tapeſtry, upon which the arms of the pope, and of the prince or ſtate requiring the canonization, are embroidered in gold and ſilver. A vaſt number of lights blaze all round the church, which is crowded with pious ſouls, who wait with devout impatience till the new ſaint has made his public entry as it were into paradiſe, that they may offer up their petitions to him without danger of being rejected. The following rule is now obſerved, though it has not been followed above a century, *viz.* not to enter into the enquiries prior to canonization, till 50 years, at leaſt, after the death of the perſon to be canonized. This rite of the modern Romans reſembles the deification of the ancient Romans, and, in all probability, takes its riſe from it.

* *To* CANONIZE. *v. a.* [from *canon*, to put into the canon, or rule for obſerving feſtivals.] To declare any man a ſaint.—The king, deſirous to bring into the houſe of Lancaſter celeſtial honour, became ſuitor to pope Julius, to *canonize* king Henry VI. for a ſaint. *Bacon.*—

By thoſe hymns all ſhall approve
Us *canoniz'd* for love. *Donne.*

—They have a pope too, who hath the chief care of religion, and of *canonizing* whom he thinks fit, and thence have the honour of ſaints. *Stilling fleet.*

CANONMILLS, a village within a mile of Edinburgh, ſeated on the river Leith. Mr Creech does not mention the number of its inhabitants.

CANONNICUT, a ſmall iſland of the United States belonging to Rhode-Iſland, and forming part of Newport county. It lies in Naraganſet Bay W. of Rhode-Iſland, and is about 6 m. long, and 1 broad. It was purchaſed of the Indians in 1637, and incorporated by act of aſſembly in 1678, by the name of JAMES-TOWN. It contained, in 1795, 491 free inhabitants and 16 ſlaves. A light-houſe was erected on the S. end of it, in 1749, on ground elevated 12 feet above the ſea level at high water. The diameter at the baſe is 24 feet and at the top, 14: The height is 58 feet: around the top of the cornice is a gallery, within which ſtands the lantern: It is about 14 feet high and 8 feet diameter.

(1.) * CANONRY. CANONSHIP. *n. ſ.* [from *canon*.] An eccleſiaſtical benefice in ſome cathedral or collegiate church, which has a prebend, or a ſtated allowance out of the revenues of ſuch church, commonly annexed to it. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) CANONRY, differs from a *prebend*, in that the prebend may ſubſiſt without the canonicate: whereas the canonicate is inſeparable from the prebend; again, the rights of ſuffrages, and other privileges, are annexed to the canonicate, and not to the prebend.

CANONSBURG, a town of Pennſylvania, in in Waſhington county, on the N. ſide of the W. branch of Chartiers creek. It has an academy and ſeveral valuable mills. It lies 7 m. N. E. by E. of Waſhington; 15 S. W. of Pittſburgh; in Lon. 5. 4. W. and Lat. 40. 17. N. of Philadelphia.

* CANONSHIP. See CANONRY.

CANOPÆI, the people of Canopus, famous for their luxury and debauchery.

* CANOPIED. *adj.* [from *canopy*.] Covered with a canopy.—

I ſat me down to watch upon a bank,
With ivy *canopy'd*, and interwove
With flaunting honeyſuckle. *Milton.*

(1.) CANOPUS, in aſtronomy, a ſtar of the firſt magnitude in the rudder of ARGO.

(2.) CANOPUS, in Pagan mythology, one of the deities of the ancient Egyptians, and the god of water. It is ſaid, that the Chaldeans, who worſhipped fire, carried their deity through other countries to try its power, in order that, if it obtained the victory over the other gods, it might be acknowledged as the true object of worſhip; and it having eaſily ſubdued the gods of wood, ſtone, braſs, ſilver, and gold, its prieſts declared, that all gods did it homage. This the prieſts of Canopus hearing, and finding that the Chaldeans had brought their gods to contend with Canopus, they took a large earthen veſſel, in which they bored ſeveral holes, which they afterwards ſtopped with wax, and having filled the veſſel with water, painted it of ſeveral colours, and fitting the head of their idol to it, brought it out, in order to contend with the Chaldean deity. The Caldeans accordingly kindled their fire all around it; but the heat having melted the wax, the water guſhed out through the holes, and extinguiſhed the fire; and thus Canopus conquered the god of the Chaldeans.

(3.) CANOPUS, or CANOBUS, according to Stra-

boy, was a native of Amycla, had been Menelaus's pilot, and had a temple erected to him in the town of CANOPUS, No. 4. It is mentioned by Dionyſius. Voſſius remarks the vanity of the Greeks, who, as he conjectures, hearing of the Egyptian deity, (No. 2.) took an opportunity of deifying the pilot of Menelaus, and giving out that the Egyptian god Canopus had been a Greek. F. Monfaucon gives ſeveral repreſentations of this deity. One, in alluſion to the victory above mentioned, (No. 2.) throws out water on every ſide through little holes.

(4.) CANOPUS, or CANOBUS, in ancient geography, a town of the Lower Egypt, on the Mediterranean, near one of the mouths of the Nile, 120 ſtadia or 15 m. E. of Alexandria: as old as the war of Troy, Canopus, (No. 2.) being there buried. See ABOUKIR.

(1.) * CANOPY. *n. ſ.* [*canopeum*, low Lat.] A covering of ſtate over a throne or bed; a covering ſpread over the head.—

She is there brought unto a paled green,
And placed under a ſtately *canopy*,
The warlike feats of both thoſe knights to ſee.
Fairy Queen.

Now ſpread the night her ſpangled *canopy*,
And ſummon'd every reſtleſs eye to ſleep.
Fairfax.

Nor will the raging fever's fire abate,
With golden *canopies*, and beds of ſtate. *Milton.*

(2.) CANOPY is formed from κωνωπιον, *a net ſpread over a bed to keep off the gnats* of κωνωψ, *a gnat*. Canopies are alſo born over the head in proceſſions of ſtate, after the manner of umbrellas. The canopy of an altar is called CIBORIUM. The Roman grandees had their canopies, or ſpread veils, called *thenſæ*, over their chairs; and in temples over the ſtatues of the gods. The modern cardinals ſtill retain the uſe of canopies.

* *To* CANOPY. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cover with a canopy.—

The birch, the myrtle, and the bay,
Like friends did all embrace;
And their large branches did diſplay,
To *canopy* the place. *Dryden.*

* CANOROUS. *adj.* [*canorus*, Lat.] Muſical; tuneful.—Birds that are moſt *canorous*, and whoſe notes we moſt commend, are of little throats, and ſhort. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

CANOSA, a town of Naples, in Puglia, occupying part of the ſite of the ancient CANUSIUM. The old city was one of the moſt conſiderable in this part of Italy, for extent, population, and magnificent buildings. The æra of Trajan ſeems to have been that of its greateſt ſplendour; but this pomp only ſerved to mark it as a capital object for the avarice and fury of the Barbarians. Genſeric, Totila, and Autharis, treated it with extreme cruelty. The deplorable ſtate to which this province was reduced in 590 is conciſely but ſtrongly painted by Gregory the Great, in theſe terms: "On every ſide we hear groans! On every ſide we behold crowds of mourners, cities burnt, caſtles raſed to the ground, countries laid waſte, provinces become deſerts, ſome citizens way captives, and others inhumanly maſſa-

No town in Puglia ſuffered more from the Saracens; the conteſts between the Greeks and Normans increaſed the meaſure of its woes, which was completed by a conflagration when it was ſtormed by duke Robert. In 1090, it was aſſigned to Bohemund prince of Antioch, who died here in 1111. Under the reign of Ferdinand III. it belonged to the Grimaldis. On their forfeiture, the Affaititi acquired it, and ſtill retain the title of marquis, though the Capeci are the proprietors of the fief. The ancient city ſtood in a plain between the hills and the river Ofanto, and covered a large tract of ground. Many brick monuments, though ſtripped of their marble caſing, ſtill atteſt its ancient grandeur. Among them may be traced the fragments of aqueducts, tombs, amphitheatres, baths, military columns, and two triumphal arches, which, by their poſition, ſeem to have been two city gates. The preſent town ſtands above, on the foundation of the old citadel, and is a remnant of ſo great a city, not containing above 300 houſes. The church of St Sabinus, built in the 6th century, is now without the incloſure. It is aſtoniſhing, that any part of this cathedral ſhould have withſtood ſo many calamities. Its altars and pavements are rich in marbles; and in a ſmall court adjoining, under an octagonal cupola, is the mauſoleum of Bohemund, adorned in a minute Gothic ſtyle.

CANOURGE, a town of France, in the department of Lozere, the ci-devant territory of Gevaudan.

CAN PUMP. See CAN, § 4. No. 3.

CANQUES, in commerce, a ſort of cotton cloth made in China; with which the Chineſe make the garments next their ſkin, which are properly their ſhirts.

CANSCHY, in botany, the name of a tree in Japan, from which the inhabitants of that country make their paper.

CANSO, a ſea port of Nova Scotia, ſeated on a narrow ſtrait which ſeparates it from Cape Breton. Near this town is a fine fiſhery for cod. Lon. 60. 55. W. Lat. 45. 20. N.

CANSTAT, a town of Germany, in Suabia, in the duchy of Wirtemberg, ſituated in the river Neckar. Lon. 9. 9. W. Lat. 48. 51. N.

(1.) * CANT. *n. ſ.* [probably from *cantus*, Lat. implying the odd tone of voice uſed by vagrants; but imagined by ſome to be corrupted from *quaint*.] 1. A corrupt dialect uſed by beggars and vagabonds. 2. A particular form of ſpeaking peculiar to ſome certain claſs or body of men.—I write not always in the proper terms of navigation, land ſervice, or in the *cant* of any profeſſion. *Dryden.* If we would trace out the original of that flagrant and avowed impiety, which has prevailed among us for ſome years, we ſhould find, that it owes its riſe to that *cant* and hypocriſy, which had taken poſſeſſion of the people's minds in the times of the great rebellion. *Addiſon's Freeholder.*—Aſtrologers, with an old paltry *cant*, and a few pothooks for planets, to amuſe the vulgar, have too long been ſuffered to abuſe the world. *Swift's Predictions for the Year 1701.*—A few general rules, with a certain *cant* of words, has ſometimes ſet up an illiterate heavy writer, for a moſt judicious and formidable critick. *Addiſon's Spectator.*

2. A whining pretenſion to goodneſs, in formal and affected terms.—

Of promiſe prodigal, while pow'r you want,
And preaching in the ſelf-denying *cant*.
Dryden's Aurengz.

4. Barbarous jargon.—The affection of ſome late authours, to introduce and multiply *cant* words, is the moſt ruinous corruption in any language. *Swift.* 5. Auction.—Numbers of theſe tenants, on their deſcendants, are now offering to ſell their leaſes by *cant*, even thoſe which were for lives. *Swift.*

(2.) CANT, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) differs from *technical* in this: that the former is reſtrained to words introduced out of folly, affectation, or impoſture; (ſee CANTING LANGUAGE,) the latter is applied to ſuch as are introduced for the ſake of clearneſs, and preciſion.

(3.) CANT, (§ 1. *def.* 3.) is deduced by Skinner from the German, Flemiſh, and Saxon tongues. According to tradition, Cant was the proper name of a Cameronian preacher in Scotland, who had habituated himſelf to preach in ſuch a peculiar tone and dialect, as were underſtood by none but his own congregation; and ſince his time, the word has been extended to all ſudden exclamations, and whining unmuſical tones, eſpecially in praying and preaching. But the true derivation is plainly from the Latin *cantare*, to ſing.

(4.) CANT, ſignifying auction, (§ 1. *def.* 5.) is derived according to ſome, from *quantum*, how much; according to others, from *cantare*, to ſing or cry aloud; agreeable to which, we ſometimes alſo call it an *outcry*.

* *To* CANT, *v. n.* [from the noun.] To talk in the jargon of particular profeſſions, or in any kind of formal affected language, or with a peculiar and ſtudied tone of voice.—Men *cant* about *materia* and *forma*; hunt chimeras by rules of art, or dreſs up ignorance in words of bulk or ſound, which may ſtop up the mouth of enquiry. *Glanville.*—That uncouth affected garb of ſpeech, or *canting* language rather, if I may ſo called it, which they have of late taken up, is the ſignal diſtinction and characteriſtical note of that, which, in that their new language, they call the godly party. *Sanderſon.*

The buſy, ſubtile ſerpents of the law,
Did firſt my mind from true obedience draw;
While I did limits to the king preſcribe,
And took for oracles that *canting* tribe.
Roſcommon.

Unſkill'd in ſchemes by planets to foreſhow,
Like *canting* rafcals, how the wars will go.
Dryden's Juv.

CANTABRI. See CANTABRIANS.

CANTABRIA, a diſtrict of Terraconenſis, on the Oceanus Cantabricus, now called BISCAY. See the two next articles.

CANTABRIAN LANGUAGE. Dr Wallis makes the Cantabrian the ancient language of all Spain; which, according to him, like the Gaulliſh, gave way to a kind of broken Latin, called *romance* or *romanſhe*; which by degrees was refined into the Caſtilian, or preſent Spaniſh. But we can hardly ſuppoſe, that ſo large a country inhabited by ſuch a variety of people ſpoke all the ſame language. The ancient Cantabrian, in fact, ſtill ſubſiſts in the more barren and mountainous parts of Biſcay, Aſturias, and Navarre, as far as Bayonne, much as the Britiſh does in Wales; but the people only talk it; for in writing, they uſe either Spaniſh or French, as they happen to live under the one or the other nation. Some attribute this to a jealouſy of foreigners learning the myſteries of their language; others to a poverty of words. The Cantabrian does not appear to have any affinity with any other known language, excepting that ſome Spaniſh words have been adopted in it for things, whoſe uſe the Cantabrians were anciently unacquainted with. Its pronunciation is not diſagreeable. The Lord's prayer, in the Cantabrian tongue, runs thus: *Gure aita cervetan aicena, ſantifica bedi hire icena, ethor bedi hire reſuma, eguin bedi hire voraudatea, cervan becala lurrean ere*, &c.

CANTABRIANS, the inhabitants of Cantabria, famous for their warlike character. In conjunction with the ASTURIANS, they carried on deſperate wars with the Romans; but were ſubdued by them about A. A.'C. 25. Impatient, however, of a foreign yoke, they ſoon revolted. Moſt of their youth had been taken priſoners by the Romans, and ſold for ſlaves to the neighbouring nations; but having found means to break their chains, they cut the throats of their maſters; and returning to their own country, attacked the Roman garriſons with incredible fury. Agrippa marched againſt them with great expedition; but, on his arrival, met with ſo vigorous a reſiſtance, that his ſoldiers began to diſpair of ever reducing them. As the Cantabrians had waged war with the Romans for upwards of 200 years, they were well acquainted with their manner of fighting, no way inferior to them in courage, and were now become deſperate; knowing, that if they were conquered, after having ſo often attempted to recover their liberty, they muſt expect the moſt ſevere uſage. Animated with this reflection, they fell upon the Romans with a fury hardly to be imagined, routed them in ſeveral engagements, and defended themſelves when attacked, with ſuch intrepidity, that Agrippa afterwards owned, that he had never, either by ſea or land, been engaged in a more dangerous enterpriſe. That brave commander uſed ſtreatics and menaces, and even branded ſome of his legionaries with ignominy, before he could bring them to enter the liſts with ſuch a formidable foe. But having at laſt prevailed upon them to try the chance of an engagement in the open field, he ſo animated them by his example, that, after a moſt obſtinate diſpute, he gained a complete victory, which put an end to that deſtructive war. All the Cantabrians fit to bear arms were cut in pieces; their caſtles and ſtrong holds taken and raſed; and their women, children, and old men (none elſe being left alive,) were obliged to abandon the mountainous places, and ſettle in the plain.

CANTABRICA, in botany, a ſynonime of a ſpecies of CONVOLVULUS.

CANTABRICUS OCEANUS, the ancient name of the Bay of BISCAY.

CANTABRUM, in antiquity, a large flag uſed by the Roman emperors, diſtinguiſhed by its peculiar colour, and bearing ſome motto of good omen, to encourage the ſoldiers.

CANTACUZENUS, Johannes, a celebrated ſtateſman, general, and hiſtorian, born in Conſtantinople, of a noble family. He was bred to letters and to arms, and admitted to the higheſt offices of the ſtate. The emperor Andronicus loaded him with wealth and honours; made him generaliſſimo of his forces; and deſired him to join him in the government, but this he refuſed. Andronicus dying in 1341, left to Cantacuzenus the the care of the empire, till John Paleologus, then only 9 years of age, ſhould be fit to take it upon himſelf. This truſt he faithfully diſcharged; till the empreſs dowager and her faction forming a party againſt him, declared him a traitor. On this, the principal nobility and the army beſought him to aſcend the throne; and accordingly he was crowned, 21ſt May, 1342. This was followed by a civil war, which laſted 5 years; when he had admitted John a partner with him in the empire, and their union was confirmed by his giving him his daughter in marriage. Suſpicions and enmities, however, ſoon ariſing, the war broke out again, and continued till John took Conſtantinople, in 1355. A few days after, Cantacuzenus, unwilling to continue the effuſion of blood, abdicated his ſhare of the empire and retiring to a monaſtery, took the habit of a monk, and the name of *Joaſaphas*. His wife alſo retired to a nunnery, and changed her name to *Irene* for that of *Eugenia*. In this retirement, he lived till 1411, when he was upwards of 100 years of age. Here he wrote a hiſtory of his own times, a Latin tranſlation of which, from the Greek M. S. was publiſhed by Pontanus at Inlogſtadt, in 1603; and a ſplendid edition was printed at Paris, in 1645, in three volumes folio, of the original Greek, and Pontanus's Latin verſion. He alſo wrote an apology for the Chriſtian religion againſt that of Mahomet, under the name of *Chriſtodulus*.

CANTÆ, the ancient inhabitants of Roſs-ſhire, in Scotland.

(1.) CANTAL, a department of France, ſo named from the mountain, (N° 2.) bounded by thoſe of Lot on the W. Correze on the N. W. Puy de Dome on the N. Upper Loire and Lozere on the E. and Aveiron on the S. It is formed out of the ci-devant province of Auvergne. St Flour is the chief town.

(2.) CANTAL, a mountain in the above department, which is almoſt conſtantly covered with ſnow.

CANTALIVERS. See CANTILIVERS, & *Pl.* 22.

CANTAR, or } 1. an eaſtern weight, of
(2.) CANTARO, } different value in different places, equal at Acra in Turky to 603 pounds; at Tunis and Tripoli to 314 pounds: 2. an Egyptian weight, called alſo a QUINTAL, conſiſting of 100, or 150 rotoloos, according to the goods they are to weigh: 3. another Egyptian weight, which at Naples is equivalent to 25 pounds, at Genoa to 150 pounds: 4. at Leghorn there are 3 kinds of CANTAROS; one weighing 150 pounds, another 151, and a third 160 pounds.

(3.) CANTARO is alſo a meaſure of capacity, uſed eſpecially at Alicant, containing 3 gallons.

CANTARINI, Simon, a famous painter, called the *Peſareſe*, from his being born at Peſaro, was the diſciple of Guido; and copied the manner of his maſter ſo exactly, that it is often difficult to diſtinguiſh their works. He died at Verona in 1648.

(1.) * CANTATA. *n. ſ.* [Ital.] A ſong.

(2.) CANTATA, in muſic, is a compoſition, interwoven with recitatives, airs, and different movements, chiefly intended for a ſingle voice, with a thorough baſs, though ſometimes for other inſtruments. When performed with judgment, it is very agreeable; the variety of the movement not clogging the ear, like other compoſitions. It was firſt uſed in Italy.

* CANTATION. *n. ſ.* [from *canto*, Lat.] The act of ſinging.

CANTATRICES, in writers of the middle age, hired mourners at funerals.

CANTAZARO, an epiſcopal city of Naples, in Calabria Ulterior. It is the reſidence of the governor of the province, and is ſeated near the ſea, in Lon. 17 0. E. Lat. 38. 59. N.

(1.) CANTECROIX, a ci-devant territory of the Auſtrian Netherlands, in Brabant, now annexed to the French republic. Lire was the capital.

(2.) CANTECROIX, a town of France, in the above diſtrict, (N° 1.) now included in the department of Dyle.

CANTEENS, in military language, tin veſſels in the form of ſquare bottles, uſed for carrying water to ſupply the ſoldiers in camp.

CANTEL, or } in ancient Engliſh writers,
CANTELLUM, } a cuſtom of ſelling by the lump, without tale or meaſure.

(1.) CANTEMIR, Antiochus, eſteemed the founder of the Ruſſian poetry, was the youngeſt ſon of Demetrius, (N° 2.) Under the moſt ingenious profeſſors, whom the Czar Peter had invited to Peterſburgh, he learned mathematics, phyſic, hiſtory, moral philoſophy, and polite literature; without neglecting the ſtudy of the Holy Scriptures, to which he had a great inclination. Scarce had he finiſhed his academic courſe, when he printed a Concordance to the Pſalms in the Ruſſian language, and was elected member of the academy. The affairs of ſtate in which he was ſoon after engaged, did not make him neglect his literary purſuits. In order to make himſelf uſeful to his fellow citizens, he compoſed his ſatires, to ridicule certain prejudices which had got footing among them. When but 23 years of age, he was nominated miniſter at the court of Great Britain; and his dexterity in the management of public affairs was as much admired as his taſte for the ſciences. He had the ſame reputation at France, whither he went in 1738, in quality of miniſter plenipotentiary, and ſoon after was inveſted with the character of ambaſſador extraordinary. The wiſe and prudent manner in which he conducted himſelf during the different revolutions which happened in Ruſſia during his abſence, gained him the confidence and eſteem of 3 ſucceſſive princes. He died of a dropſy, at Pa-

, in 1744, aged 44. Beſides the pieces already entioned, he wrote, 1. Some fables and odes. A tranſlation of Horace's epiſtles into Ruſſian rſe. 3. A proſe tranſlation of Fontenelle's plu- lity of worlds; and, 4. Algarotti's dialogues on ht. The abbe Guaſco has written his life in ench, and tranſlated his ſatires into that lan- iage.

(2.) CANTEMIR, Demetrius, the ſon of a ince of Moldavia. Diſappointed by not ſuc- eding his father in that dignity, held under the ttoman Porte, he went over with his army to the ar Peter the great, againſt whom he had been it by the Grand Signior: he ſignalized himſelf the Czar's ſervice; and in the republic of let- rs, by a Latin hiſtory of the origin and decline the Ottoman empire. He died in 1723.

* CANTER. *n. ſ.* [from *cant*, Lat.] A term of proach for hypocrites, who talk formally of re- ion, without obeying it.

CANTERA, one of the principal rivers of Si- y; anciently called TAUROMINIUS.

(1.) CANTERBURY, a city of England, the pital of the county of Kent. It had the names DUROVERNUM and DARVERNUM given it by e Romans, and *Dubrobernia* by Bede, which are ought to be derived from *Durvobem*, *i. e.* a ra- d ſtream, ſuch as the Stour, on which it ſtands. he Britons call it *Caer-Kent*, *i. e.* the city of ent; and its preſent Engliſh name, from the axon, is of the ſame import. Modern writers Latin call it *Cantuaria*. Its great antiquity ap- ears not only from Antoninus's Itinerary, but om the military way diſcovered in it, and the auſeways leading to Dover and Lymme, beſides e coins and other curioſities found about it. he archiepiſcopal and metropolitan dignity was ttled here very early; and to prevent its being removed, an anathema was decreed againſt any ho ſhould attempt it. After that, the city flou- iſhed greatly; though it ſuffered in common with ther towns during the Daniſh invaſions, and at thers times by fire. It was given entirely to Bi- hop Anſelm and his ſucceſſors by William Rufus, nd was held in the utmoſt veneration in the Po- iſh times, eſpecially after the murder of Becket the reign of Henry II. to whoſe ſhrine ſo great as the reſort, and ſo rich were the offerings, that raſmus, who was an eye-witneſs of its wealth, ays the whole church and chapel in which he was tered glittered with jewels; and at the diſſolu- ion of the monaſteries, the plate and jewels filled wo great cheſts, each of which required 8 ſtrong en to carry them out. The cathedral was anted by Ethelbert, king of Kent, upon his con- erſion, to Auguſtine the monk, together with is palace, and the royalty of the city and is ter- itories. See AUGUSTINE, N° 2. After the ca- hedral had been ſeveral times deſtroyed by fire nd rebuilt, the preſent was begun about A. D. 174, and augmented and embelliſhed by the ſuc- ceeding archbiſhops, till it was completed in the eign of Henry V. It is a noble Gothic pile, and before the reformation had 37 altars. Many kings, princes, cardinals, and archbiſhops, are buried in t. At the diſſolution, Henry VIII. ſeized all the revenues both of the church and monaſtery, except what he allotted for the maintenance of a dean, 12 prebendaries, and ſix preachers, whom he e- ſtabliſhed in place of the monks. (See N° 5.) Du- ring the grand rebellion, it ſuffered much; Crom- well having made a ſtable of it for his dragoons. After the reſtoration, it was repaired, and made what it now appears. The city had anciently a caſtle on the S. ſide, and ſtrong walls, with tow- ers, a ditch, and rampart; it had alſo a mint and an exchange. As to its government, it ſeems to have been entirely ſubject to the Abp. both in ſpi- rituals and temporals, till the reformation. It is now a county of itſelf; and the corporation con- ſiſts of a mayor, recorder, 12 aldermen, a ſheriff, 24 common council-men, a mace-bearer, a ſword- bearer, and 4 ſerjeants at mace. Every Monday a court is held at Guildhall for civil and criminal cauſes; and every other Tueſday for the govern- ment of the city. Formerly 2000 or 3000 French Proteſtants were employed in the ſilk manufac- ture; but this branch is now greatly decayed in the place, ſince Spittalfields became ſo flouriſhing. Beſides the cathedral, it contains 15 pariſh church- es, 7 hoſpitals, a free ſchool, a houſe of correc- tion, a gaol for criminals, and a ſumptuous conduit for ſupplying the inhabitants with water. It con- ſiſts of 4 ſtreets, in the form of a croſs, and divided into ſix wards, which are about 3 miles in cir- cumference. It is ſurrounded on all hands with hop grounds much to its advantage, and is famed for its excellent brawn. It is ſituated 26 m. S. E. by E. of Rocheſter, and 56 from London. Lon. 1. 4. E. Lat. 51. 19. N.

(2.) CANTERBURY, a town of the United States, in Connecticut, agreeably ſituated in Windham county; on the W. ſide of the river Quimaboug, over which there is a wooden bridge. It is 9 m. E. by S. of Windham.

(3.) * CANTERBURY BELLS. See BELFLOWER.

(4.) CANTERBURY BELLS, in botany: The Eng- liſh name of a ſpecies of CAMPANULA.

(5.) CANTERBURY, DIOCESE OF. The dioceſe of Canterbury contains 257 pariſhes, beſides cha- pels, in Kent, and about 100 more in other dio- ceſes. Theſe are called *Peculiars*; it being an ancient privilege of this ſee, that, whereſoever the archbiſhops had either manors or advowſons, the place was exempted from the juriſdiction of the ordinary of the dioceſe where it was ſituated, and was deemed in the dioceſe of Canterbury. This ſee is valued in the king's books at L. 2816 : 17 : 9½, but is reckoned to produce a clear revenue of L. 8000 a-year. The clergy's tenths come to L. 651 : 18 : 2½. This ſee had many great privi- leges in the time of Popery, ſome of which it ſtill retains. The archbiſhop is accounted primate and metropolitan of England, and is the firſt peer in the realm; having the precedence of all dukes not of the blood royal, and all the great officers of ſtate. In common ſpeech, he is ſtyled *His Gra..*, and he writes himſelf *Divina Providentia*; whereas other biſhops ſtyle themſelves *Divina Permiſſione*. At coronations, he places the crown on the king's head; and, wherever the court may be, the king and queen are the proper domeſtic pariſhioners of the archbiſhop of Canterbury. The biſhop of London is accounted his provincial dean, the biſhop of Wincheſter his ſub-dean, the biſhop of Lincoln his chancellor, and the biſhop

of

BROMELIA ANANAS
Pine Apple Plant

few miles from Stroud, he firſt ſaw a pair of globes; an object that afforded him uncommon pleaſure, from the great eaſe with which he could ſolve theſe problems he had hitherto been accuſtomed to compute. The dial was beautified a few years ago at the expence of the gentlemen at Stroud, ſeveral of whom had been his ſchool-fellows, and who continued ſtill to regard it as a very diſtinguiſhed performance. Among other perſons with whom he became acquainted in early life, was the late ingenious Dr Henry Miles of Tooting, F. R. S. This gentleman, perceiving that Mr Canton poſſeſſed abilities too promiſing to be confined within the narrow limits of a country town, prevailed on his father to permit him to come to London. Accordingly he arrived at the metropolis March 4, 1737, and reſided with Miles at Tooting till the 6th of May following; when he engaged for 5 years, as clerk to Mr Watkins, maſter of the academy in Spital-ſquare. In his ſituation, his ingenuity, diligence, and good conduct, were ſo well diſplayed, that on the expiration of his clerkſhip, he was taken into partnerſhip with Mr Watkins, whom he afterwards ſucceeded in the academy, where he continued during life. In 1744, he married Penelope, niece to James Colbrooke, Eſq; banker in London. About the end of 1745, electricity received a very capital improvement by the diſcovery of the famous Leyden Phial. Mr Canton was one of the firſt who purſued the experiment, and found his aſſiduity rewarded by many capital diſcoveries. Towards the end of 1749, he made experiments to determine to what height rockets may be made to aſcend, and at what diſtance their light may be ſeen. In 1750 was read at the Royal Society, his "method of making artificial magnets, without the uſe of, and yet far ſuperior to, any natural ones." This paper procured him the honour of being elected a member of the Society, and the preſent of their gold medal. The ſame year he was complimented with the degree of M. A. by the univerſity of Aberdeen; and, in 1751, was choſen one of the council of the Royal Society. In 1752, he was ſo fortunate as to be the firſt perſon in England, who, by attracting the electric fire from the clouds during a thunder-ſtorm, verified Dr Franklin's hypotheſis of the ſimilarity of lightning and electricity. Next year, his paper intitled, "Electrical Experiments, with an attempt to account for their ſeveral Phænomena," was read at the Royal Society. In the ſame paper Mr Canton mentioned his having diſcovered, by a great number of experiments, that ſome clouds were in a poſitive, and ſome in a negative, ſtate of electricity. Dr Franklin, much about the ſame time, made the like diſcovery in America. This circumſtance, together with our author's conſtant defence of the doctor's hypotheſis, induced that excellent philoſopher, immediately on his arrival in England, to pay Mr Canton a viſit, and gave riſe to a friendſhip which ever after continued without diminution. In the "Lady's Diary for 1756," our author anſwered the prize queſtion that had been propoſed in the preceding year, viz. "How can what we call the ſhooting of ſtars be beſt accounted for; what is the ſubſtance of this phenomenon; and in what ſtate of the atmoſphere doth it moſt frequently ſhow itſelf?" The ſolution, though anonymous, was ſo ſatisfactory to his friend, Mr Thomas Simpſon, who then conducted that work, that he ſent Mr Canton the prize, accompanied with a note, in which he ſaid he was ſure that he was not miſtaken in the author of it, as no one beſides, that he knew of, could have anſwered the queſtion. Our philoſopher's next communication to the public, was a letter in the "Gentleman's Magazine for Sept. 1759," on the electrical properties of the tourmalin, in which the laws of that wonderful ſtone are laid down in a very conciſe and elegant manner. On December 13th, in the ſame year, was read at the Royal Society, "An attempt to account for the regular diurnal variation of the Horizontal Magnetic Needle; and alſo for its irregular variation at the time of an Aurora Borealis." A complete year's obſervations of the diurnal variations of the needle are annexed to the paper. On Nov. 5. 1761, he communicated to the Royal Society an account of the Tranſit of Venus, June 6, 1761, obſerved in Spital-ſquare. His next communication was a letter addreſſed to Dr Benjamin Franklin, and read Feb. 4, 1762, containing ſome remarks on Mr Delaval's electrical experiments. On Dec. 16. 1762, another curious addition was made by him to philoſophical knowledge, in a paper, intituled, "Experiments to prove that water is not incompreſſible." Theſe experiments are a complete refutation of the famous Florentine experiment, which ſo many philoſophers have mentioned as a proof of the incompreſſibility of water. On St Andrew's day 1763, he was elected the 3d time one of the council of the Royal Society; and on Nov. 8. in the following year, were read, before that learned body, his further "Experiments and obſervations on the compreſſibility of water, and ſome other fluids." The eſtabliſhment of this fact, in oppoſition to the received opinion, formed on the haſty deciſion of the Florentine academy, was thought to be deſerving of the Society's gold medal. It was accordingly moved for in the council of 1764; and after ſeveral invidious delays, which terminated much to the honour of Mr Canton, it was preſented to him Nov. 30. 1765. His next communication to the Royal Society, was on Dec. 22, 1768. "An eaſy method of making a Phoſphorus, that will imbibe and emit light like the Bolognian ſtone; with experiments and obſervations." When he firſt ſhowed to Dr Franklin the inſtantaneous light acquired by ſome of this phoſphorus from the near diſcharge of an electrified bottle, the doctor immediately exclaimed, "And God ſaid, let there be light, and there was light." The dean and chapter of St Paul's having in a letter to the preſident, dated March 6, 1769, requeſted the opinion of the Royal Society relative to the beſt and moſt effectual method of fixing electrical conductors to preſerve that cathedral from damage by lightning, Mr Canton was one of the committee appointed to take the letter into conſideration, and to report their opinion upon it. The other members were, Dr Watſon, Dr Franklin, Mr Delaval, and Mr Wilſon. Their report was made on the 8th of June following; and the mode recommended by them has been carried into execution. The

laſt paper of our author's, which was read before the Royal Society, was on Dec. 21, 1769; and contained "Experiments to prove that the Luminouſneſs of the Sea ariſes from the putrefaction of its animal ſubſtances." Beſides the above he wrote a number of papers, which appeared in different publications, particularly the Gentleman's Magazine. Mr Canton's cloſe and ſedentary life, ariſing from an unremitted attention to the duties of his profeſſion, and to the proſecution of his philoſophical enquiries and experiments, probably contributed to ſhorten his days. He fell into a dropſy, which carried him off, March 22, 1772, in the 54th year of his age.

* *To* CANTON. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To divide into little parts:—Families ſhall quit all ſubjection to him, and *canton* his empire into leſs governments for themſelves. *Locke.*—It would certainly be for the good of mankind, to have all the mighty empires and monarchies of the world *cantoned* out into petty ſtates and principalities. *Addiſon on Italy.*—The late king of Spain, reckoning it an indignity to have his territories *cantoned* out into parcels by other princes, during his own life, and without his conſent, rather choſe to bequeath the monarchy entire to a younger ſon of France. *Swift.*—They *canton* out to themſelves a little province in the intellectual world, where they fancy the light ſhines, and all the reſt is in darkneſs. *Watts on the Mind.*

CANTONING, in the military art, is the allotting diſtinct and ſeparate quarters to each regiment; the town where they are quartered being divided into as many cantons as there are regiments.

* *To* CANTONIZE. *v. a.* [from *canton.*] To parcel out into ſmall diviſions.—Thus was all Ireland *cantonized* among ten perſons of the Engliſh nation. *Davies on Ireland.*—The whole foreſt was in a manner *cantonized* amongſt a very few in number, of whom ſome had regal rights. *Howel.*

CANTREBYCHAN, a town E. of Caermarthen.

(1.) * CANTRED. *n. ſ.* The ſame in Wales as an *hundred* in England. For *cantre*, in the Britiſh language, ſignifieth an hundred. *Cowel.*—The king regrants to him all that province, reſerving only the city of Dublin, and the *cantreds* next adjoining, with the maritime towns. *Davis on Ireland.*

(2.) CANTRED, or CANTREF, } is a Britiſh word, compounded of the adjective *cant*, i. e. hundred; and *tref*, a town or village.

CANTRENAW, a town, N. of Caermarthen.

CANT-TIMBERS, in ſhip-building, thoſe timbers which are ſituated at the two ends of a ſhip. They derive their name from being *canted*, or raiſed obliquely from the keel; in contradiſtinction from thoſe whoſe planes are perpendicular to it. The upper ends of thoſe on the bow, or fore part of the ſhip, are inclined to the ſtern; as thoſe in the after, or hind part, incline to the ſtern-poſt above. See SHIP-BUILDING.

CANTYRE. See KINTYRE.

CANTZ, a town of Sileſia in Germany. Lon. 16. 36. E. Lat. 51. 6. N.

(1.) CANVAS, in commerce, 1. a very clear unbleached cloth of hemp, or flax, wove regularly in little ſquares. It is uſed for working tapeſtry with the needle, by paſſing the threads of gold, ſilver, ſilk, or wool, through the intervals of ſquares. 2. A coarſe cloth of hemp, unbleached, ſomewhat clear, which ſerves to cover women's ſtays; to ſtiffen men's clothes, and to make ſome other of their wearing apparel, &c.

(2.) CANVAS, among painters, is the cloth on which they uſually draw their pictures; the canvas being ſmoothed over with a ſlick-ſtone, the ſized, afterwards whited over, makes what the painters call their *primed cloth*, on which they draw their firſt ſketches with coal or chalk, and afterwards finiſh with colours.

(3.) CANVAS is alſo uſed among the French for the model or firſt words whereon an air or piece of muſic is compoſed, and given to a poet to regulate and finiſh. The canvas of a ſong contains certain notes of the compoſer, which ſhow the poet the meaſure of the verſes he is to make. Thus Du Lot ſays, he has canvas for ten ſonnets againſt the Muſes.

(4.) * CANVASS. *n. ſ.* [*canevas*, Fr. *cannabis*, Lat. hemp.] 1. A kind of linen cloth woven for ſeveral uſes, as ſails, painting cloths, tents.—The maſter commanded forthwith to ſet on all the *canvaſs* they could, and fly homeward. *Sidney.*—

And eke the pens that did his pinions bind,
Were like main yards with flying *canvaſs* lin'd. *Spenſer.*

Their *canvaſs* caſtles up they quickly rear,
And build a city in an hour's ſpace. *Fanſhaw.*

Where-e'er thy navy ſpreads her *canvaſs* wings,
Homage to thee, and peace to all ſhe brings. *Waller.*

With ſuch kind paſſion haſtes the prince to fight,
And ſpreads his flying canvaſs to the Sound:
Him whom no danger, were he there, could fright;
Now abſent, every little noiſe can wound. *Dryd.*

Thou, Kneller, long with noble pride,
The foremoſt of thy art, haſt vy'd
With nature in a generous ſtrife,
And touch'd the *canvaſs* into life. *Addiſon.*

2. The act of ſifting voices, or trying them previouſly to the deciſive act of voting: [from *canvas*, as it ſignifies a ſieve.] There be that can pack cards, and yet cannot play well: ſo there are ſome that are good in *canvaſſes* and factions, that are otherwiſe weak men. *Bacon.*

(1.) * *To* CANVASS. *v. a.* [*Skinner* derives it from *cannabaſſer*, Fr. to beat hemp; which being a very laborious employment, it is uſed to ſignify, to ſearch diligently into.] 1. To ſift; to examine: from *canvaſs*, a ſtraining cloth.—I have made careful ſearch on all hands, and *canvaſſed* the matter with all poſſible diligence. *Woodward.* 2. To debate; to diſcuſs.—The curs diſcovered a raw hide in the bottom of a river, and laid their heads together how to come at it: they *canvaſſed* the matter one way and t'other, and concluded, that the way to get it, was to drink their way to it. *L'Eſtr.*

(2.) * *To* CANVASS. *v. n.* To ſolicit; to try votes previouſly to the deciſive act.—Elizabeth being to reſolve upon an officer, and being, by ſome that *canvaſſed* for others, put in ſome doubt of that perſon ſhe meant to advance, ſaid, ſhe was like one with a lanthorn ſeeking a man. *Bacon.*—This crime of *canvaſſing*, or ſoliciting for church preferment,

reſerment, is, by the canon law, called ſimony. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

CANVEY, an iſle in the county of Eſſex, oppoſite to the Hope, about 5 miles long, from Hole Haven to Leigh; upon which great numbers of ſheep are fed. It is often overflowed by the Thames, which at this place is 2 miles broad; except the hilly part, to which the ſheep retire. A fair is held upon it, June 25.

CANULA. See CANNULA.

CANUSIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Apulia, on the S. ſide of the Aufidus, W. of Canuſium; whither the Romans fled after the defeat ſuſtained there. It was founded by Diomede, and afterwards became a Roman colony. It was famous for its red ſhining wool; whence thoſe who wore clothes made of it were called *Canuſinati.* It is now called CANOSA; which ſee.

CANUTE, the firſt Daniſh king of England. He married Emma widow of king Ethelred; and put to death ſeveral perſons of quality who ſtood in his way to the crown. Having thus ſettled his power in England, he made a voyage to his other kingdom of Denmark, in order to reſiſt the attacks of the king of Sweden; and he carried along with him a great body of the Engliſh under the command of earl Godwin. This nobleman had here an opportunity of performing a ſervice by which he both reconciled the king's mind to the Engliſh nation, and, gaining to himſelf the friendſhip of his ſovereign, laid the foundation of that immenſe fortune which he acquired to his family. He was ſtationed next the Swediſh camp; and, obſerving a favourable opportunity, he attacked the enemy in the night, drove them from their trenches, and obtained a deciſive victory over them. Next morning, Canute, ſeeing the Engliſh camp entirely abandoned, imagined that theſe diſaffected troops had deſerted to the enemy; but he was agreeably ſurpriſed to find that they were engaged in purſuit of the diſcomfited Swedes. He was ſo pleaſed with this ſucceſs, and the manner of obtaining it, that he beſtowed his daughter in marriage upon Godwin, and treated him ever after with the moſt entire confidence. In another voyage which he afterwards made to Denmark, Canute attacked Norway, and expelled the juſt but unwarlike Olaus from his kingdom, of which he kept poſſeſſion till the death of that prince. He had now by his conqueſts and valour obtained the utmoſt height of his ambition; and having leiſure from wars and intrigues, he felt the unſatisfactory nature of all human enjoyments; and, equally weary of the glory and turmoils of this life, he began to caſt his view towards that future exiſtence which is ſo natural for the human mind, whether ſatiated by proſperity or diſguſted with adverſity, to make the object of its attention. Unfortunately the ſpirit which prevailed in that age gave a wrong direction to his devotion; and, inſtead of making atonement to thoſe whom he had formerly injured by his acts of violence, he entirely employed himſelf in thoſe exerciſes of piety which the monks repreſented as moſt meritorious. He built churches, endowed monaſteries, enriched eccleſiaſtics, and beſtowed revenues for the ſupport of chantries, where he appointed prayers to be ſaid for the ſouls of thoſe who had fallen in battle againſt him. He even undertook a pilgrimage to Rome, and, beſides obtaining from the Pope ſome privileges for the Engliſh ſchool erected there, he engaged all the princes through whoſe dominions he paſſed, to deſiſt from thoſe heavy impoſitions which they were accuſtomed to exact from the Engliſh pilgrims. By this ſpirit of devotion, no leſs than by his equitable adminiſtration, he gained in a good meaſure the affections of his ſubjects. Being the moſt powerful prince of his time, ſovereign of Denmark, Norway and England, he could not fail to meet with adulation from his courtiers; a tribute which is liberally paid even to the meaneſt and weakeſt of princes. Some of his flatterers, breaking out one day in admiration of his grandeur, exclaimed, that every thing was poſſible for him: upon which the monarch, it is ſaid, ordered a chair to be ſet on the ſea ſhore while the tide was making; and, as the waters approached, he commanded them to retire, and to obey the voice of him who was lord of the ocean. He feigned to ſit ſome time in expectation of their ſubmiſſion; but when the ſea ſtill advanced towards him, and began to waſh him with its billows, he turned to his courtiers, and remarked to them, That every creature in the univerſe was feeble and impotent, and that power reſided with one Being alone, in whoſe hands were all the elements of nature, who could ſay to the ocean, "Thus far ſhalt thou go, and no farther," and who could level with his nod the moſt towering piles of human pride and ambition. From that time, it is ſaid, he never would wear a crown. He died in the 20th year of his reign; and was interred at Wincheſter.

CANWELL, a village in Staffordſhire, 3 miles S. W. of Tamworth.

CANWICK, a town near Lincoln.

* CANY. *adj.* [from *cane.*] 1. Full of canes. 2. Conſiſting of canes.—

But in his way lights on the barren plains
Of Sericana, where Chineſes drive,
With ſails and wind, their *cany* waggons light.
Milton.

CANYEKE, the N. W. point of the Land's End, Cornwall.

CANYFORK, a ſhort navigable river of the United States, in Tenaiſſe, which riſes on the W. ſide of the Cumberland mountains, and running N. W. falls into Cumberland river, 50 miles above Naſhville.

CANZONE, in muſic, ſignifies, in general, a ſong, where ſome little fugues are introduced: but it is ſometimes uſed for a ſort of Italian poem, uſually pretty long, to which muſic may be compoſed in the ſtile of a cantata. If this term be added to a piece of inſtrumental muſic, it ſignifies much the ſame as cantata: if placed in any part of a ſonata, it implies the ſame meaning as *allegro*, and only denotes that the part to which it is prefixed is to be played or ſung in a briſk and lively manner.

* CANZONET. *n. ſ.* [*canzonetta*, Ital.] A little ſong.—Vecchi was moſt pleaſing of all others, for his conceit and variety, as well his madrigals as *canzonets. Peacham.*

CANZONETTA, a diminutive of canzone, denoting a little ſhort ſong. The canzonette neapo-

litane has two ſtrains, each whereof is ſung twice over, as the vaudevilles of the French: The canzonette ſiciliane is a ſpecies of jigg, the meaſure whereof is uſually 12 eighths, and 6 eighths, and ſometimes both, as rondeaus.

(1.) CAORLO, a ſmall iſland in the gulf of Venice, on the coaſt of Friuli, 20 miles S. W. of Aquileia, ſubject to Venice.

(2.) CAORLO, a town in the above iſland, N° 1

CAOUTCHOUC. See GUM, ELASTIC.

(1.) * CAP. *n. ſ.* [*cap*, Welch; *cappe*, Saxon; *cappe*, Germ. *cappe*, Fr. *coppa*, Ital. *capa*, Span. *koppe*, Dan. and Dutch; *caput*, a head, Latin.]

1. The garment that covers the head.—

Here is the *cap* your worſhip did beſpeak.—
Why, this was moulded on a porringer,
A velvet diſh. *Shakeſp. Taming the Shrew.*

I have ever held my *cap* off to thy fortune.—
—Thou has ſerv'd me with much faith. *Shak.*

Firſt, lolling ſloth, in woollen *cap*,
Taking her after-dinner nap. *Swift.*

The *cap*, the whip, the maſculine attire,
For which they roughen to the ſenſe.
Thomſon's Autumn.

2. The enſign of the cardinalate.—

Henry the fifth did ſometimes prophely,
If once he came to be a cardinal,
He'd make his *cap* coequal with the crown.
Shakeſpeare's Henry VI.

3. The topmoſt; the higheſt.—

Thou art the *cap* of all the fools alive.
Shakeſp. Timon.

4. A reverence made by uncovering the head.—

They more and leſs, came in with *cap* and knee,
Met him in boroughs, cities, villages.
Shakeſp. Henry IV.

—Should the want of a *cap* or a cringe ſo mortally diſcompoſe him, as we find afterwards it did. *L'Eſtrange.* 5. A veſſel made like a cap.—It is obſerved, that a barrel or *cap*, whoſe cavity will contain eight cubical feet of air, will not ſerve a diver above a quarter of an hour. *Wilkins.* 6. *Cap of a great gun.* A piece of lead laid over the touch-hole to preſerve the prime. 7. *Cap of maintenance.* One of the regalia carried before the king at the coronation.

(2.) CAP, in ſhip-building, a ſtrong, thick, block of wood, uſed to confine two maſts together, when one is erected at the head of the other in order to lengthen it. It is furniſhed with two holes perpendicular to its length and breadth, and parallel to its thickneſs: one of theſe is ſquare, and the other round; the former being ſolidly fixed upon the upper end of the lower maſt, whilſt the latter receives the maſt employed to lengthen it, and ſecures it in this poſition.

(3.) CAPS, ANCIENT. The Romans wore many ages without any regular covering for the head: when either the rain or ſun was troubleſome, the lappet of the gown was thrown over the head; and hence it is that all the ancient ſtatues appear bareheaded, excepting ſometimes a wreath or the like. And the ſame uſage obtained among the Greeks, where, at leaſt during the heroic age, no caps were known. The ſort of caps or covers of head in uſe among the Romans on divers occaſions, were the *galerus*, *pileus*, *cucullus*, *mafortius*, and *pallium*; the differences between which are often confounded by ancient as well as modern writers.

(4.) CAPS, EARLIEST MODERN USE OF. The uſe of caps and hats is referred to the year 1449, the firſt ſeen in theſe parts of the world being at the entry of Charles VII. into Rouen: from that time they began to take place of the chaperons, or hoods, that had been uſed till then. When the cap was of velvet, they called it *mortier*; when of wool, ſimply *bonnet*. None but kings, princes, and knights, were allowed the uſe of the mortier. The cap was the head-dreſs of the clergy and graduates. Paſquier ſays, that it was anciently a part of the hood worn by the people of the robe; the ſkirts whereof being cut off as an incumbrance, left the round cap an eaſy commodious cover for the head; which round cap being afterwards aſſumed by the people, thoſe of the gown charged it for a ſquare one, firſt invented by a Frenchman, called Patroillet: he adds, that the giving of the cap to the ſtudents in the univerſities, was to denote, that they had acquired full liberty, and were no longer ſubject to the rod of their ſuperiors; in imitation of the ancient Romans, who gave a *pileus*, or cap, to their ſlaves, in the ceremony of making them free: whence the proverb, *Ivere servos ad pileum*. Hence, alſo, on medals, the cap is the ſymbol of liberty, whom they repreſent holding a cap in her right hand, by the point. In painting, the goddeſs of liberty is generally repreſented, as holding a pole with the cap on the top of it.

(5.) CAPS, MODERN. The French clergy wear a ſhallow kind of cap, called *calotte*, which only covers the top of the head, made of leather, ſatin, worſted, or other ſtuff. The *red cap* is a mark of dignity allowed only to thoſe who are raiſed to the cardinalate. During the firſt 5 years of the French revolution, the red cap was a mark of democracy. The ſecular clergy are diſtinguiſhed by black leathern caps, the regulars by knit and worſted ones. Churchmen, and members of univerſities, ſtudents in law, phyſic, &c. as well as graduates, wear ſquare caps. In moſt univerſities, doctors are diſtinguiſhed by peculiar caps, given them in aſſuming the doctorate. In that of Edinburgh, the principal only touches the young graduates head with a velvet cap. Wickliff calls the canons of his time *biſſarati*, from their caps. Paſquier obſerves, that, in his time, the caps worn by the churchmen, &c. were called ſquare caps, though, in effect, they were round yellow caps. The Chineſe have not the uſe of the hat, like us, but wear a cap of peculiar ſtructure, which the laws of civility will not allow them to put off: it is different for the different ſeaſons of the year: that uſed in ſummer is in form of a cope, ending at top in a point. It is made of a very beautiful kind of mat, much valued in that country, and lined with ſattin: to this is added, at top, a large lock of red ſilk, which falls all round as low as the bottom; ſo that, in walking, the ſilk fluctuating regularly on all ſides, makes a graceful appearance: ſometimes, inſtead of ſilk, they uſe a kind of bright red hair, the luſtre whereof is ſometimes effaces. In winter they wear a plain cap, lined with [illegible]

reſt, like thoſe for the ſummer. Theſe caps are frequently ſold for 8 or 10 crowns; but they are ſo ſhort, that the ears are expoſed. The cap is ſometimes uſed as a mark of infamy; in Italy the Jews are diſtinguiſhed by a yellow cap; at Lucca by an orange one. In France, by the ci devant laws, thoſe who had been bankrupts were obliged ever after to wear a green cap, to prevent people from being impoſed on in any future commerce. By ſeveral arrets, in 1584, 1622, 1628, 1688, it was decreed, that if they were at any time found without their green cap, their protection ſhould be null, and their creditors empowered to caſt them into priſon; but theſe laws were become obſolete before the revolution.

(6.) CAPS OF MAINTENANCE, See § 1. *def.* 7. Caps of maintenance are alſo carried before the mayors of the ſeveral cities in England.

* *To* CAP. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To cover on the top.—The bones next the joint are *capped* with a ſmooth cartilaginous ſubſtance, ſerving both to ſtrength and motion. *Derham.* 2. To deprive of the cape.—If one, by another occaſion, take any thing for another, as boys ſometimes uſe to *cap* one another, the ſame is ſtraight felony. *Spenſer on Ireland.* 3. *To cap verſes.* To name alternately verſes beginning with a particular letter; to name in oppoſition or emulation; to name alternately in conteſt.—

Where Henderſon, and th' other maſſes,
Were ſent to *cap* texts, and put caſes. *Hudibras.*

—Sure it is a pitiful pretence to ingenuity, that can be thus kept up, there being little need of any other faculty but memory, to be able to *cap* texts. *Government of the Tongue.*—There is an authour of ours, whom I would deſire him to read, before he ventures at *capping* characters. *Litterbury.*

* CAPABILITY. *n. ſ.* [from *capable.*] Capacity; the quality of being capable.—

Sure he that made us with ſuch large diſcourſe,
Looking before, and after gave us not
That *capability* and godlike reaſon
To ruſt in us unus'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

* CAPABLE. *adj.* [*capable*, Fr.] 1. Sufficient to contain; ſufficiently capacious.—When we conſider ſo much of that ſpace, as is equal to, or *capable* to receive a body of any aſſigned dimenſions. *Locke.* 2. Endued with powers equal to any particular thing.—To ſay, that the more *capable*, or the better deſerver, hath ſuch right to govern, as he may compulſorily bring under the leſs worthy, is idle. *Bacon.*—When you hear any perſon give his judgment, conſider with yourſelf whether he be a *capable* judge. *Watts.* 3. Intelligent; able to underſtand.—

Look you, how pale he glares;
His form and cauſe conjoined, preaching to ſtones,
Would make them *capable*, *Shakeſp. Hamlet.*

4. Intellectually capacious; able to receive.—I am much bound to God, that he hath endued you with one *capable* of the beſt inſtructions. *Digby.* 5. Suſceptible.—

The ſoul, immortal ſubſtance to remain,
Conſcious of joy, and *capable* of pain. *Prior.*

6. Qualified for; without any natural impediment.—There is no man that believes the goodneſs of God, but muſt be inclined to think, that he hath made ſome things for as long a duration as they are *capable* of. *Tillotſon.* 7. Qualified for; with legal impediment.—

Of my land,
Loyal and natural boy! I'll work the means
To make thee *capable*. *Shakeſp. King Lear.*

8. It has the particle *of* before a noun.—

What ſecret ſprings their eager paſſions move,
How *capable of* death for injur'd love!
Dryden's Virgil.

9. Hollow. This ſenſe is not now in uſe.—

Lean but upon a ruſh,
The cicatrice, and *capable* impreſſure,
Thy palm ſome moments keeps.
Shakeſp. As you like it.

* CAPABLENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *capable.*] The quality or ſtate of being capable; knowledge; underſtanding; power of mind.

CAPACIO, an epiſcopal town of Italy, in Naples. Lon. 15. 18. E. Lat. 40. 40. N.

* CAPACIOUS. *adj.* [*capax*, Lat.] 1. Wide; large; able to hold much.—

Beneath th' inceſſant weeping of thoſe drains,
I ſee the rocky Siphons ſtretch'd immenſe,
The mighty reſervoirs of harden'd chalk,
Or ſtiff compacted clay, *capacious* found.
Thomſon's Autumn.

2. Extenſive; equal to much knowledge, or great deſign.—There are ſome perſons of a good genius, and a *capacious* mind, who write and ſpeak very obſcurely. *Watts.*

* CAPACIOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *capacious.*] The power of holding or receiving; largeneſs.—A concave meaſure, of known and denominate capacity, ſerves to meaſure the *capaciouſneſs* of any other veſſel. In like manner, to a given weight, the weight of all other bodies may be reduced, and ſo found out. *Holder on Time.*

* *To* CAPACITATE. *v. a.* [from *capacity.*] To make capable; to enable; to qualify.—By this inſtruction we may be *capacitated* to obſerve thoſe errours. *Dryden.*—Theſe ſort of men were ſycophants only, and were endued with arts of life, to *capacitate* them for the converſation of the rich and great. *Tatler.*

(1.) * CAPACITY. *n. ſ.* [*capacité*, Fr.] 1. The power of holding or containing any thing.—

Had our palace the *capacity*
To camp this hoſt, we would all ſup together.
Shakeſpeare.

Notwithſtanding thy *capacity*
Receiveth as the ſea, nought enters there,
Of what validity and pitch ſoe'er,
But falls into abatement and low price.
Shakeſp. Tw. Night.

For they that moſt and greateſt things embrace,
Enlarge thereby their mind's *capacity*,
As ſtreams enlarg'd, enlarge the channel's ſpace.
Davies.

—Space, conſidered in length, breadth, and thickneſs, I think, may be called *capacity*. *Locke.* 2. Room; ſpace.—There remained, in the *capacity* of the exhauſted cylinder, ſtore of little rooms, or ſpaces, empty or devoid of air. *Boyle.* 3. The force

force or power of the mind.—No intellectual creature is able, by *capacity*, to do that which nature doth without *capacity*. *Hooker*.—In ſpiritual natures, ſo much as there is of deſire, ſo much there is alſo of *capacity* to receive. I do not ſay, there is always a *capacity* to receive the very thing they deſire, for that may be impoſſible. *South*.—An heroick poem requires the accompliſhment of ſome extraordinary undertaking; which requires the duty of a ſoldier, and the *capacity* and prudence of a general. *Dryden's Fun. Dedication*.—4. Power; ability.—

Since the world's wide frame does not include
A cauſe with ſuch *capacities* endu'd,
Some other cauſe o'er nature muſt preſide.
Blackmore.

5. State; condition; character.—A miraculous revolution, reducing many from the head of a triumphant rebellion, to their old condition of maſons, ſmiths, and carpenters; that, in this *capacity*, they might repair what, as colonels and captains, they had ruined and defaced. *South*.—You deſire my thoughts as a friend, and not as a member of parliament; they are the ſame in both *capacities*. *Swift*.

(2.) CAPACITY, in geometry, the ſolid contents of any body. Our hollow meaſures for wine, beer, corn, ſalt, &c. are called *meaſures of capacity*.

(3.) CAPACITY, in law, the ability of a man, or body politic, to give or take lands or other things, or ſue actions. Our law allows the king two capacities; a natural, and a political: in the firſt, he may purchaſe lands to him and his heirs; in the ſecond, to him and his ſucceſſors. The clergy of the church of England have the like.

* CAP A PE. } [*cap à pié*, Fr.] From head to
* CAP A PIE. } foot; all over.

A figure like your father,
Arm'd at all points exactly, *cap à pé*,
Appears before them, and, with ſolemn march,
Goes ſlow and ſtately by them. *Shakeſp. Ham.*

There for the two contending knights he ſent,
Arm'd *cap à pié*, with rev'rence low they bent.
Dryden.

A woodlouſe,
That folds up itſelf in itſelf for a houſe,
As round as a ball, without head, without tail,
Inclos'd *cap à pe* in a ſtrong coat of mail. *Swift*.

(1.) * CAPARISON. *n. ſ.* [*caparaçon*, a great cloke, Span.] A horſe-cloth, or a ſort of cover for a horſe, which is ſpread over his furniture. *Farrier's Dict.*—

Tilting furniture, emblazon'd ſhields,
Impreſſes quaint, *capariſons*, and ſteeds,
Baſes, and tinſel trappings, gorgeous knights,
At jouſt, and tournament. *Paradiſe Loſt*.

Some wore a breaſtplate, and a light juppon;
Their horſes cloath'd with rich *capariſon*.
Dryden's Fab.

(2.) CAPARISONS, or CAPARASONS, were anciently a kind of iron armour wherewith horſes were covered in battle.

* *To* CAPARISON. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To dreſs in capariſons.—

The ſteeds, *capariſon'd* with purple, ſtand;
With golden trappings, glorious to behold,
And champ betwixt their teeth the foaming gold.
Dryden.

2. To dreſs pompouſly: in a ludicrous ſenſe.—Don't you think though I am *capariſoned* like a man, I have a doublet and hoſe in my diſpoſition? *Shakeſp. As you like it*.

CAPASH, a kind of head-dreſs worn by the women of Candia, of a ſtiffened fine muſlin, made ſo as to ſtand up very high, and extend out a great way on the right ſide.

* CAPE. *n. ſ.* [*cape*, Fr.] 1. Headland; promontory.—

What from the *cape* can you diſcern at ſea?
—Nothing at all; it is a high wrought flood.
Shakeſp. Oth.

The parting ſun,
Beyond the earth's green *cape*, and verdant iſles
Heſperean ſets; my ſignal to depart.
Paradiſe Loſt.

—The Romans made war upon the Tarentines, and obliged them by treaty not to ſail beyond the *cape*. *Arbuthnot*. 2. The neck-piece of a cloke.—He was clothed in a robe of fine black cloth, with wide ſleeves and *cape*. *Bacon*.

CAPE BRETON. See BRETON.
CAPE COAST CASTLE. See COAST.
CAPE DOUGLAS. See DOUGLAS.

CAPEDUNCULA, in Roman antiquity, the veſſels wherein the ſacred fire of Veſta was preſerved.

CAPE ELK. See CERVUS.
CAPE FEAR. See FEAR.
CAPE FLATTERY. See FLATTERY.
CAPE FRANCIS. See FRANCIS.
CAPE FRANCOIS. See FRANCOIS.
CAPE HATTERAS. See HATTERAS.
CAPE HORN. See HORN.

CAPEL, the name of 4 villages: 1. in Kent, between Dover and Folkſton: 2. in ditto, S. E. of Tunbridge: 3. in Suffolk near Oxford: and, 4. in Yorkſh. N. of Howdon.

CAPELL, Edward, a gentleman well known by his indefatigable attention to the works of Shakeſpeare, was born in Suffolk, and educated at St Edmund's Bury. In the dedication of his edition of Shakeſpeare, in 1768, to the duke of Grafton, he obſerves, that "his father and the grandfathers of his grace were friends, and to the patronage of the deceaſed nobleman he owed the leiſure which enabled him to beſtow the attention of 20 years on that work." The office which his grace beſtowed on Mr Capell was that of deputy inſpector of plays, to which a ſalary is annexed of L. 200 a year. So early as 1745, ſhocked at the licentiouſneſs of Hanmer's plan, he firſt projected an edition of Shakeſpeare, of the ſtricteſt accuracy, to be collated and publiſhed, in due time, *ex fidi codicum*. He immediately proceeded to collect and compare the oldeſt and ſcarceſt copies; noting the original excellencies and defects of the rareſt quartos, and diſtinguiſhing the improvements or variations of the 1ſt, 2d, and 3d folios; and, after many years labour produced a very beautiful ſmall octavo, in 10 volumes, with "an Introduction." There is not, ſay the authors of the Monthly Review, among the various publications

publications of the preſent literary æra, a more ſingular compoſition than that "Introduction." In ſtyle and manner, it is more obſolete and antique, than the age of which it treats. It is Lord Herbert of Cherbury, walking the new pavement in all the trappings of romance; but, like Lord Herbert, it diſplays many valuable qualities accompanying this air of extravagance, much ſound ſenſe, and appropriate erudition. In the title page of "Mr William Shakeſpeare his Comedies, Hiſtories and Tragedies," it was alſo announced and promulgated, "Whereunto will be added, ſome other volumes, notes critical and explanatory, and a body of various readings entire." "The Introduction" likewiſe declared, that theſe "notes and various readings" would be accompanied with another work, diſcloſing the ſources from which Shakeſpeare "drew the greater part of his knowledge in mythological and claſſical matters, his fable, his hiſtory, and even the ſeeming peculiarities of his languages—to which," ſays Mr Capell, "we have given for title, The School of Shakeſpeare." Nothing ſurely could be more properly conceived than ſuch deſigns, nor have we ever met with any thing better grounded on the ſubject of "the learning of Shakeſpeare" than what may be found in the long note to this part of Mr Capell's Introduction. It is more ſolid than even the popular "Eſſay" on this topic. Certain quaintneſſes of ſtyle, and peculiarities of printing and punctuation, attended the whole of this publication. The outline, however, was correct; and the critic, with unremitting toil, proceeded in this undertaking. But while he was diving into the claſſics of Caxton (to continue the Reviewers account,) and working his way underground, like the river Mole, in order to emerge with all his glories; while he was looking forward to his triumphs; certain other active ſpirits went to work upon his plan, and, digging out the promiſed treaſures, laid them prematurely before the public, defeating the effect of our critic's diſcoveries by anticipation. Steevens, Malone, Farmer, Percy, Reed, and a whole hoſt of literary ferrets, burrowed into every hole and corner of the warren of modern antiquity, and over-ran all the country, whoſe map had been delineated by Edward Capell. Such a contingency nearly ſtaggered the ſteady and unſhaken perſeverance of our critic, at the very eve of the completion of his labours, (for, alas! at the end of near 40 years, the publication was poſthumous, and the critic himſelf no more!) and he was almoſt determined to lay the work wholly aſide. He perſevered, however, by the encouragement of ſome noble and worthy perſons; and in 1783, appeared 3 large volumes in 4to, entitled "Notes and various readings of Shakeſpeare; together with the School of Shakeſpeare, or Extracts from divers Engliſh books, that were in print in the Author's time; evidently ſhowing from whence his ſeveral Fables were taken, and ſome parcel of his Dialogue. Alſo farther Extracts, which contribute to a due underſtanding of his Writings or give a light to the Hiſtory of his Life, or to the Dramatic Hiſtory of his Time." Mr Capell was alſo the editor of a volume of ancient poems, called "Proluſions;" and the alteration of Antony and Cleopatra," as acted at Drury Lane, in 1758. He died Jan. 24, 1781.

CAPELLA, in aſtronomy, a bright fixed ſtar in the left ſhoulder of the conſtellation Auriga.

CAPELLAR HILL, in Herefordſh. near Brockhampton.

CAPELLA St SPIRITOUS, in W. Medina, Iſle of Wight.

CAPELLE, a town of France, in the department of Aiſne, and ci-devant province of Picardy, 8 m. N. E. of Guiſe. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1636; but retaken the year after. Lon. 3. 59. E. Lat. 49. 58. N.

CAPELLETS, in farriery. See FARRIERY.

CAPELLUS, Lewis, an eminent French Proteſtant divine, born at Sedan, about 1579. He was author of ſome learned works; but is chiefly known from the controverſy he engaged in with the younger Buxtorf concerning the antiquity of Hebrew points, which Capellus undertook to diſprove. His *Critica Sacra* was alſo an elaborate work, and excited ſome diſputes. He died in 1658, having made an abridgement of his life in his work *De gente Capellorum*.

CAPE LOOK OUT. See LOOK-OUT.

CAPEL'S COURT, a village of Kent, in Romney marſh, near Ivy church.

CAPE MAY. See MAY.

CAPE NEWENHAM. See NEWENHAM.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE. See GOOD HOPE.

CAPE OX, or BUFFALO. See BOS, N° IV. § ii.

(1.) * CAPER. *n. ſ.* [from *caper*, Latin, a goat.] A leap; a jump; a ſkip.—We that are true lovers, run into ſtrange *capers*; but as all is mortal in nature, ſo is all nature in love mortal in folly. *Shakeſp. As you like it.*—Flimnap, the treaſurer, is allowed to cut a *caper* on the ſtrait rope, at leaſt an inch higher than any other lord in the whole empire. *Swift's Gulliver's Travels.*

(2.) * CAPER. *n. ſ.* [*capparis*, Lat.] An acid pickle. See CAPER-BUSH.—We invent new ſauces and pickles, which reſemble the animal ferment in taſte and virtue, as mangoes, olives, and capers. *Floyer on the Humours.*

(3.) CAPER. See CAPPARIS.

(4.) CAPER, in ſhipping, a veſſel uſed by the Dutch for cruiſing and taking prizes from the enemy; in which ſenſe, caper amounts to the ſame with privateer. Capers are commonly double officered, and crowded with hands even beyond the rates of ſhips of war, becauſe the thing chiefly in view is boarding the enemies.

(5.) CAPER BEAN. See ZYGOPHYLLUM.

(6.) * CAPER BUSH. *n. ſ.* [*capparis*, Lat.] The fruit is fleſhy, and ſhaped like a pear. This plant grows in the South of France, in Spain and Italy, upon old walls and buildings; and the buds of the flowers, before they are open, are pickled for eating. *Miller.*

* *To* CAPER. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To dance frolickſomely.—The truth is, I am only old in judgment; and he that will *caper* with me for a thouſand marks, let him lend me the money, and have at him. *Shakeſ. Henry* IV. 2. To ſkip for merriment.—

Our maſter
Cap'ring to eye her. *Shakeſp. Tempeſt.*

His

His nimble hand's instinct then taught each string
A *cap'ring* cheerfulness, and made them sing
To their own dance. *Crashaw.*
—The family tript it about, and *caper'd*, like hath-stones bounding from a marble floor. *Arbuthnot's John Bull.* 3. To dance: spoken in contempt.—
— The hare would need no force, nor long,
nor dance;
Nor *capering* monsieur from afric France. *Ramsay.*
* CAPERER. *n. s.* [from *caper.*] A dancer: in contempt.—
The tumbler's gambols some delight afford;
No less the nimble *caperer* on the cord:
But these are still insipid stuff to thee,
Coop'd in a ship, and toss'd upon the sea.
Dryden's Juv.

(1.) CAPERNAUM, a city celebrated in the gospels, being the place where Jesus usually resided during the time of his ministry. This city is no where mentioned in the Old Testament under this or any other name like it; and therefore it is probable that it was built after the return from the Babylonish captivity. It stood on the coast of Galilee, in the borders of Zebulon and Nephtalim (Matt. iv. 13.) and took its name from an adjacent spring (N° 2.) which probably was an inducement to build the town in the place where it stood. Capernaum was said by our Lord himself to be *exalted unto heaven*; but because its inhabitants made no right use of the privileges they enjoyed, he denounced, that it should *be brought down to hell* (Matt. xi. 23.) which has certainly been verified: for, as Dr Wells observes, so far is it from being the metropolis of all Galilee, as it once was, that it consisted long ago of no more than six poor cottages.

(2.) CAPERNAUM, a spring near the city, (N° 1.) mentioned by Josephus, as famous for its clear and limpid waters.

CAPEROLANS, a congregation of religious in Italy, so called from Peter Caperole their founder, in the 15th century. The Milanese and Venetians being at war, the enmity occasioned thereby spread itself to the very cloisters. The superiors of minor brothers, of the province of Milan, which extended itself as far as the territories of the republic of Venice, carried it so haughtily over the Venetians, that those of the convent of Brescia resolved to shake off a yoke which was grown insupportable to them. The superiors, informed of this, expelled the principal authors of this design; viz. Peter Caperole, Matthew de Tharvillo and Bonaventure of Brescia. Peter Caperole, a man of an enterprising genius, found means to separate the convents of Brescia, Bergamo, and Cremona, from the province of Milan, and subject them to the contentuals. This occasioned a law-suit between the vicar general and these convents, which was determined in favour of the latter; and these convents, in 1475, by the authority of Pope Sixtus IV. were erected into a distinct vicariate, under the title of that of *Brescia*. This not satisfying the ambition of Caperole, he obtained, by the interposition of the Doge of Venice, that this vicariate might be erected into a congregation; called from him *Caperolains*; which still subsists in Italy, and is composed of 24 convents. But it will not probably subsist much longer, under the new order of things introduced in the French into the Italian republics.

CAPERQUIN, a town of Ireland, in Waterford, on the Blackwater, 15 m. N. of Youghal. Lon. 7. 50. W. Lat. 52. 2. N.

CAPESTAN, a town of France, in the department of Aude, and chief place of the district of Lezignan, near the canal. Lon. 3. 6. E. Lat. 43. 22. N.

CAPESTHORN, a town in Cheshire, 4 m. W. of Macclesfield.

CAPET, the surname of the royal family of France, for a period of 825 years, from HUGH CAPET, (who was called to the crown by the voice of the nation, A. D. 987, in opposition to the hereditary claim of Charles D. of Lorrain,) to the abolition of the monarchy under the unfortunate Lewis XVI. in 1792. The house of BOURBON was only a younger branch of the family of Capet. See FRANCE, *history of.*

CAPE THREE POINTS. See THREE POINTS.

CAPE VERD. See VERD.

CAPH, a Jewish measure of capacity for liquids, estimated by Kunchi at the 50th part of the bath, by Arbuthnot at the 26th part of the bath, or 3d of the seah, amounting to 2 oz. an English pint. It does not occur in Scripture as the name of any measure.

CAPHAR, a duty which the Turks exact from the Christians who carry on trade and merchandize from Aleppo to Jerusalem and other places in Syria. This duty was first imposed by the Christians themselves, when they were in possession of the Holy Land, for the maintenance of the troops which were planted in difficult passes, to restrain the Arabs and prevent their incursions. It is still continued, and much increased by the Turks, under pretence of defending the Christians against the Arabs; with whom, nevertheless, they have a secret intelligence, favouring their excursions and plunders.

CAPHEATON, a town in Northumberland, 12 m. from Newcastle.

(1.) CAPHTOR, in ancient geography, a district or town of Upper Egypt, in the island of Sais, inhabited by the CAPHTORIM.

(2.) CAPHTOR, an island of Egypt, probably one of those in the Nile. Dr Wells supposes it to be the city Coptos, which stood in a fruitful

CAPHTORZI, or } a people of Palestine
CAPHTORIM. } who came from Caphtor, and who with the Philistines conquered and expulsed the Hevæi. Their name was swallowed up in that of the Philistines.

CAPHUR, or } the Arabian name for Camphire.
CAPHURA, }

CAPI-AGA, or *Capi-Agassi*, a Turkish officer who is governor of the gates of the seraglio, and grand master of the seraglio. He enjoys the same dignity among the white eunuchs as he does near the person of the grand signior: he introduces ambassadors to their audiences publicly, and or goes out of the grand signior's apartment to by his means. He has the privilege of wearing the turban in the seraglio, and of going everywhere on horseback. He accompanies the grand signior to the apartment of the sultanas, but stops at the door without entering. The grand signior

bears the expence of his table, and allows him at the rate of about 60 French livres per day; but his office brings him in abundance of presents; no affair of consequence coming to the emperor's knowledge without passing through his hand. He cannot be bashaw when he quits his post.

[I.] * CAPIAS. *n. s.* [Lat.] A writ of two sorts, one before judgment, called *capias ad respondendum*, in an action personal, if the sheriff, upon the first writ of distress, return that he has no effects in his jurisdiction. The other is a writ of execution after judgment. *Cowel.*

CAPIAS AD RESPONDENDUM is where an original is sued out, to take the defendant, and make him answer the plaintiff.

[II.] CAPIAS, after judgment, is of divers kinds; such as,

1. CAPIAS AD SATISFACIENDUM, a writ of execution that issues on a judgment obtained, and lies where any person recovers in a personal action, as for debt, damages, &c. in which cases this writ issues to the sheriff, commanding him to take the body of him against whom the debt is recovered, who is to be kept in prison till he make satisfaction.

2. CAPIAS IN WITHERNAM, a writ that lies for cattle *in Withernam*: that is, where a distress taken is driven out of the country, so that the sheriff cannot make deliverance upon a replevin; then this writ issues, commanding the sheriff to take as many beasts of the distrainer, &c.

3. CAPIAS PRO FINE is a writ lying where a person is fined to the king, for some offence committed against a statute, and he does not discharge the fine according to the judgment; therefore his body shall be taken by this writ, and committed to gaol till the fine is paid.

4. CAPIAS UT LEGATUM, a writ which lies against any one outlawed, upon any action personal or criminal, by which the sheriff is ordered to apprehend the party outlawed, for not appearing on the exigent, and keep him in safe custody till the day of his return, when he is to present him to the court, to be there farther ordered for his contempt.

CAPIGI, [Turk. *i. e.* gate,] a door keeper of the Turkish seraglio. There are about 500 *capigis* in the seraglio, divided into two companies; one consisting of 300, under a chief called CAPIGI-BASSA, who has a stipend of 3 ducats per day; the other consists of 200 called CUCCICAPIOI, and their chief CUCCICAPIGI-BASSA, who has two ducats. The capigis have from 7 to 25 aspers per day. Their business is to assist the janizaries in the guard of the 1st and 2d gates of the seraglio; sometimes all together; as when the Turk holds a general council, receives an ambassador, or goes to the mosque; and sometimes only in part; being ranged on either side to prevent people entering with harm, any tumults being made, &c.

CAPIGI-BASSA. See last article.

* CAPILLACEOUS. *adj.* The same with *capillary*.

CAPILLAIRE, syrup of maidenhair.

(1.) * CAPILLAMENT. *n. s.* [*capillamentum*, Lat.] Those small threads or hairs which grow up in the middle of a flower, and adorned with little herbs at the top, are called *capillaments*. *Quincy.*

(2.) CAPILLAMENT, in a general sense, signifies a hair; whence the word is applied to several things, which on account of their length or their fineness resemble hairs: as,

(3.) CAPILLAMENTS OF THE NERVES, in anatomy, the fine fibres or filaments whereof the nerves are composed.

CAPILLARIS or CAPILLATA, ARBOR, an ancient tree at Rome, on which the vestal virgins, when thaven for their office, hung up their hair, and consecrated it to the gods.

(1.) * CAPILLARY. *adj.* [from *capillus*, hair, Lat.] 1. Resembling hairs; small; minute: applied to plants.—*Capillary*, or *capillaceous* plants, are such as have no main stalk or stem, but grow to the ground, as hairs on the head; and which bear their seeds in little tufts or protuberances on the backside of their leaves. *Quincy.*—Our common hyssop is not the least of vegetables, nor observed to grow upon walls; but rather, some kind of *capillaries*, which are very small plants, and only grow upon walls and stony places. *Browne's Vulgar Errours.* 2. Applied to vessels of the body. Small: as the ramifications of the arteries. *Quincy.*—Yet *capillary* arteries in some parts of the body, as in the brain, are not equal to one hair: and the smallest lymphatick vessels are an hundred times smaller than the smallest *capillary* artery. *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*

(2.) CAPILLARY TUBES, in physics, are small pipes of glass, whose canals are extremely narrow, their diameter being only a half, a third, or a fourth of a line. The ascent of water, &c. in capillary tubes, is a phenomenon that has long embarrassed philosophers: for let one end of a glass tube open at both extremities be immerged in water, the liquor within the tube will rise to a considerable height above the external surface: or if two or more tubes are immerged in the same fluid, one a capillary tube, and the other of a larger bore, the fluid will ascend higher in the former than in the latter; and this will be in a reciprocal ratio of the diameters of the tubes. In order to account for this phenomenon, it will be necessary first to premise, that the attraction between the particles of glass and water is greater than the attraction between the particles of water themselves: for if a glass tube be placed in a position parallel to the horizon, and a drop of water be applied to the under side of the tube, it will adhere to it; nor will it fall from the glass till its bulk and gravity are so far increased, as to overcome the attraction of the glass. Hence it is easy to conceive how forcibly such a power must act on the surface of a fluid, not vivid, as water, contained within the small cavity or bore of a glass tube; as also that it will be proportionably stronger as the diameter of the bore is smaller; for it is evident that the efficacy of the power is in the inverse proportion of the diameter, when it is considered, that such particles only as are in contact with the fluid, and those immediately above the surface, can effect it. Now these particles form a periphery contiguous to the surface, the upper part of which attracts and raises the surface, while the lower part, which is in contact with it, supports it: so that neither the thickness nor length of the tube is of any consequence here; the periphery of particles

ticles only, which is always proportionable to the diameter of the bore, is the only acting power. The quantity of the fluid raised will therefore be as the furface of the bore which it fills, that is, as the diameter; for otherwife the effect would not be proportional to the cauſe, ſince the quantities are alway as the ratio of the diameters; the heights therefore to which the fluids will riſe, in different tubes, will be inverſely as the diameters. Some doubt whether the law holds throughout, of the aſcent of the fluid being always higher as the tube is ſmaller; De Hook's experiments, with tubes almoſt as fine as cobweb, ſeem to ſhow the contrary. The water in theſe, he obſerves, did not riſe ſo high as one would have expected. The higheſt he ever found it, was at 21 inches above the level of the water in the baſon; which is much ſhort of what it ought to have been by the law above mentioned. See Cohesion.

3.) Capillary veſſels. Many ſmall veſſels of animal bodies have been diſcovered by the modern invention of injecting the veſſels of animals with a coloured fluid which upon cooling grows hard. But though moſt anatomiſts know the manner of filling the large trunks, few are acquainted with the art of filling the capillaries.—Dr Monro, in the Medical Eſſays, has given what after many trials he has found moſt ſucceſsful. See Injection.

* CAPILLATION. *n. ſ.* [from *capillus*, Lat.] A veſſel like a hair; a ſmall ramification of veſſels. Not uſed.—Nor is the humour contained in ſmaller veins, or obſcurer *capillations*, but in a veſicle. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

CAPILLUS veneris. See Adiantum.

(1.) CAPILUPI, Camillus, a native of Mantua in the 16th century. He wrote a book, entitled, *The Stratagem*; in which he relates not only what was perpetrated at Paris during the maſſacre on St Bartholomew's day, but alſo the artful preparations which preceded that horrid maſſacre.

(2.) CAPILUPI, or } Lælius, an Italian poet,
CAPILUPUS, } brother to the former, (N° 1.) made himſelf famous by ſome Centos of Virgil. The manner in which he applied Virgil's expreſſions, to repreſent things which the poet never dreamt of, is admired. His Cento againſt women is very ingenious, but too ſatirical. His poems are inſerted in the *Delicæ Poetarum Italorum.*

CAPISCHOLUS, or } in eccleſiaſtical writers,
CAPISCOLUS. } denotes an officer in certain cathedrals, who had the ſuperintendency of the choir, or band of muſic, anſwering to what in other churches is called *chanter* or *precentor*. The word is alſo written *cabiſcholus*, and *caput-ſcholæ*, q. d. the head of the ſchool, or band of muſic. The office is alſo called *ſcolaſticus*, as having the inſtruction of the young clerks and choriſters, how to perform their duty.

(1.) CAPITA, diſtribution by, in law, ſignifies the appointing to every man an equal ſhare of a perſonal eſtate; when all the claimants claim in their own rights, as in equal degrees of kindred, and not *jure repreſentationis*.

(2.) Capita, ſucceſſion by, where the claimants are next in degree to the anceſtor, in their own right, and not by right of repreſentation.

(1.) * CAPITAL. *adj.* [*capitalis*, Lat.] 1. Relating to the head.—

Needs muſt the ſerpent now his *capital* bruiſe
Expect with mortal pain. *Paradiſe Loſt.*

2. Criminal in the higheſt degree, ſo as to touch life.—

Edmund, I arreſt thee
On *capital* treaſon. *Shakeſp. King Lear.*

—Several caſes deſerve greater puniſhment than many crimes that are *capital* among us. *Sviift.* That which affects life.—In *capital* cauſes, where in but one man's life is in queſtion, the evidence ought to be clear; much more in a judgment upon a war, which is *capital* to thouſands. *Raym.* 3. Chief; principal.—I will, out of that infinite number, reckon but ſome that are moſt *capital*, and commonly occurrent both in the life and conditions of private men. *Spenſer on Ireland.*—As to ſwerve in the leaſt points, is errour; ſo the *capital* enemies thereof God hateth, as his ſtedfaſt ſervants, and, without repentance, *children* of endleſs perdition. *Hooker.*—They do, in themſelves, tend to confirm the truth of a *capital* article in religion. *Atterbury.* 4. Chief; metropolitan.—

This iſland been
Perhaps thy *capital* ſeat, from whence had ſpread
All generations; and had hither come,
From all the ends of th' earth, to celebrate
And reverence thee, their great progenitor.
Paradiſe Loſt.

6. Applied to letters; large; ſuch as are written at the beginning or heads of books.—Our moſt conſiderable actions are always preſent, like *capital* letters to an aged and dim eye. *Taylor's Holy Living.*—The firſt is written in capital letters, without chapters or verſes. *Grew's Coſmologia Sacra.* 7. *Capital Stock.* The principal or original ſtock of a trader, or company.

(2.) * Capital. *n. ſ.* [from the adjective.] 1. The upper part of a pillar.—You ſee the volute of the Ionick, the foliage of the Corinthian, and the ovoli of the Doric, mixed without any regularity, on the ſame *capital*. *Addiſon on Italy.* 2. The chief city of a nation or kingdom.

(3.) Capital, in architecture. See Architecture, *Index.*

(4.) Capital crime. See § 2. *def.* 2. and the articles Crime and Puniſhment.

(5.) Capital letters, in printing. See § 1. *def.* 6. All ſentences, verſes, lines of poetry, proper names of men, kingdoms, nations, towns, rivers, &c. begin with capitals. The practice was for ſome time, obtained among our printers, of beginning every ſubſtantive with a capital, it was juſtly fallen into diſrepute; being a manifeſt perverſion of the deſign of capitals, as well as an offence againſt beauty and diſtinctneſs. The perſonal pronoun, *I*, is almoſt always written as printed capital, though ſome have affected to write it ſmall, particularly Stillingfleet.

(6.) Capital picture, in painting, denotes one of the fineſt and moſt excellent pieces of any celebrated maſter.

(7.) Capital stock. See § 2. *def.* 7. The capital is oppoſed to the profit, though the profit often increaſes the capital, and becomes a part of it when added to the ſtock.

* CAPITALLY. *adv.* [from *capital*.] In a capital manner.

CAPITANA, or CAPTAIN GALLEY, the chief or principal galley of a ſtate, not dignified with the title of a kingdom. It was anciently the denomination of the chief galley of France, which the commander went on board of.

CAPITANATA, one of the 12 provinces of Naples, bounded on the N. by the gulf of Venice, on the E. by the Terra di Bari, on the S. by the Baſilicata and the Farther Principato, and on the W. by the county di Moliſe and a ſmall part of Hither Abruzzo. It is a level country, without trees; the ſoil ſandy, the air hot: the land, however, near the rivers, is fertile in paſtures. The capital is Manfredonia.

CAPITANEATE, in a general ſenſe, the ſame with CAPITANIA. Capitaneates, in Pruſſia, are a kind of eſtates, which, beſides their revenue, raiſe their owners to the rank of nobility. They are alſo called STAROSTIES.

CAPITANEI, or CATANEI, in Italy, was a denomination given to all the dukes, marquiſſes, and counts, who were called *capitanei regis*. The ſame appellation was given to perſons of inferior rank who were inveſted with fees, formerly diſtinguiſhed by the appellation *valvaſores majores*.

(1.) CAPITANEUS, in ancient law writers, denotes a tenant in capite, or chief.

(2.) CAPITANEUS ECCLESIÆ, the ſame with advocate.

CAPITANIA, in geography, an appellation given to the 12 governments eſtabliſhed by the Portugueſe in the Braſils.

(1.) * CAPITATION. *n. ſ.* [from *caput*, the head, Lat.] Numeration by heads.—He ſuffered for not performing the commandment of God, concerning *capitation*; that, when the people were numbered, for every head they ſhould pay unto God a ſhekel. *Brown.*

(2.) CAPITATION, a tax raiſed on each perſon, in proportion to his labour, induſtry, office, rank, &c. It is a very ancient kind of tribute. The Latins call it *tributum*, by which taxes on perſons are diſtinguiſhed from taxes on merchandize, which were called *vectigalia*. Capitations are never practiſed among us but in exigencies of ſtate. In France the capitation was introduced by Louis XIV. in 1695; and was a tax very different from the *taille*, being levied from all perſons except the clergy, even the princes of the blood not being exempted from it.

(1.) * CAPITE. *n. ſ.* [from *caput*, *capitis*, Lat.] A tenure which holdeth immediately of the king, as of his crown, be it by knight's ſervice or ſocage, and not as of any honour, caſtle, or manour: and therefore it is otherwiſe called a tenure, that holdeth merely of the king; becauſe, as the crown is a corporation and ſeigniory in groſs, as the common lawyers term it, ſo the king that poſſeſſeth the crown, is, in account of law, perpetually king, and never in his minority, nor ever dieth. *Cowel.*

(2.) CAPITE, in law, is a ſpecies of ancient tenure of land, now abolished. See TENURE.

(3.) CAPITE CENSI, in antiquity, the loweſt rank of Roman citizens, who in public taxes were rated the leaſt of all, being ſuch as never were worth above 365 *aſſes*. They were ſuppoſed to have been thus called, becauſe they were rather counted and marſhalled by their heads than by their eſtates. The *capite cenſi* made part of the 6th claſs of citizens, below the *proletarii*, who formed the other moiety of that claſs. They were not enrolled in the army, being judged not able to ſupport the expence of war; for in thoſe days the ſoldiers maintained themſelves. It does not appear, that before Caius Marius any of the Roman generals liſted the *capite cenſi* in their armies.

CAPITO, in ichthyology. See ZEUTA.

(1.) CAPITOL, CAPITOLIUM, in antiquity, a famous fort or caſtle, on the Mons Capitolinus at Rome, wherein was a temple dedicated to Jupiter, in which the ſenate anciently aſſembled; and which ſtill ſerves as the city-hall, or town-houſe, for the meeting of the conſervators of the Roman people. It had its name *capitol*, from *caput*, a man's head, which was ſaid to have been found freſh, and bleeding, upon digging the foundation of the temple built in honour of Jupiter. Arnobius adds, that the man's name was *Tolus*, whence *caput-tolium*. The firſt foundations of the capitol were laid by Tarquin I. A. U. C. 139. His ſucceſſor Servius raiſed the walls; and Tarquin II. finiſhed it in the year 221. But it was not conſecrated till the 3d year after the expulſion of the kings. The ceremony of the dedication of the temple was performed by the conſul Horatius in 246. The capitol conſiſted of three parts; a nave ſacred to Jupiter; and two wings, conſecrated to Juno and Minerva. It was aſcended by ſtairs; the frontiſpiece and ſides were ſurrounded with galleries, in which thoſe who were honoured with triumphs entertained the ſenate at a magnificent banquet, after the ſacrifices had been offered to the gods. Both the inſide and outſide were enriched with an infinity of ornaments, the moſt diſtinguiſhed of which was the ſtatue of Jupiter, with his golden thunderbolt, ſceptre, and crown. In the capitol alſo were a temple to Jupiter the guardian, and another to Juno, with the mint; and on the deſcent of the hill was the temple of Concord. This beautiful edifice contained the moſt ſacred depoſits, ſuch as the ancylia, the books of the Sibyls, &c. The capitol was burnt under Vitellius, and rebuilt under Veſpaſian. It was burnt a ſecond time by lightning under Titus, and reſtored by Domitian.

(2.) CAPITOL. See CAPITOUL.

(3.) CAPITOL was alſo a name anciently applied to all the principal temples, in moſt of the colonies throughout the Roman empire; as at Conſtantinople, Jeruſalem, Carthage, Ravenna, Capua, &c.

CAPITOLINE GAMES, annual games inſtituted by Camillus, in honour of Jupiter Capitolinus, and in commemoration of the capitol's not being taken by the Gauls. Plutarch tells us, that a part of the ceremony conſiſted in the public crier putting up the Hetrurians to ſale by auction: they alſo took an old man, and tying a golden bulla about his neck, expoſed him to the public deriſion. Feſtus ſays they alſo dreſſed him in a pretexta. There was another kind of Capitoline games, inſtituted by Domitian, wherein there were rewards and crowns beſtowed on the poets, champions, orators, hiſtorians, and muſicians. Theſe laſt were

celebrated every 5 years, and became so famous, that, instead of calculating time by lustra, they began to count by Capitoline games, as the Greeks did by Olympiads. However, this custom was not of long continuance.

CAPITOLINI, in Roman antiquity, a college of men residing in the capitol, to whom was committed the care of the CAPITOLINE GAMES.

(1.) CAPITOLINUS, a mountain of Rome, on which the capitol was built.

(2.) CAPITOLINUS, an epithet of Jupiter.

(3.) CAPITOLINUS, Julius, an historian in the beginning of the 4th century under Diocletian, to whom he inscribed the Lives of Verus, Antoninus Pius, Claudius, Balbinus, Macrinus, the Maximins, and the Gordians. He wrote other lives, which are most of them lost.

CAPITOUL, or CAPITOL, an appellation given, before the French revolution, to the chief magistrates of Thoulouse, who had the administration of justice and policy in the city. They were much the same with the consuls, bailiffs, burgomasters, mayors, and aldermen, &c. in other cities. In ancient acts they were called *consules capitularii* or *capitolini*, and their body CAPITULUM. They had the custody of the town-house, which was anciently called *capitol*. The office only lasted 1 year, ennobled the bearers, and entitled them to the *jus imaginum*; *i. e.* when their administration expired their pictures were hung up in the town-house.

CAPITOULATE, an appellation formerly given to the several districts of Thoulouse, under the direction of the capitouls, much like the wards of London, under their aldermen. Thoulouse was divided into 8 *capitoulates*.

(1.)* CAPITULAR. *n. s.* [from *capitulum*, Lat. an ecclesiastical chapter] 1. A body of statutes, divided into chapters.—That this practice continued to the time of Charlemain, appears by a constitution in his *capitular*. *Taylor*. 2. A member of a chapter.—Canonists do agree, that the chapter makes decrees and statutes, which shall bind the chapter itself, and all its members or *capitulars*. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.

(2.) CAPITULAR, or CAPITULARY, } denotes an act passed in a chapter, either of knights, canons, or religious. The capitulars of Charlemagne, Charles the Bald, &c. are the laws, both ecclesiastical and civil, made by those emperors in the general assemblies of the people; which was the way in which the constitutions of most of the ancient princes were made; each person present, though a plebeian, setting his hand to them. They had their name from being divided into *capitula*, chapters, or sections. In these capitulars did the whole French jurisprudence anciently consist.

* *To* CAPITULATE. *v. n.* [from *capitulum*, Lat.] 1. To draw up any thing in heads or articles.—

Percy, Northumberland,
The archbishop of York, Douglas, and Mortimer,
Capitulate against us, and are up. *Shak. Hen.* IV.

2. To yield, or surrender up, on certain stipulations.—The king took it for a great indignity, that thieves should offer to *capitulate* with him as enemies. *Hayward*.—I still pursued, and, about two o'clock this afternoon, she thought fit to *capitulate*. *Spectator*.

(1.)* CAPITULATION. *n. s.* [from *capitulate*.] Stipulation; terms; conditions.—It was not a complete conquest, but rather a dedition upon terms and *capitulations*, agreed between the conqueror and the conquered; wherein, usually, the yielding party secured themselves their law and religion. *Hale*.

(2.) CAPITULATION, in military affairs, a treaty made between the inhabitants or garrison of a place besieged and the besiegers, for the delivering up the place on certain conditions. The most honourable terms of capitulation are, To march out at the breach with arms and baggage, drums beating, colours flying, a match lighted at both ends, and some pieces of cannon, waggons and convoys for their baggage, and for their sick and wounded.

(3.) CAPITULATION, in the German polity, a contract which the emperor makes with the electors, in the name of all the princes and states in the empire, before he is declared emperor, and which he ratifies before he is raised to that sovereign dignity. The principal points which the emperor undertakes to observe are, 1. To defend the church and empire. 2. To observe the fundamental laws of the empire. And, 3. To preserve the rights, privileges, and immunities of the electors, princes, and other states of the empire, specified in the capitulation. These capitulations are presented to the emperor by the electors only, without the concurrence of the other states, who have complained from time to time of such proceedings; and in the time of the Westphalian treaty, in 1648, it was proposed to deliberate in the following diet, upon a way of making a perpetual capitulation; but the electors have always found means to elude the execution of this article. In order, however, to give some satisfaction to their adversaries, they have inserted in the capitulations of the emperors, a promise to use all their influence to bring the affair of a perpetual capitulation to a conclusion. Some German authors own, that this capitulation limits the emperor's power; but maintain that it does not weaken his sovereignty: though the most part maintain that he is not absolute, because he receives the empire under conditions, which sets bounds to an absolute authority.

(1.) CAPITULUM, in ecclesiastical writers, denoted part of a chapter of the bible read and explained; whence *ire ad capitulum*, to go to such a lecture. Afterwards the place where such exercises were performed was named *domus capitularis*.

(2.) CAPITULUM, in the ancient military art, was a transverse beam, wherein were holes through which passed the strings whereby the arms of huge engines, as balistæ, catapultæ, and scorpions, were played, or worked.

(3.) CAPITULUM. See BOTANY, *Index* and *Glossary*.

* CAPIVI TREE. *n. s.* [*copaiba*, Lat.] This tree grows near a village called Ayapel, in the province of Antiochi, in the Spanish West Indies, about ten days journey from Carthagena. Some of them do not yield any of the balsam; those that do are distinguished by a ridge which runs along their trunks. These trees are wounded in their centre, and they apply vessels to the wounded part, to re-

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ceive the balſam. One of theſe trees will yield five or ſix gallons of balſam. *Miller.*

CAPLE, *n. ſ. obſ.* a horſe. *Chaucer.*

CAPNICON, chimney money, a tax which the eaſtern emperors levied for ſmoke, and which of conſequence was due from all, even the pooreſt, who kept a fire. It was firſt exacted by Nicephorus.

CAPNITIS. See CADMIA, § I. i. N° 3.

CAPNOIDES, in botany. See FUMARIA.

CAPNOMANCY, [from καπνος, ſmoke, and μαντια, divination,] a kind of divination by means of ſmoke, uſed by the ancients in their ſacrifices. The general rule was, when the ſmoke was thin, and light, and roſe ſtraight up, it was a good omen: if the contrary, it was an ill one. There was alſo a ſpecies of capnomancy, conſiſting in the obſervation of the ſmoke riſing from poppy and jeſſamin ſeed, caſt upon light coals.

CAPO, or CAPO OF ISTRIA, a conſiderable town of Italy, in Iſtria, on the gulph of Trieſte, lately ſubject to the Venetians, and now compoſing part of the new republic. The air is wholeſome and temperate; its principal trade conſiſts in wine and ſalt. Lon. 14. 0. E. Lat. 45. 48. N.

CAPOC, in commerce, a ſort of cotton ſo fine and ſo ſhort, that it cannot be ſpun. It is uſed in the Eaſt Indies to line palanquins, to make beds, mattraſſes, cuſhions, pillows, &c.

* *To* CAPOCH. *v. a.* I know not diſtinctly what this word means; perhaps to ſtrip off the hood.—

Capoch'd your rabins of the ſynod
And ſnapt the canons with a why not. *Hudibras.*

(1.) CAPO FINO, a large barren rock in the territory of the Genoeſe, which has a caſtle on its eaſtern peak.

(2.) CAPO FINO, a ſmall harbour 13 miles E. by S. of Genoa, near the above rock, N° 1.

(1.) * CAPON. *n. ſ.* [*capo*, Lat.] A caſtrated cock.—

In good roaſt beef my landlord ſticks his knife;
The *capon* fat delights his dainty wife. *Gay's Paſt.*

(2.) CAPON is a cock chicken, gelded as ſoon as left by the dam, or as ſoon as he begins to crow. Capons are of uſe either to lead chickens, ducklings, pheaſants, &c. and defend them from the kites and buzzards; or to feed for the table, being reckoned more delicate than either a cock or a hen.

* CAPONNIERE. *n. ſ.* [Fr. A term in fortification.] A covered lodgment, of about 4 or 5 feet broad, encompaſſed with a little parapet of about 2 feet high, ſerving to ſupport planks laden with earth. This lodgment contains 15 or 20 ſoldiers, and is uſually placed at the extremity of the counterſcarp, having little embraſures made in them, through which they fire. *Harris.*

* CAPOT. *n. ſ.* [Fr.] Is when one party wins all the tricks of cards at the game of picquet.

* *To* CAPOT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] When one party has won all the tricks of cards at picquet, he is ſaid to have *capotted* his antagoniſt.

* CAPOUCH. *n. ſ.* [*capuce*, Fr.] A monk's hood. *Dict.*

CAPPA, a village of Ireland, in Waterford, Munſter, N. of Whitechurch.

CAPPADINE, in commerce, a ſort of ſilk flock, taken from the upper part of the ſilk worm cod, after the true ſilk has been wound off. Slight ſtuffs called LASSIS and CARBASS, are made of it.

CAPPADOCIA, an ancient kingdom of Aſia, comprehending all that country which lies between mount Taurus and the Euxine ſea. It was divided by the Perſians into two ſatrapies or governments; by the Macedonians into two kingdoms: viz.

1. CAPPADOCIA AD PONTUM, more commonly called *Pontus*. See PONTUS.

2. CAPPADOCIA AD TAURUM, } CAPPADOCIA
CAPPADOCIA MAGNA, or } properly ſo
called, lies between 38° and 41° Lat. N. It was bounded by Pontus on the N. Lycaonia and part of Armenia Major on the S. Galatia on the W. and by Euphrates and part of Armenia Minor on the E. The firſt king of Cappadocia we read of was Pharnaces, who was raiſed to the crown by Cyrus king of Perſia, who gave him his ſiſter Atoſſa in marriage. He was killed in a war with the Hyrcanians. After him came a ſucceſſion of 8 kings, of whom we know ſcarce any thing but that they continued faithful to the Perſian intereſt. In the time of Alexander the Great, Cappadocia was governed by Ariarathes II. who, notwithſtanding the vaſt conqueſts of the Macedonian monarch, continued faithful to the Perſians. Alexander was prevented by death from invading his dominions; but Perdiccas marching againſt him with a powerful and well diſciplined army, diſperſed his forces, and having taken Ariarathes himſelf priſoner, crucified him, with all thoſe of the royal blood whom he could get into his power. Diodorus, however, ſays, that he was killed in the battle. He is ſaid to have reigned 82 years. His ſon Ariarathes III. having eſcaped the general ſlaughter, fled into Armenia, where he lay concealed, till the diſſenſions among the Macedonians gave him a fair opportunity of recovering his paternal kingdom. Amyntas, governor of Cappadocia, oppoſed him; but being defeated in a pitched battle, the Macedonians were obliged to abandon all the ſtrong holds. Ariarathes, after a long and peaceable reign, left his kingdom to his ſon Ariaramnes II. He applied himſelf more to the arts of peace than war, in conſequence of which Cappadocia flouriſhed greatly during his reign. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Ariarathes IV. who proved a very warlike prince, and having overcome Arſaces, founder of the Parthian monarchy, conſiderably enlarged his own dominions. He was ſucceeded by Ariarathes V. who marrying the daughter of Antiochus the Great, entered into an alliance with that prince againſt the Romans; but Antiochus being defeated, Ariarathes was obliged to ſue for peace, which he obtained, upon paying a fine of 200 talents. He afterwards aſſiſted the republic with men and money againſt Perſeus king of Macedon, on which account, he was by the ſenate honoured with the title of the *friend and ally of the Roman people*. He left the kingdom in a very flouriſhing condition to his ſon Mithridates, who on his acceſſion took the name of Ariarathes VI. This prince (ſurnamed *Philopater*, from the filial reſpect and love he ſhowed his father from his infancy) immediately renewed the alliance with Rome. Out of mere goodnature he reſtored Mithrobarzanes ſon to Ladri-

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ades king of the Leſſer Armenia to his father's kingdom, though he foreſaw that the Armenians would lay hold of that opportunity to join Artaxias, who was then on the point of invading Cappadocia. Theſe differences, however, were ſettled before they came to an open rupture, by the Roman legates; and Ariarathes ſeeing himſelf thus delivered from an impending war, by the mediation of the republic, preſented the ſenate with a golden crown, and offered his ſervice wherever they thought proper to employ him. The ſenate in return ſent him a ſtaff, and chair of ivory; which were preſents uſually beſtowed on thoſe only whom they looked upon as attached to their intereſt. Not long before this, Demetrius Soter king of Syria had offered Ariarathes his ſiſter in marriage, the widow of Perſeus king of Macedon: but this offer the king of Cappadocia declined for fear of offending the Romans; who reckoned him among the chief of their allies. Demetrius, incenſed at the ſlight put upon his ſiſter, ſet up a pretender to the throne, one Orophernes, a ſuppoſitious, or natural ſon of the deceaſed king. The Romans ordered Eumenes king of Pergamus to aſſiſt Ariarathes with all his forces: which he did, but to no purpoſe; for the confederates were overthrown by Demetrius, and Ariarathes was obliged to abandon the kingdom to his rival. This happened about A. A. C. 159; and the uſurper immediately diſpatched ambaſſadors to Rome with a golden crown. The ſenate declined accepting the preſent, till they heard his pretenſions to the kingdom; and this Orophernes, by ſuborned witneſſes, made appear ſo plain, that the ſenate decreed that Ariarathes and he ſhould reign as partners; but next year Orophernes was driven out by Attalus brother to Eumenes, and his ſucceſſor in the kingdom of Pergamus. Ariarathes, being thus reſtored, immediately demanded of the Priennians 400 talents of gold which Orophernes had depoſited with them. They honeſtly replied, that as they had been truſted with the money by Orophernes, they could deliver it to none but himſelf, or ſuch as came in his name. Upon this, the king entered their territories with an army, deſtroying all with fire and ſword. The Priennians, however, ſtill preſerved their integrity; and though their city was beſieged by the united forces of Ariarathes and Attalus, not only made an obſtinate defence, but found means to reſtore the ſum to Orophernes. At laſt they applied to the Romans for aſſiſtance, who enjoined the two kings to raiſe the ſiege, under pain of being declared enemies to the republic. Ariarathes immediately obeyed; and marching his army into Aſſyria, joined Alexander Balas againſt Demetrius, who, in the very firſt engagement, was ſlain, and his army entirely diſperſed, Ariarathes having on that occaſion given uncommon proofs of his courage and conduct. Some years after, a war breaking out between the Romans and Ariſtonicus who claimed the kingdom of Pergamus in right of his father, Ariarathes joined the former, and was ſlain in the ſame battle in which P. Craſſus proconſul of Aſia was taken, and the Roman army cut in pieces. He left ſix ſons by his wife Laodice, on whom the Romans beſtowed Lycaonia and Cilicia. But Laodice, fearing leſt her children, when they came of age, ſhould take the government out of her hands, poiſoned 5 of them, the youngeſt only having eſcaped her cruelty by being conveyed out of the kingdom. The monſter herſelf was ſoon after put to death by her ſubjects, who could not bear her cruel and tyrannical government. She was ſucceeded by Ariarathes VII. who, ſoon after his acceſſion, married another Laodice, daughter of Mithridates the Great, hoping to find in that prince a powerful friend to ſupport him againſt Nicomedes king of Bithynia, who laid claim to part of Cappadocia. But Mithridates inſtead of aſſiſting, procured one Gordius to poiſon his ſon-in-law; and, on his death, ſeized the kingdom, under pretence of maintaining the rights of the Cappadocians againſt Nicomedes, till the children of Ariarathes were in a condition to govern it. The Cappadocians at firſt fancied themſelves obliged to their new protector; but, finding him unwilling to reſign the kingdom to the lawful heir, they roſe up in arms, and, driving out all his garriſons, placed Ariarathes VIII. eldeſt ſon of their deceaſed king, on the throne. The new prince found himſelf immediately engaged in a war with Nicomedes; but, being aſſiſted by Mithridates, not only drove him out of Cappadocia, but ſtripped him of a great part of his hereditary dominions. On the concluſion of the peace, Mithridates, ſeeking for ſome pretence to quarrel with Ariarathes, inſiſted upon his recalling Gordius, who had murdered his father; which being rejected with abhorrence, a war enſued. Mithridates took the field firſt, in hopes of over-running Cappadocia before Ariarathes could be in a condition to make head againſt him; but, contrary to his expectation, he was met on the frontiers by the king of Cappadocia with an army no way inferior to his own. Hereupon he invited Ariarathes to a conference; and, in ſight of both armies, ſtabbed him with a dagger, which he had concealed under his garment. This ſtruck ſuch terror into the Cappadocians, that they immediately diſperſed, and gave Mithridates an opportunity of poſſeſſing himſelf of the kingdom without the leaſt oppoſition. The Cappadocians, however, not able to endure the tyranny of his prefects, ſoon ſhook off the yoke; and recalling the king's brother, who had fled into the province of Aſia, proclaimed him king. He was ſcarce ſeated on the throne, however, before Mithridates invaded the kingdom at the head of a very numerous army, and having drawn Ariarathes to a battle, defeated his army with great ſlaughter, and obliged him to abandon the kingdom. The unhappy prince ſoon after died of grief; and Mithridates beſtowed the kingdom on his own ſon, who was then only 8 years old, giving him at the ſame time the name of *Ariarathes* X. But Nicomedes Philopater king of Bithynia, fearing leſt Mithridates, having now got poſſeſſion of the whole kingdom of Cappadocia, ſhould invade his territories, ſuborned a youth to paſs himſelf for the 3d ſon of Ariarathes, and to preſent to them a petition in order to be reſtored to his father's kingdom. With him he ſent to Rome Laodice, ſiſter of Mithridates, whom he had married after the death of her former husband Ariarathes. Laodice declared before the ſenate, that ſhe had 3 ſons by Ariarathes, and that

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the petitioner was one of them; but that ſhe had been obliged to keep him concealed, leſt he ſhould undergo the ſame fate with his brothers: whereupon the ſenate promiſed to reinſtate him in his kingdom. But, Mithridates hearing of theſe tranſactions, diſpatched Gordius to Rome, to undeceive the ſenate, and to perſuade them that the youth to whom he had reſigned the kingdom of Cappadocia was the lawful ſon of the late king, and grandſon to Ariarathes who had loſt his life in the ſervice of the Romans againſt Ariſtonicus. This unexpected embaſſy put the ſenate upon enquiring more narrowly into the matter, whereby the whole plot was diſcovered; upon which Mithridates was ordered to reſign Cappadocia, and the kingdom was declared free. The Cappadocians, however, ſent ambaſſadors to Rome, acquainting the ſenate that they could not live without a king. This ſurpriſed the Romans, who had ſuch an averſion to royal authority: but they gave them leave to elect a king of their own nation. As the family of Pharnaces was now extinct, the Cappadocians choſe Ariobarzanes; and their choice was approved by the ſenate, he having on all occaſions ſhown himſelf a ſteady friend to the Romans. Ariobarzanes had ſcarce taken poſſeſſion of his kingdom when he was driven out by Tigranes king of Armenia; who reſigned Cappadocia to the ſon of Mithridates, in purſuance of an alliance previouſly concluded between the two parties. Ariobarzanes fled to Rome; and, having engaged the ſenate in his cauſe, he returned into Aſia with Sylla, who was enjoined to reſtore him to his kingdom. This was eaſily performed by Sylla, who, with a ſmall body of troops, routed Gordius at the head of a numerous army. Sylla, however, had ſcarce turned his back, when Ariobarzanes was again driven out by Ariarathes the ſon of Mithridates. Upon this Sylla returned to Aſia, where his uſual ſucceſs attended him, and Ariobarzanes was again placed on the throne. After the death of Sylla, he was the 3d time forced by Mithridates to abandon his kingdom; but Pompey, having entirely defeated Mithridates near mount Stella, reſtored Ariobarzanes to his throne, and rewarded him for his ſervices during the war, with the provinces of Sophene, Gordiene, and great part of Cilicia. The king, however, being now advanced in years, and deſirous of ſpending the remainder of his life in eaſe, reſigned the crown to his ſon Ariobarzanes, in preſence of Pompey; and never afterwards troubled himſelf with affairs of ſtate. Ariobarzanes II. proved no leſs faithful to the Romans than his father. On the breaking out of the civil war between Cæſar and Pompey, he ſided with the latter; but after the death of Pompey, he was received into favour by Cæſar, who even beſtowed upon him great part of Armenia. While Cæſar was engaged in a war with the Egyptians, Pharnaces king of Pontus invaded Cappadocia, and ſtripped Ariobarzanes of all his dominions; but Cæſar, having defeated Pharnaces, reſtored the king of Cappadocia, and honoured him with new titles of friendſhip. After the murder of Cæſar, Ariobarzanes, having refuſed to join Brutus and Caſſius, was by them declared an enemy to the republic, and ſoon after taken priſoner and put to death. He was ſucceeded by his brother Ariobarzanes III. who was by Marc Anthony deprived both of his kingdom and life; and in him ended the family of Ariobarzanes. Archelaus, the grandſon of that general of the ſame name who commanded againſt Sylla in the Mithridatic war, was by Marc Anthony placed on the throne of Cappadocia, though nowiſe related either to the family of Pharnaces or Ariobarzanes. His preferment was entirely owing to his mother Glaphyra, a woman of great beauty, but of a looſe behaviour, who, in her return for her compliance with the deſires of Anthony, obtained the kingdom of Cappadocia for her ſon. In the war between Auguſtus and Anthony, he joined the latter; but at the interceſſion of the Cappadocians, was pardoned by the emperor. He afterwards received from him Armenia the Leſſer, and Cilicia Trachæa, for having aſſiſted the Romans in clearing the ſeas of pirates who greatly infeſted the coaſts of Aſia. He contracted a ſtrict friendſhip with Herod the Great, king of Judæa; and married his daughter Glaphyra to Alexander, Herod's ſon. In the reign of Tiberius, Archelaus was ſummoned to appear before the ſenate; for he had always been hated by that emperor, becauſe in his retirement at Rhodes he had paid him no ſort of reſpect. This had proceeded from no averſion in him to Tiberius, but from the warning given Archelaus, by his friends at Rome. For Caius Cæſar, the preſumptive heir to the empire, was then alive, and had been ſent to compoſe the differences of the eaſt, whence the friendſhip of Tiberius was then looked upon as dangerous. But when he came to the empire, Tiberius, remembering the diſreſpect ſhown him by Archelaus, enticed the latter to Rome by means of letters from Livia, who promiſed him her ſon Tiberius's pardon, provided he came in perſon to implore it. Archelaus obeyed the ſummons, and haſtened to Rome; where he was received by the emperor with great wrath and contempt, and ſoon after accuſed as a criminal in the ſenate. The crimes of which he was accuſed were mere fictions; but his concern at ſeeing himſelf treated as a malefactor was ſo great, that he died ſoon after of grief, or, as others ſay, laid violent hands on himſelf. He is ſaid to have reigned 50 years. On the death of Archelaus, Cappadocia was reduced to a Roman province, and governed by thoſe of the equeſtrian order. It continued ſubject to the Romans till the invaſion of the eaſtern empire by the Turks, to whom it is now ſubject. The Turks have four Beglerbeglics in it, called *Siwas*, *Trebizond*, *Maraſch*, and *Cogni*.

CAPPADOCIANS, the ancient inhabitants of Cappadocia. Theſe people, in the time of the Romans, bore ſo bad a character, and were reputed ſo lewd, that, among the neighbouring nations, a wicked man was emphatically called a *Cappadocian*. In after ages, however, their lewd diſpoſition was ſo reſtrained by the pure doctrines of Chriſtianity, that no country whatever has produced greater champions of the Chriſtian religion, or given to the church prelates of more unblemiſhed characters. We have no ſyſtem of the Cappadocian laws, and ſcarce wherewithal to form any particular idea of them. They carried

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on a conſiderable trade in horſes, and we read of them in Scripture, frequenting the fairs of Tyre with this commodity. As Cappadocia abounded with mines of ſilver, braſs, iron, and alum, and afforded a great ſtore of alabaſter, cryſtal, and jaſper, it is probable that they might ſupply the neighbouring countries with theſe commodities. The religion of the ancient Cappadocians was much the ſame with that of the Perſians. At Comana there was a rich temple dedicated to Bellona; whoſe battles the prieſts and their attendants uſed to repreſent on ſtated days, cutting and wounding each other as if ſeized with an enthuſiaſtic fury. No leſs famous and magnificent were the temples of Apollo Catanius, and of Jupiter; the laſt of which had 3000 religious votaries. The chief prieſt was next in rank to that of Comana; and, according to Strabo, had a revenue of 15 talents. Diana Perſica was worſhipped in a city called CASTABALLA, where women, devoted to the worſhip of that goddeſs, were reported to tread barefooted on burning coals, without receiving any hurt. The temples of Diana at Diospolis, and of Aulas at Zela, were likewiſe held in great veneration both by the Cappadocians and Armenians. In the latter were rendered all oaths in matters of conſequence; and the chief prieſt was equal in dignity, power, and wealth, to any in the kingdom; having a royal attendance, and an unlimited authority over all the officers of the temple. The Romans, who willingly adopted all the ſuperſtitions of the nations they conquered, greatly increaſed the revenues of this and other temples; conferring the prieſthood on ſuch as they thought moſt fit for carrying on their deſigns.—We are told that human ſacrifices were offered at Comana; and that this barbarous cuſtom was brought by Oreſtes and his ſiſter Iphigenia from Taurica Scythica, where men and women were immolated to Diana. But this cuſtom, if ever it obtained in Cappadocia, was aboliſhed in the times of the Romans.

CAPPAGHTAGGEL, a village of Ireland, in the county of Galway, Connaught.

CAPPAH, a town of Ireland, in Tipperary.

CAPPANUS, a name given by ſome authors to a worm that adheres to and gnaws the bottoms of ſhips; to which it is extremely pernicious, eſpecially in the E. and W. Indies: to prevent this, ſeveral ſhips have lately been ſheathed with copper; the firſt trial of which was made on his majeſty's frigate, the Alarm.

* CAP-PAPER. A ſort of coarſe brownith paper. So called from being formed into a kind of *cap* to hold commodities.—Having, for trial ſake, ſtrained it through *cap-paper*, there remained in the ſtrainer a powder. *Boyle*.

CAPPARIS, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 35th order, Putamineæ. The calyx is tetraphyllous and coriaceous; the petals are 4, the ſtamina are long; the fruit is a berry, carnous, unilocular, and pedunculated, or furniſhed with a foot-ſtalk. There are 7 ſpecies; of which the principal is,

CAPPARIS SPINOSA, or common caper, a low ſhrub, generally growing out of the joints of old walls, the fiſſures of rocks, and among rubbiſh, in moſt of the warm parts of Europe. It has woody ſtalks, which ſend out many irregular ſlender branches; under each of theſe are placed two ſhort crooked ſpines, between which and the branches come out the footſtalks of the leaves, which are ſingle, ſhort, and ſhaped like a round entire leaf. At the intermediate joints, between the branches, come out the flowers on long footſtalks; before theſe expand, the bud with the calyx is gathered for pickling. Theſe buds, when laſt expand to form of a ſingle roſe, having 4 large white petals, which are tough and coarſe; in the middle are placed a great number of long ſtamina, ſurrounding a ſtyle which riſes above them, and crowned with an oval germen, which afterward becomes a cordate fruit with kidney-ſhaped ſeeds. This plant is very difficultly preſerved in Britain: it delights to grow in crevices of rocks, old walls, &c. and always thrives beſt in an horizontal poſture; ſo that, when planted either in pots or in the full ground, they ſeldom thrive, though they may be kept alive for ſome years. They are propagated by ſeeds in the warm parts of Europe, but very ſeldom in Britain. The buds, pickled with vinegar, &c. are brought to Britain annually from Italy and the Mediterranean. They are ſuppoſed to excite appetite and aſſiſt digeſtion; and to be particularly uſeful as detergents and aperients in obſtructions of the liver and ſpleen.

CAPPEL-CANON, and 2 two villages of S.
CAPPEL ST SILIN, } Wales, in Carmarthenſh.

* CAPPER. *n. ſ.* [from *cap*.] One who make or ſells caps.

CAPPERNANE, a town of Ireland, in Mayo.

CAPPOCHIA, *n. ſ.* a fool. *Shakesp.* 46.

CAPPOQUIN, a village of Ireland, in Waterford, Munſter, 93 m. from Dublin.

CAPRA, the GOAT, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of pecora. See Plates LVII, LVIII, and LIX. The horns are periſtrated, bow-low, turned upwards, erect, and backward. They are 8 fore teeth in the under jaw, and none in the upper; and they have no dog teeth. In deſcribing the different ſpecies and varieties of this genus, we have again to complain of that confuſion of names and deſcriptions, which are found among zoologiſts, and which renders it extremely difficult to give a complete, and at the ſame time a diſtinct arrangement of them all. Linnæus and other naturaliſts reckon 14 ſpecies of this genus, and one of which, viz. the DORCAS, [No VII.] they include moſt of the varieties of the ANTELOPE. Mr Kerr reckons only 11, ſome of which are conſidered only as varieties of the common ſpecies. But both Mr Kerr and Mr Pennant, as well as Drs Gmelin, Erxleben and Pallas, make the antelope a diſtinct genus, forming a link between the goat, (CAPRA,) and the deer, (CERVUS,) the former of which the antelopes approach in the texture of their horns, which have a core, and in their never caſting them; and with the latter in their elegance of form. Of this genus Mr Kerr enumerates 29 ſpecies. Adhering, however, to Linnæus's claſſification of the whole tribe as one genus, (though we by no means diſpute the propriety of dividing the goats from the antelopes

CAPRA.

Common Goat.
Male.
Female.
Buck of Juda.
Wild Goat.
Female.
Male.
Chamois Goat.
African Goat.
Male.
Female.
Syrian Goat.
Male.
Female.
the Capricorn.
Angora Goat.
Female.
Male.

The Swift Antelope.
Corine Antelope.
Red Antelope.
Harnessed Antelope.
Antelope.
Flat-Horned Antelope.
Hart Beast.
Spring Bok.
Elk Antelope.
White-footed Antelope.

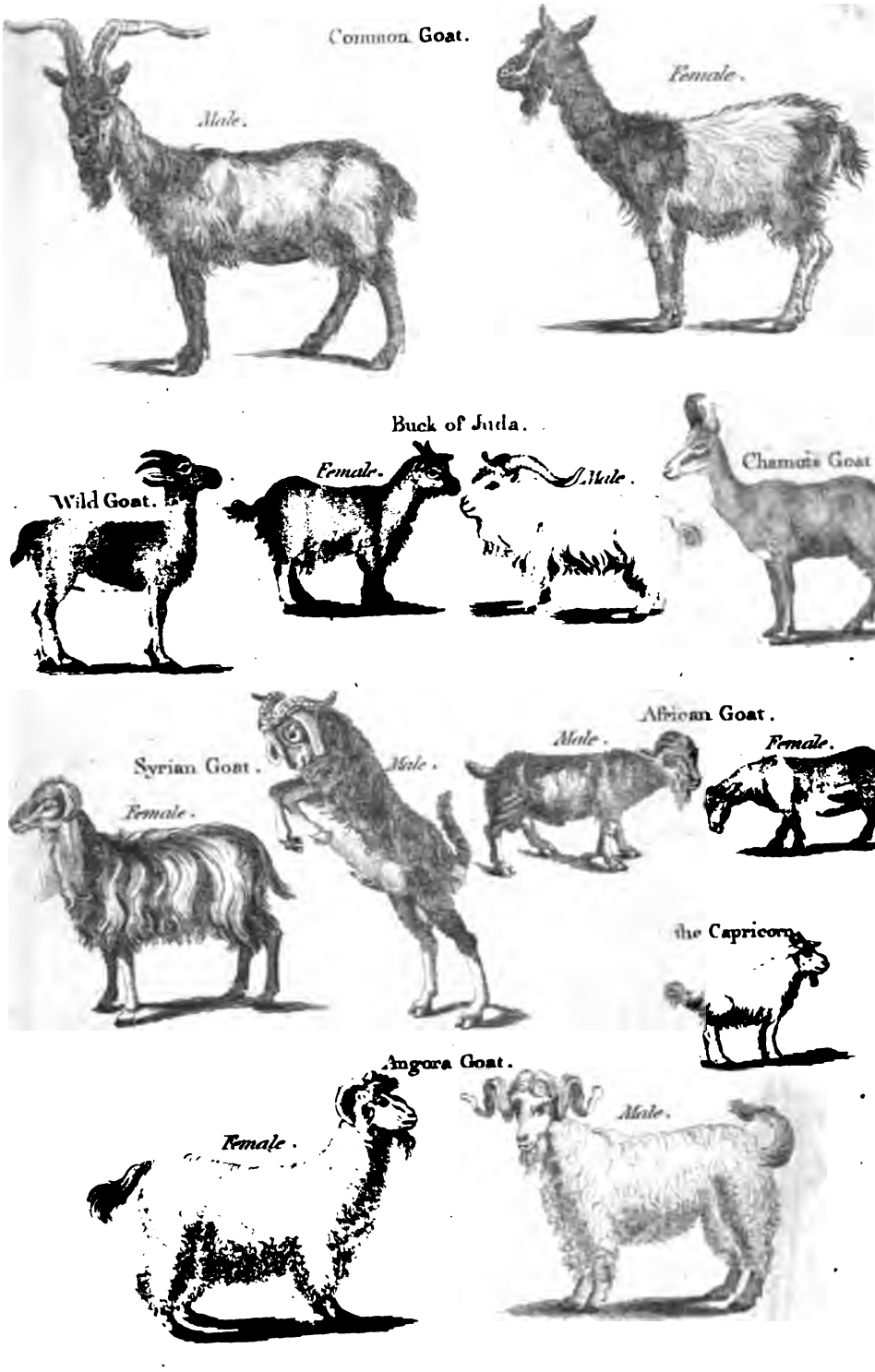
The Swift Aut

Harneſsed An

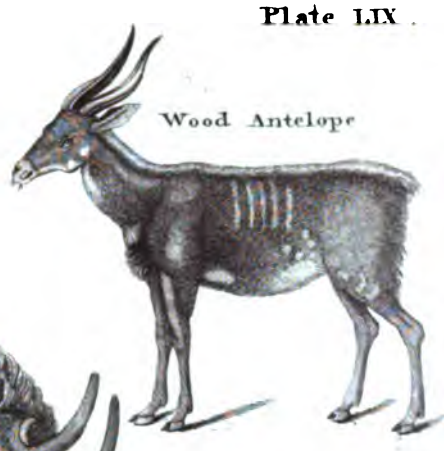
I

E

CAPRA.


Common Goat.
Male.
Female.
Buck of Juda.
Wild Goat.
Female.
Male.
Chamois Goat.
African Goat.
Male.
Female.
Syrian Goat.
Female.
Male.
the Capricorn
Angora Goat.
Female.
Male.

Caprimulgus
the Goat Sucker



Wood Antelope

The Gnou

Cochleæ

Cervicapra

Conchæ

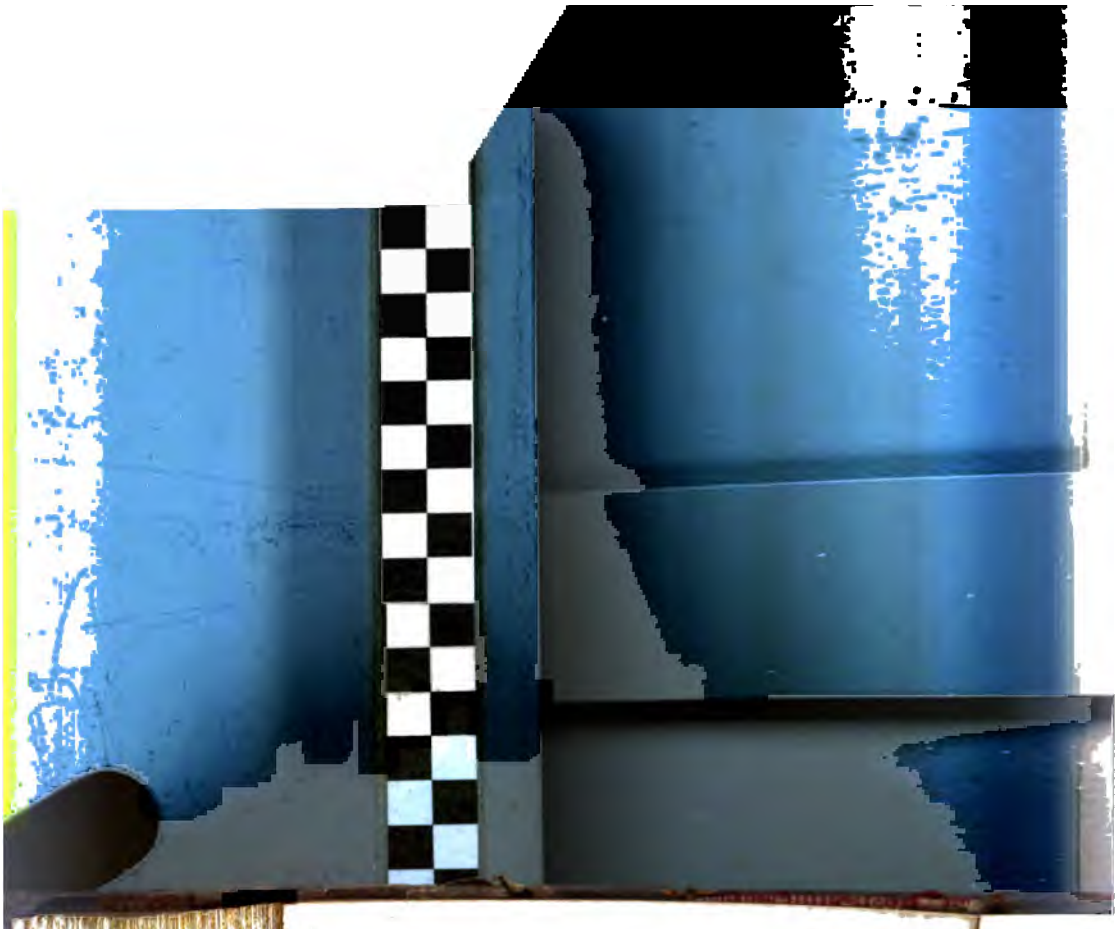
Coral

Capra Picta, the Nyl-Ghau
or White-footed Antelope.

Concha Margaritifera

Calamus Indicus

Cylindri



the following is the moſt complete arrangement we can make out; of theſe animals, from the different zoological authors.

I. CAPRA ÆGAGRUS of Pallas and Gmelin; the *Cervicapra* of Kæmpfer, and the Caucaſian goat of Pennant and Zimmerman, has large ſmooth black horns, ſharply ridged on their upper, and hollowed on their under ſurface. There are no veſtiges of knots or rings, but on the upper ſurface are ſome wavy riſings; they bend much back, and are much hooked at the end, approaching a little at the points. On the chin is a great beard, duſky, mixed with chefnut. The fore part of the head is black, the ſides mixed with brown; the reſt of the animal grey; or grey mixed with ruſt colour. Along the middle of the back, from the neck to the tail, is a black liſt; and the tail is black. The female is either deſtitute of horns, or has very ſhort ones. In ſize it is ſuperior to the largeſt he goat, but in form and agility reſembles a ſtag: yet Monardus compares it to the he-goat, and ſays that he has the feet of the goat. They inhabit the lower mountains of Caucaſus and Taurus, all Aſia Minor, and perhaps the mountains of India. They abound on the inhoſpitable hills of Laar and Khorazan in Perſia; and, according to Monardus, are alſo found in Africa. It is an animal of vaſt agility. Monardus was witneſs to the manner of its ſaving itſelf from injury by falling on its horns: He ſaw one leap from a high tower, precipitate itſelf on its horns; then ſpring on its legs and leap about, without receiving the leaſt harm. This is one of the ſpecies, which yields the once much valued alexipharmic, the Bezoar ſtone. See BEZOAR, § I. 2, 3.

II. CAPRA AMMON has ſemicircular, plain, white horns, and no beard. It is about the ſize of a ram, and is a native of Siberia. This animal is called the *wild ſheep* by Mr Pennant, and is accordingly ranked as a ſpecies of OVIS by Mr Kerr.

III. CAPRA BEZOARTICA, the BEZOAR GOAT, is bearded, and has long, wrinkled, ſlender, upright, tapering, ſharp-pointed horns. It is a native of Perſia. The bezoar is found in one of its ſtomachs, called *abomaſus*. See ABOMASIUM, and BEZOAR, § I. 2, 3. It has a red fur, with a white breaſt and belly; and is claſſed among the *antelopes*, by Drs Gmelin, Pallas, Pennant, &c.

IV. CAPRA CAUCASICA, the Caucaſian goat, is deſcribed by Mr Kerr, as quite a different ſpecies from the Caucaſian goat of Mr Pennant. See No. I. "The horns are ſlightly triangular, knobbed on their anterior ſurface and arched backwards, conſiderably divaricating with their extremities turned inwards. It inhabits the bare, ſchiſtic, rocky ſummits of mount Caucaſus, near the origin of the Terek and Chouban rivers. The horns of the male are of a dirty blackiſh colour, and much longer than thoſe of the common goat, (No. IX.) thoſe of the female are browniſh, and much ſmaller. The upper parts of the body are a bright browniſh grey, with a narrow dark brown line along the back; the under parts are whitiſh, and the limbs black. The hair is harſh, ſomewhat ſtiff, aſh-coloured at the roots, and mixed with an aſh-coloured wool. It is about the ſize of a common goat, with which, however, it will not breed; and is rather ſhorter and broader in its general form."

V. CAPRA CERVICAPRA, the LIDMEE, or INDIAN ANTELOPE of Buffon, has long prominently annulated, tapering, plaited, cylindrical horns, and inhabits Barbary. The hair near the horns is longer than in any other part of the body. The females want horns. Mr Haſſelquiſt gives the following account of this ſpecies: "The cervicapra is larger, ſwifter, and wilder, than the common rock goat, and can ſcarcely be taken without a falcon. It is met with near Aleppo. I have ſeen a variety of this, which is common in the Eaſt, and the horns appear different; perhaps it is a diſtinct ſpecies. This animal loves the ſmoke of tobacco; and, when caught alive, will approach the pipe of the huntſman, though otherwiſe more timid than any animal. This is perhaps the only creature, beſides man, that delights in the ſmell of a poiſonous and ſtinking plant. The Arabians hunt it with a falcon (*falco gentilis*, Lin)." See HUNTING.

VI. CAPRA DEPRESSA, the African goat, has ſhort thick triangular, depreſſed horns, bent inwards, lying on the head. It is about the ſize of a kid; and the hair is long and pendulous, rough in the male, but ſmooth in the female. The male has alſo two long hairy wattles below the chin.

VII. CAPRA DORCAS, the antelope, has cylindrical annulated horns, bent backward, contorted, and ariſing from the front between the eyes. It is a native of Africa and Mexico. Theſe animals are of a moſt elegant and active make; of a reſtleſs and timid diſpoſition; extremely watchful; of great vivacity; remarkably ſwift; exceedingly agile; and their boundings ſo light, and ſo elaſtic, as to ſtrike the ſpectator with aſtoniſhment. What is very ſingular, they will ſtop in the middle of their courſe, for a moment gaze at their purſuers, and then reſume their flight. The chace of theſe animals is a favourite diverſion in the eaſtern nations, and affords proofs of the rapid ſpeed of the antelope tribe. The grey-hound is unequal in the courſe; and the ſportſman is obliged to call in the aid of the falcon trained to the work, to ſeize on the animal and impede its motions, to give the dog time to overtake it. In India and Perſia, a ſort of leopard is made uſe of in the chace: this animal takes its prey, not by ſwiftneſs of foot, but by the greatneſs of its ſprings, by motions ſimilar to that of the antelope; but ſhould the leopard fail in its firſt eſſay, the antelope eſcapes. The fleetneſs of this animal was proverbial even in the earlieſt times; the ſpeed of Aſahel is beautifully compared to that of the TZEBI; and the Gadites were ſaid to be as ſwift as the roes upon the mountains. The ſacred writers took their ſimilies from objects familiar to the people they addreſſed. The diſciple raiſed to life at Joppa was ſuppoſed to have been called *Tabitha* i. e. *Dorcas*, or the *Antelope*, from the beauty of her eyes; and this is ſtill a common compariſon in the eaſt: where *Aine el Czazel*, i. e. you have eyes of an Antelope, is the greateſt compliment that can be paid to a fine woman. Some ſpecies of antelopes form herds of 2000 or 3000, while others keep in ſmall troops of 5 or 6. They generally reſide in hilly countries; though

though ſome inhabit plains: they often browſe like the goat, and feed on the tender ſhoots of trees, which gives their fleſh an excellent flavour. This is to be underſtood of thoſe that are taken in the chaſe; for thoſe that are fattened in houſes are far leſs delicious. The fleſh of ſome ſpecies are ſaid to taſte of muſk, which perhaps depends on the qualities of the plants they feed on. To the diſtinctive marks of the Antelope already given, we may add the following, as peculiarly characteriſtic of theſe animals, viz. that moſt of them have diſtinct lachrymal pits under the eyes; that they all have a plait of the ſkin ſub-divided into ſeveral cells in the groins; bruſhes of hair on the knees, and beautiful black eyes: that in general their fleſh is excellent, that none of the numerous tribe are to be found in America, and only two ſpecies, viz. the *Chamois* and the *Saiga*, (N° XIV, and XV.) in Europe. Mr Kerr, who, as already obſerved, claſſes the antelope as a diſtinct genus, enumerates 29 ſpecies; among which he ranks the BEZOARTICA, CERVICAPRA, GAZELLA, and TARTARICA, of Linnæus. (See No. III, V, VIII, and XV.) But having adopted Linnæus's general claſſification of the whole under CAPRA, we ſhall here deſcribe the remainder of theſe, as varieties of this ſpecies; adopting, however, Mr Kerr's deſcriptions in general, as well as moſt of his ſpecific names; only ſubſtituting the Greek ſynonime, DORCAS, of Linnæus, for the Latin, ANTILOPE, uſed by Mr Kerr.

1. CAPRA DORCAS BUBALIS, the CERVINE ANTELOPE of Pennant, or *Antilope Bubalis* of Pallas, has the horns thick, twiſted ſpirally, annulated, bent in form of a lyre, (*i. e.* receding in the middle, approaching towards the ſummits, and again receding from each other,) almoſt ſtraight and upright at their ends. The head is large, and like that of an ox: the eyes are placed very high, and near the horns: the form of the body is a mixture of the ſtag and heifer; the height to the top of the ſhoulders 4 feet: the tail is rather more than a foot long, aſinine, and terminated with a tuft of hair: the colour a reddiſh brown; white about the rump, the inner ſide of the thighs, and lower part of the belly; a dark ſpace occupies the top of the back, the front of the upper part of the fore legs, and hinder part of the thighs. It inhabits Barbary, and other parts of Africa, being alſo found towards the Cape of Good Hope. It is the *bekker el waſh* of the Arabs, according to Dr Shaw; who ſays, that its young quickly grow tame, and herd with other cattle. Mr Forſkal mentions it among the Arabian animals of an uncertain genus, by the name *bakar uaſhi*. This is the YACHMUR of the Bible, and the *bubalus* of the ancients; not the *buffalo*, as later writers have ſuppoſed. The Dutch of the Cape call this ſpecies *hart-beeſt*. They go in great herds; a few only are ſolitary. They gallop ſeemingly with a heavy pace, yet go ſwiftly. They drop on their knees to fight, like the NYL-GHAU, (No. 14.) and the *Boſch-bok*, (No. 22.) The fleſh is fine grained, but dry. Mr Sparman informs us, that in this animal there is a pore one line in diameter, an inch or an inch and a half below and before the internal angle of the eye. From this pore, which is the aperture of a caruncle that lies below, there is ſecreted a matter almoſt like ear wax, which he obſerved the Hottentots keep in a piece of ſkin as a rare and excellent medicine: on the dried ſkin of the animal, this pore is ſcarcely to be diſcerned. This Mr Sparman ſuppoſes is the reaſon, why ſo great and accurate a zoologiſt as M. Pallas makes no mention of this pore, as he made his deſcriptions chiefly from the dried ſkins of this animal. The uſe of this pore, which is alſo found in the deer, is for affording freſh reſpiration, a circumſtance ſo eſſential to beaſts of chaſe. See CERVUS.

2. CAPRA D. CORINNA, the *corine antelope*, has very ſlender, ſhort, ſmooth horns, ſlightly bent like a lyre, ſix inches long, ſurrounded with circular *rugæ*: on each ſide of the face is a white line; beneath that is one of a black: the neck, body, and flanks are tawny; belly and inſide of the thighs white; on the knees is a tuft of hair. It is leſs than a roe-buck, and inhabits Senegal.

3. CAPRA D. DAMA, the NANGUER of Buffon, or *Swift Antelope* of Pennant, and, in his opinion, the *κερας* of Ælian, has round horns, 8 inches long, hooked forwards at the ends. The general colour is tawny; but this ſpecies varies in that particular. It inhabits Senegal, and is eaſily tamed. It is ſo very ſwift, that Ælian compares its flight to the rapidity of a whirl-wind.

4. CAPRA D. GAZELLA, the *Gazelle*, or Barbary antelope of Buffon, and the *Antilope Dorcas* of Kerr, has horns 12 inches long, bent like a lyre, and annulated with 13 prominent rings; the upper parts of the body are reddiſh brown; the under parts and buttocks white; both are divided by a duſky line. Dr Gmelin ſuppoſes this to be the DISCHON of Moſes, or the Roe of the mountains mentioned by Solomon. Shaw reckons it the Tzebi of ſcripture. It goes in large flocks, is very timid and eaſily tamed. It inhabits Barbary, Egypt, Arabia, and Syria.

5. CAPRA D. GRIMMIA, the ANTELOPE GRIMMIA of Gmelin and Pallas, and the Guinea antelope of Pennant, is a very elegant animal, about 18 inches high, with horns about 3 inches long. It is the MOSCHUS GRIMMIA, of Linnæus. See MOSCHUS.

6. CAPRA D. GUTTUROSA, the *Tzeiran*, or *Yellow Goat*, of Du Halde, and the *Chineſe Antelope* of Pennant, is of a reddiſh colour, and has lyrated yellow horns, 9 inches long, and ſurrounded with 20 rings. It is about 4 feet 4 inches long, 2½ high, at the ſhoulders. This ſpecies inhabits the deſerts of Mongalia, and thoſe from China to Thibet, and the N. borders of India. They keep in flocks, are very ſwift, extremely timid, and take prodigious leaps. They are equally afraid of woods and waters. They have a large moveable protuberance on the neck, owing to a ſingular conſtruction of the wind-pipe. The female wants horns.

7. CAPRA D. KEVELLA of Pallas, the KEVEL of Buffon, or *flat-horned antelope* of Pennant, has horns 12 inches long, flattened on their ſides, reclining firſt backwards, bending in the middle, and then reverting forwards at their ends, and annulated with from 14 to 18 rings: the upper ſide of the body is reddiſh brown; lower part and buttocks are white: the ſize equal to a roe-buck.

They

They inhabit Senegal, Barbary and Perſia, where they live in great flocks, are eaſily tamed, and are excellent meat.

8. CAPRA D. KOBA, the Senegal antelope of Pennant, has horns 17 inches long; thick, annulated with 18 rings, and lyrated; very cloſe at the roots, and ſmooth, ſharp, and bent backwards at the ends. It is a large ſpecies, Mr Pennant having had a ſkin of one, 7 feet long. The head and body are a light reddiſh brown; the rump a dirty white, and the tail a foot long and blackiſh. Mr Kerr ſuppoſes this to be the *Hart-beeſt* of the Cape.

9. CAPRA D. BERWIA, the ANTELOPE KOB of Erxleben, or *Gambian antelope* of Pennant, is of the ſize of a fallow deer, reddiſh coloured, with a remarkable tuft of hair on the neck; and has horns 13 inches long, 5½ round at the baſe, ſurrounded with 8 or 9 rings; very diſtant in the middle, but approaching very near at the points, which are ſmooth. The Letwee inhabits Africa.

10. CAPRA D. LEUCOPHÆA, the BLUE ANTELOPE of Pennant, or the BLUE GOAT of Kolben, is larger than a fallow deer, and forms the link between the goat and antelope kinds. The fur is of a fine blue and velvet like appearance: the horns are roundiſh, annulated with 20 prominent rings, and bent backwards in an arch. It inhabits the country N. of the Cape of Good Hope.

11. CAPRA D. LEUCORYX has the noſe thick and broad, like that of a cow; the ears ſomewhat ſtouching; body clumſy and thick: The horns long, very ſlightly incurvated, ſlender, annulated part of the way; black-pointed. The tail is tufted, and reaches to the firſt joint of the legs. The colour is in all parts a ſnowy white, except the middle of the face, ſides of the cheeks, and limbs, which are tinged with red. This ſpecies is about the ſize of a Welch runt; and inhabits Gow-Bahrein, an iſle in the gulph of Baſſora.

12. CAPRA D. OREAS, the ELK-ANTELOPE of Sparman, and the *Indian antelope* of Pennant, has thick ſtraight horns, marked with two prominent ſpiral ribs near two thirds of their length, ſmooth towards their end; ſome above two feet long. The head is of a reddiſh colour, bounded on the cheeks by a duſky line. The fore head is broad; and has a ſtripe of long looſe hairs; and on the lower part of the dewlap, a large tuft of black hair. The noſe is pointed. Along the neck and back, from head to tail, is a black ſhort mane: the reſt of the body is of a blueiſh grey, tinged with red. The tail does not reach to the firſt joint of the leg; is covered with ſhort cinereous hair; and the end tufted with long black hairs. The hoofs are ſhort, ſurrounded at their junction with the legs by a circle of black hairs. The height to the ſhoulders is 5 feet. It is thick bodied and ſtrongly made; but the legs are ſlender. It wants the *ſinus lachrymalis*. The females are horned like the males.—The Caffres call this ſpecies *empoſos* and *poſſo*. The Dutch of the Cape call it the *eland*, or *elk*. Buffon is by ſome accuſed of a miſtake in calling this the *coudous*, a name which it is ſaid, he ought to have beſtowed on his *oxdoma*. Mr Kerr follows him, however, in this, and has doubtleſs inveſtigated the ſubject. This ſpecies inhabits India, Congo, and the ſouthern parts of Africa. They live in herds; but the old males are often ſolitary. They grow very fat, eſpecially about the breaſt and heart: ſo that they are eaſily caught; and when purſued, will ſometimes fall dead in the chace. They are ſlow runners: when rouſed, always go againſt the wind, nor can the hunters (even if they front the herd,) divert them from their courſe. The fleſh is fine-grained, very delicious, and juicy. The hide is tough: the Hottentots make tobacco pipes of the horns.

13. CAPRA D. OREOTRAGUS, the African antelope of Schreber, has very ſtraight tapering ſharp-pointed horns, ſlightly wrinkled at the baſes. The head is reddiſh; the upper parts of the body, a greeniſh yellow, and the under parts a light aſh colour. The tail is very ſhort. It inhabits Africa.

14. CAPRA D. PICTA, the NYLGHAU, or *white-footed antelope* of Pennant and Erxleben, has ſhort horns, bending a little forward; ears large, marked with two black ſtripes; a ſmall black mane on the neck, and half way down the back: a tuft of long hairs on the fore part of the neck; above that, a large ſpot of white; another between the fore legs on the cheſt: one white ſpot on each fore foot; two on each hind foot: the tail is long, tufted with black hairs. The colour of the male is a dark grey. The female is of a pale brown colour; with a mane, tuft, and ſtriped ears, like the male; on each foot 3 tranſverſe bands of black and two of white: It is deſtitute of horns. The height to the top of the ſhoulders is 4 feet, 1 inch; the length, from the bottom of the neck to the anus, 4 feet. The head is like that of a ſtag; the legs are delicate. Theſe animals inhabit the diſtant and interior parts of India, remote from our ſettlements. They are brought down as curioſities to the Europeans, and have of late years been frequently imported into England. In the days of Aureng-Zebe, they abounded between Delhi and Lahor, on the way to Cachemire. They were called *nyl-ghau*, *i. e. blue* or *grey bulls*; and were one of the objects of chace, with that mighty prince, during his journey. They were incloſed by his army of hunters within nets, which, being drawn gradually cloſer, at length formed a ſmall precinct: into this the king, his omrahs, and hunters, entered, and killed the beaſts with arrows, ſpears, or muſkets; and ſometimes in ſuch numbers, that Aureng-Zebe uſed to ſend quarters as preſents to all his great people. They are uſually very gentle, feed readily, and lick the hands which give them food. In confinement they will eat oats, but prefer graſs and hay; are very fond of wheaten bread; and when thirſty, they will drink two gallons at once. They are ſaid to be at times very vicious and fierce. When the males fight, they drop on their knees at a diſtance from one another, make their approaches in that attitude, and when they come near, ſpring and dart at each other. They often, in a ſtate of confinement, fall into that poſture without doing any harm. They ſometimes, however, attack mankind unprovoked. A labourer, who was looking over ſome pales which incloſed a few of them, was alarmed by one of the males flying at him like lightning; but he was ſaved by the intervention of the wood work, which it broke to pieces, and

at the same time one of its horns.—They have bred in England. They are supposed to go nine months with young, and have sometimes two at a birth.

17. CAPRA D. PYGARGA, the *white-fated antelope* of Pennant, is about 5 feet 4 inches long, 3 feet high at the shoulders, and is of a hoary red colour, with a blood red or bay neck, a deep red band along the sides, white face and buttocks. In the form of its horns, and disposition of the dark red bands, it resembles the SPRINGER, whence Mr Kerr suspects it to be the same species. See N° 18.

16. CAPRA D. PYGMÆA, the GUEVEI, of Pallas, the *royal antelope* of Pennant, filled by Bosman *king of the harts*, has very short, conically pointed, twisted horns, wrinkled at the bases, and inhabits Senegal, Guinea, and the hottest parts of Africa. "This very elegant little animal, says Mr Kerr, is only about 9 inches high, and yet is so exceedingly agile, that it is said to leap over a twelve-feet wall. It is of a reddish brown colour, with jet black horns, about two inches long; the females have none; the ears are broad, and the legs are scarcely bigger than goose quills. It is easily made very familiar, but is so extremely tender, as not to bear being transported to Europe."

17. CAPRA D. REDUNCA, the NAGOR, or *red antelope* of Pennant, has horns 5½ inches long, bent forwards at the ends; one or two slight rings at the base; ears almost as long as the horns; hair stiff and bright; is in all parts of a reddish colour, but palest on the cheek; the tail is very short. It inhabits Senegal and the Cape; where it is very frequent, and is a common food. It is 4 feet long, and 2 feet 3 inches high.

18. CAPRA D. SALTANS, the SPRINGER ANTELOPE of Pennant, has slender horns, annulated half way, and twice contorted. The ears are very long and dusky. The face, cheeks, nose, chin, and throat, are white. The whole upper side of the neck, part of the lower, the back, sides, and outside of the limbs, are of a pale yellowish brown. The cheek, belly, and inside of the limbs, are white; the sides and belly divided by a broad band of chestnut, which runs down part of the shoulders. The tail reaches to the first joint of the leg; the upper part white; the lower black, and furnished with long hair. The buttocks are white; and from the tail half way up the back is a stripe of white, expansible at pleasure. This elegant species weighs about 50 lib. and is rather less than a roe-buck. It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, where it is called the *spring bok*, from the prodigious leaps it takes on the sight of any body. When alarmed, it has the power of expanding the white space about the tail into the form of a circle, which returns to its linear form when the animal is tranquil. These animals migrate annually from the interior parts in small herds, and continue in the neighbourhood of the Cape for 2 or 3 months: then join companies, and go off in troops consisting of many thousands, covering the great plains for several hours in their passage. They are attended in their migrations by numbers of lions, hyænas, and other wild beasts, which make great havoc among them. They are excellent eating, and with other antelopes are the venison of the Cape. Mr Masson informs us, (*Phil. Trans.* vol. lxvi. p. 103.) that they also make periodical migrations, once in 7 or 8 years, in herds of many hundred thousands, from, as he supposes, the interior parts of *Terra de Natal*. They are compelled to it by the excessive drought which happens in that region, when sometimes there does not fall a drop of rain for two or three years. These animals in their course desolate Caffraria, spreading over the whole country, and not leaving a blade of grass.

19. CAPRA D. SCRIPTA, the *harnessed antelope* of Pennant, the *guib* of Buffon, has straight horns 9 inches long, pointing backwards, with two spiral ribs. The general colour is chestnut, but the sides are most singularly marked with two transverse bands of white, crossed by two others from the back to the belly: the rump with three white lines pointing downwards on each side; and the thighs spotted with white; exhibiting altogether the appearance of harness. The tail is ten inches long, covered with long rough hairs.—It inhabits the plains and woods of Senegal, living in large herds. It is frequent at the Cape, where it is called the *bonte-bak*, or *spotted goat*. It is 4½ feet long, and 2 feet 8 inches high.

20. CAPRA D. STREPSICEROS, the COMMON, or *Cape deer* of Buffon, or the *striped antelope* of Pennant, has smooth horns, twisted spirally, and compressed sideways, with a ridge on the one side following the wreaths; they consist of 3 bends; and are sometimes 4½ feet long in a straight line. They are naturally of a dusky colour, and wrinkled; but are generally brought over highly polished. The females are destitute of horns. In the upper jaw is a hard horny substance, disposed in ridges. The length of the animal is 9 feet; the legs are slender: the general colour is of a reddish cast, mixed with grey; and from the tail, along the top of the back, to the shoulders, is a white stripe; from which are 7 others, 4 pointing towards the thighs, and 3 towards the belly: but they vary in number of stripes. On the upper part of the neck is a short mane: beneath the neck, from the throat to the breast, are some long hairs hanging down. It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, where it is called *coesdors*, and is said to leap to a most astonishing height. This species wants the *fluus lacrymalis*.

21. CAPRA D. SUBGUTTUROSA, the *Persian antelope* of Schreber, has horns above 13 inches long, bent like a lyre; the upper parts of the body are of a brownish ash colour; the under parts pure white, with a yellowish white stripe along each side. The throat has a protuberance on the fore part. It is the size of a roe, and lives in large flocks in Persia, between the Caspian and Euxine.

22. CAPRA D. SYLVATICA, the BOSCHBOK, or wood goat of the Cape, a species of antelope, according to Mr Sparman, unknown to all the cultivators of natural history, whether ancient or modern, till he described it, in the Memoirs of the Swedish academy for 1780, by the name of *antilope sylvatica*. This animal has obtained the name it goes by, from its being the only one among the gazels in Africa, which lives in the woods and groves. In size, it is somewhat above 2½ feet high. The horns are 10½ inches long; the

ears 5 inches. The horns are black, triangular, and wreathed, ſo that both the ſides and angles have ſomewhat of a ſpiral turn. At bottom they are rather rough, in conſequence of a ſet of almoſt innumerable wavy rings; which, however, are not elevated much above the ſurface. At top they are conical and ſharp pointed, and as ſmooth as if poliſhed. It has no fore teeth or *inciſores* except in the lower jaw, where it has 8. It has no *porus ceriferus*. The hairs on the head are very ſhort and fine; farther down more rough and rugged, reſembling goats hair. Forwards on the neck, breaſt, ſides, and belly, they are 1½ or 2 inches long. On the ridge of the neck, and along that of the back, they are 3 or 4 inches in length, ſo as to form a kind of mane, terminating in a tail about a finger's breadth long. On the hind part of the thighs and buttocks, the hairs are 8 inches long; the legs and feet are ſlender, and covered with ſhort hairs; the fetlock joints are ſmall; the noſe and under lip are decorated with black whiſkers about an inch long. The predominant colour is dark brown, which occupies the principal part of the ſides, the back, the upper part of the tail of the cheſt and fore ribs, and the fore part of the belly. A ſtill darker brown, bordering upon black, is diſcoverable on the outſide of the ſhoulders, and ſome part of the fore ribs. The fore part of the noſe, from the eyes to the muzzle, is of a ſoot colour. The ears are as black as ſoot on the outſide, but on the inſide grey; and both outwards and inwards covered with hairs ſtill ſhorter than thoſe on the head; excepting half the fore part of the lower edge, where the hairs are white and half an inch long. From 9 to 12 ſmall white ſpots are on the haunches and the ſides near them. A narrow line of long white hairs extends from the neck along the back and tail, in the midſt of the long brown hairs. From the chine of the back to the ſides run 5 white parallel ſtreaks, only diſcoverable by a cloſe inſpection. This creature does much miſchief to the vineyards and kitchen gardens of the Cape coloniſts; and it ſhows a great deal of craft and artifice in avoiding the ſnares and traps ſet for it, as well as the ambuſcades of the ſportſmen. As he runs ſlowly, he is ſometimes caught by dogs. When he ſees there is no other reſource, he puts himſelf in a poſture of defence; and when he is going to butt, kneels down, like the white-footed antelope and the hart-beeſt. The coloniſts are not very fond of hunting him in this manner, as on this occaſion he generally ſells his life very dear, by killing ſome of their beſt hounds. This creature's horns, which are its chief defence, ſometimes alſo prove its bane, by being entangled in the buſhes and ſmall branches of trees. To avoid this, it carries its noſe horizontally ſtraight forward while it runs; ſo that they lie directly on its neck: notwithſtanding which the horns are generally worn away a little on the fore part, and thus acquire ſome degree of poliſh. This ſpecies is monogamous, or keeps in pairs. It is ſwifter in woodlands than the dogs, which likewiſe ſooner loſe ſcent of him there. The female, which has no horns, and on that account runs about in the foreſt more free and unimpeded, does not ſuffer herſelf ſo eaſily to be hunted out of the woods, having a more certain defence againſt the dogs in her legs, than the male has in his horns, eſpecially as ſhe is not ſo bulky and heavy as the male. Her breaſt is ſaid to be very plump and fleſhy, but the fleſh in general is not very tender.

23. CAPRA D. TRAGOCAMELUS, the *Biggel* of Mandeſloe, or *Indoſtan antelope* of Pennant, has horns 7 inches long, bent forward; a ſhort mane, a large tufted hump on the ſhoulders, and a tail 22 inches long, terminated with flowing hairs. It inhabits India, is near 5 feet high, and reſembles the camel in the reverſed arch of its neck and its manner of kneeling. The hair is ſoft, ſhort, ſmooth, and light aſh-coloured; in ſome parts duſky; beneath the breaſt and tail white; and on the fore head is a black ſpot of a rhomboid figure. On the lower part of the cheſt the ſkin hangs looſe like the dew-lap of a cow: the hind parts of the body reſemble thoſe of an aſs, and the limbs are ſlender.

VIII. CAPRA GAZELLA, the goat antelope of Linnæus, the ANTILOPE ORYX, or BEZOARTICA of Pallas, the *Paſan* of Buffon, or *Egyptian antelope* of Pennant, has ſtraight, ſlender, diſtinctly annulated horns 3 feet long, which taper to a point: The body and ſides are of a reddiſh aſh colour, with a duſky line along the back. It inhabits Syria, Arabia, Perſia, India, Egypt, Ethiopia, and the Cape. It is about the ſize of a fallow deer. Dr Gmelin takes this for the ZEBI of ſcripture.

IX. CAPRA GNOU, has ſcabrous horns, thick at the baſe, bending forward cloſe to the head, then ſuddenly reverting upwards. The mouth is ſquare; the noſtrils covered with broad flaps. From the noſe, half way up the front, is a thick oblong ſquare bruſh of long ſtiff black hairs reflected upwards, on each ſide of which the other hairs are long, and point cloſely down the cheeks. Round the eyes are diſpoſed in a radiated form ſeveral ſtrong hairs. The neck is ſhort, and a little arched. On the top a ſtrong and upright mane, reaching from the horns beyond the ſhoulders. On the chin is a long white beard; and on the gullet a very long pendulous bunch of hair. On the breaſt, and between the fore legs, the hairs are very long and black. The tail reaches to the firſt joint of the legs, and is full of hair like that of a horſe, and quite white. The body is thick; and covered with ſmooth ſhort hair of a ruſhy brown colour tipt with white. The legs are long, elegant, and ſlender, like thoſe of a ſtag. On each foot is only a ſingle ſpurious or hind hoof. It is a ſtrange compound of animals: having a vaſt head like that of an ox; body and tail, like a horſe; legs like a ſtag; and the ſinus lacrymalis of an antelope. Its ordinary ſize is about that of a common galloway; its length being ſomewhat above 5, and height rather more than 4 feet.—Theſe animals inhabit in great numbers the fine plains of the great Namacquas, far N. of the Cape of Good Hope, extending from S. Lat. 25° to 28° 42′. where Africa ſeems at once to open its vaſt treaſures of hooſed quadrupeds. The gnou is an exceedingly fierce animal: on the ſight of any body it uſually drops its head, and puts itſelf into an attitude of offence; and will dart with its horns againſt the pales of the incloſure towards the perſons on the outſide; yet it will afterwards take

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the bread which is offered. It will often go upon its knees, run ſwiftly in that ſingular poſture, and furrow the ground with its horns and legs. The Hottentots call it *gnou* from its voice. It has two notes, one reſembling the bellowing of an ox, the other more clear. It is called an ox by the Europeans, and is ſtiled accordingly *Bos Gnou* by Zimmerman.

X. CAPRA HIRCUS, the common goat, with arched carinated horns, and a long beard. It is a native of the eaſtern mountains. Goats are animals of more ſagacity than ſheep. Inſtead of having an antipathy at mankind, they voluntarily mingle with them, and are eaſily tamed. Even in unınhabited countries, they betray no ſavage diſpoſitions. In 1098, an Engliſh veſſel having put in at the iſland of Bonaviſta, two negroes came aboard, and offered gratis to the captain as many goats as he pleaſed. The captain expreſſed his aſtoniſhment at this offer. The negroes replied, that there were only 12 perſons in the iſland; that the goats had multiplied to ſuch a degree, that they were become extremely troubleſome; and that, inſtead of having any difficulty in catching them, they followed them wherever they went, and were ſo obſtinately officious, that they could not get quit of them. Goats are ſenſible of careſſes, and capable of a conſiderable degree of friendſhip. They are ſtronger, more agile and leſs timid, than ſheep. They have a lively, capricious, and wandering diſpoſition; are fond of high and ſolitary places, and frequently ſleep upon the very points of rocks. They are more eaſily ſupported than any other animal of the ſame ſize; for there is hardly an herb, or the bark of a tree, which they will not eat. Neither are they liable to ſo many diſeaſes as ſheep: they can bear heat and cold with leſs inconvenience. The actions of animals depend more upon the ſucce and variety of their ſenſations than the ſtructure of their bodies: the natural fanciſulneſs of goats is accordingly expreſſed by the irregularity of their actions: they walk, ſtop ſhort, run, jump, ſhow and hide themſelves, by mere caprice, ariſing from the natural vivacity of their temper. The buck will copulate when he is a year old, and the female when ſhe is 7 months. But as this is rather premature, they are generally reſtrained till they be 18 months or two years. The buck is bald, beautiful, and vigorous; one is ſufficient to ſerve 150 females. A buck for propagation ſhould be large, handſome, and about two years of age; his neck ſhould be ſhort and fleſhy; his head ſlender; his ears pendent; his thighs thick; his limbs firm; his hair black, thick, and ſoft; and his beard long and buſhy. The females are generally in ſeaſon from September to the end of November. At that time the males drive whole flocks of the females from place to place, and fill the whole atmoſphere around them with their ſtrong odour; which, though as diſagreeable as aſafœtida, it is ſuppoſed, may be conducive to prevent many nervous diſtempers. Horſes are ſuppoſed to be much refreſhed by it; on which account many people keep a he-goat in their ſtables. Goats go with young 4½ months, and bring forth from the end of February to the end of April.—They have only two teats, and generally bring forth but one or two young; ſometimes 3, and in good warm paſtures there have been inſtances, though rare, of their bringing forth 4 at a time. They continue fruitful till 7 years of age; but a buck goat is ſeldom kept after he is 5. Both young and old are affected by the weather; a rainy ſeaſon makes them thin, a dry ſunny one makes them fat and blithe: Their exceſſive venery prevents their longevity. In our climate they ſeldom live above 11 or 12 years. Though their food coſts next to nothing, their produce is valuable. The whiteſt wigs are made of their hair; for which purpoſe that of the he-goat is moſt in requeſt: the whiteſt and cleareſt is ſelected from that which grows on the haunches, where it is longeſt and thickeſt: a good ſkin, well haired, is ſold for a guinea; though a ſkin of bad hue, and ſo yellow as to baffle the barber's ſkill to bleach, will not fetch above 18d. or 2s. The Welſh goats are far ſuperior in ſize, and in length and fineneſs of hair, to thoſe of other mountainous countries. Their uſual colour is white; thoſe of France and the Alps are ſhort-haired, reddiſh, and the horns ſmall. Bolſters, made from the hair of a goat, were in uſe in the days of Saul, as appears from 1 Samuel xix. 13. The ſpecies very probably was the Angora goat, whoſe ſoft and ſilky hair ſupplied a moſt luxurious couch. The ſuet of the goat is in great eſteem as well as the hair. The inhabitants of Caernarvonſhire ſuffer theſe animals to run wild on the rocks in winter as well as in ſummer; and kill them in October for the ſake of their fat. The goats killed for this purpoſe are about 4 or 5 years old. Their ſuet makes candles far ſuperior in whiteneſs and goodneſs to thoſe made from that of the ſheep or the ox, and accordingly brings a much greater price in the market; nor are the horns without their uſe, the country people make knives. The ſkin is peculiarly well adapted for the glove manufactory, eſpecially that of the kid: it alſo takes a dye better than any other ſkin, it was formerly much uſed for hangings in the houſes of people of fortune, being ſuſceptible of the richeſt colours, and when flowered and ornamented with gold and ſilver, became an elegant and ſuperb furniture. The fleſh is of great uſe to the inhabitants of thoſe countries which abound with goats; and affords them a cheap and plentiful proviſion in winter. The haunches are frequently ſalted and dried, and ſupply all the uſes of bacon: this by the Welſh is called *roch gr wden*, or hung veniſon. The meat of a ſplayed goat of 6 or 7 years old (which is called *hyſrſ*) is reckoned the beſt; being generally very fat and ſweet. It makes an excellent paſty; goes under the name of *rock veniſon*; and is little inferior to that of the deer. The milk is ſweet, nardanium for aſs's milk; and medicinal. It is an excellent ſucceſful of hartſhorn drunk warm in bed in the morning and afternoon, and repeated for ſome time, proved a cure for phthiſis when not too far gone. In ſome of the mountainous parts of Scotland and Ireland, the milk is made

done wonders in this and similar cases; and to many of those places there is as great a resort of patients of all ranks, as there is in England to the Spas or baths. The milk of this animal must be salutary, as it browses only on the tops, tendrils, and flowers, of the mountain shrubs, and medicinal herbs; rejecting the grosser parts. The blood of the he-goat, dried, was formerly reckoned a specific in pleurisies, and is even taken notice of by Dr Mead for this purpose; but is now deservedly neglected. Cheese made of goat's milk is much valued in some of our mountainous countries, when kept to a proper age. It has a peculiar taste and flavour. There are several varieties of the common goat: such as,

1. CAPRA HIRCUS ANGORENSIS, the Angora goat, a variety found only in the tract that surrounds Angora, Beibazar, and Cougna, in Asiatic Turky, and about Comron in Persia. Strabo seems to have been acquainted with this kind; for, speaking of the river Halys, he says, that there are goats found near it that are not known in other parts. In the form of their body they differ from the common goat, being shorter; their legs too are shorter, their sides broader and flatter, and their horns are straighter; but their most valuable characteristic is their hair, which is soft as silk, of a glossy silvery whiteness, and curled in locks of 8 or 9 inches long. This hair is the basis of our fine camlets, and imported to England in form of thread; for the Turks will not permit it to be exported raw, for a reason that does them honour; because it supports a multitude of poor, who live by spinning it. Mr Kerr says that those of Cougna have brown or black hair. It is said, that by change of climate they lose their beauty: but whether the design of Baron Altstromer succeeded (a patriotic Swede, who imported some into his own country, to propagate the breed for the sake of their hair,) we have not learned.

2. CAPRA HIRCUS CAPRICORNUS, the CAPRICORNE of Buffon has short horns, the ends turned forwards, their sides annulated, and the rings more prominent before than behind. Mr Kerr says, the place, history, and even figure of this animal are uncertain.

3. CAPRA HIRCUS MUTICA, the Cabonas goat of Pennant, is ranked by Mr Kerr, as a distinct species, although he stiles it "a *variety*, resembling the common domestic goat in every thing but the want of horns." Perhaps this deficiency may be accidental, like that of many of our Scots ewes.

XI. CAPRA IBEX, the wild goat, is supposed to be the stock from whence the tame species sprung. It has large knotty horns reclined upon its back, is of a yellowish colour, and its beard is black. The females are less, and have smaller horns, more like those of a common the goat, and with few knobs on the upper surface: they bring forth one kid, seldom two, at a birth. They inhabit the highest Alps of the Grison's country and the Valais; they are also found in Crete, Italy, the Apennines, Germany, Siberia, and Kamtschatka. They are very wild, and difficult to be shot, as they always keep on the highest points. Their chace is exceedingly dangerous: being very strong, they often tumble the incautious huntsman down the precipices, unless he has time to lie down, and let the animals pass over him. They are said not to be long-lived. Their flesh is much esteemed, and their skins are very thin.

XII. CAPRA MAMBRINA, or MAMBRICA, the Syrian goat, has short reclined horns, pendant ears, and a beard. It is a native of the East. Their ears are of a vast length; from one to two feet; and sometimes so troublesome, that the owners cut off one to enable the animal to feed with more ease. These animals supply Aleppo with milk. They are larger than the common goats.

XIII. 1. CAPRA REVERSA, the BUCK OF JUDA, has short, smooth, erect horns, curved a little forwards. It is about the size of a kid of a year old. It inhabits Judea or Whidaw in Africa. Mr Kerr describes another variety, viz.

2. CAPRA REVERSA NANA, filled by Buffon, the *other buck of Juda*. It inhabits the same country, is likewise of a dwarfish size, and though joined with the preceding by Dr Gmelin, is separated by Mr Kerr, on account of the different figure of the horns; which he describes as "very thick, rounded on the upper surface, with two sharp edges below; and bent backwards, with a slight spiral twist, downwards, outwards, and upwards."

XIV. CAPRA RUPICAPRA, the CHAMOIS GOAT, has smooth, erect and crooked horns. The body is of a dusky red colour; but the front, top of the head, gullet, and inside of the ears, are white; the under part of the tail is blackish; and the upper lip is a little divided. It inhabits the Alps of Switzerland, Italy, and the ci-devant province of Dauphiny; the Pyrenean mountains; Greece, and Crete: does not dwell so high in the hills as the Ibex, and is found in greater numbers. It is of the size of a domestic goat, and its hair is as short as that of a hind. Its vivacity is delightful, and its agility truly admirable. These animals are very social; they go in little flocks of from 3 to 20; sometimes from 60 to 100 of them are seen dispersed along the declivity of the same mountain. The large males keep at a distance from the rest, except in the rutting season, when they join the females, and beat off all the young. At this period, their ardour is still longer than that of the wild bucks. They bleat often, and run from one mountain to another. Their season of love is in the months of October and November, and they bring forth in March and April. A young female takes the male at the age of 18 months. The females bring forth one, but rarely two, at a time. The young follow their mothers till October, if not dispersed by the hunters or the wolves. They live between 20 and 30 years. Their flesh is very good. A fat chamois goat will yield from 12 to 14 pounds of suet, which is harder and better than that of the goat. The blood of the chamois is extremely hot, and is said to have qualities and virtues nearly equal to those of the wild goat. The voice of the chamois is a very low and almost imperceptible kind of bleating, resembling that of a hoarse domestic goat. By this bleating they collect together. But, when alarmed, or when they perceive an enemy, they advertise one another by a kind of whistling noise. The sight of the chamois is very penetrating, and his sense of smelling is acute. When he sees a man distinctly, he stops for some time, and flys off when he makes a near-

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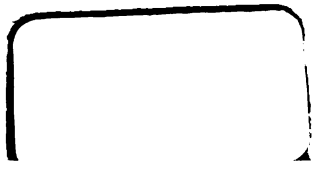
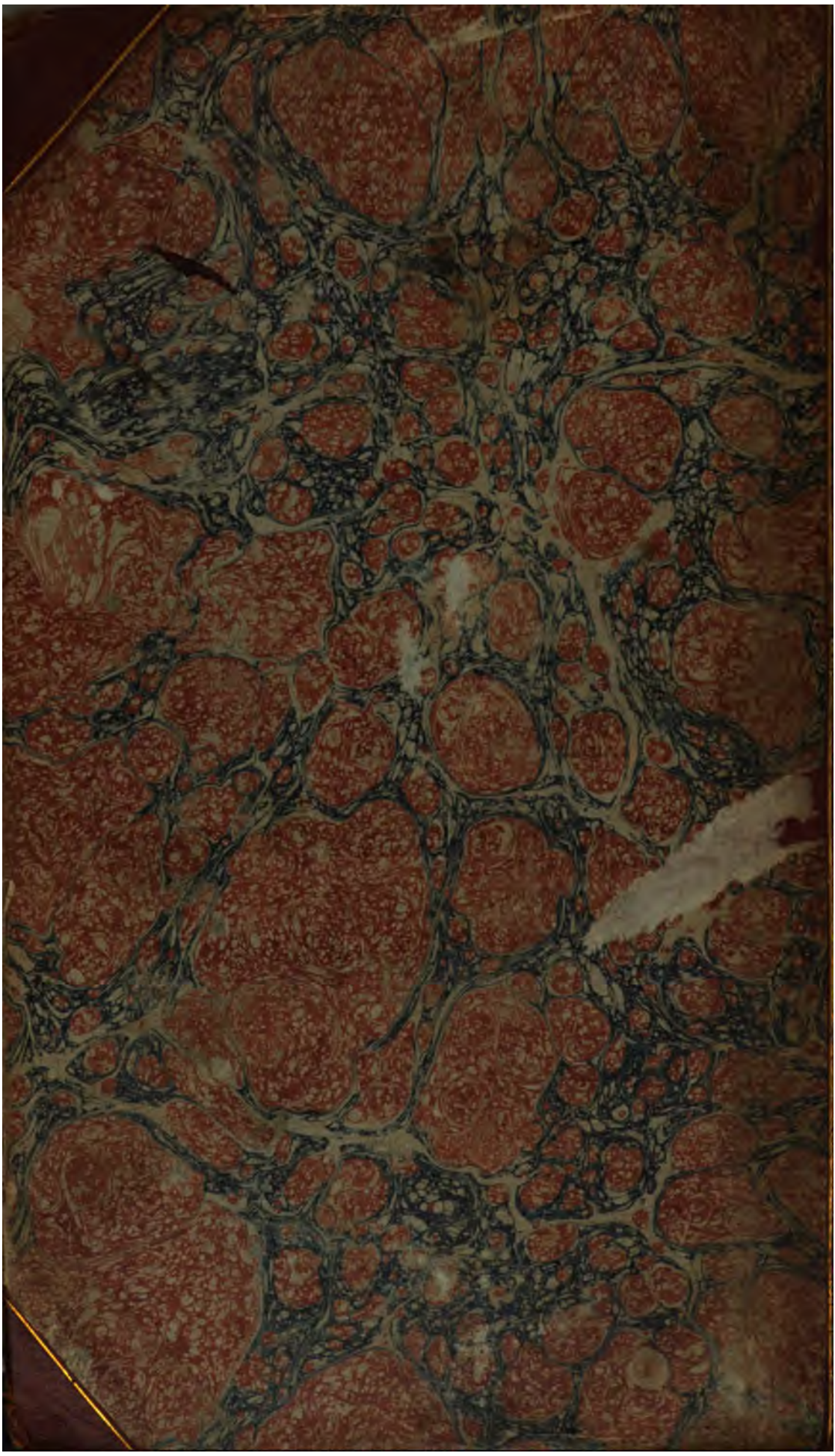
er approach. His ſenſe of hearing is equally acute, for he hears the ſmalleſt noiſe. When the wind blows in the direction of a man, he will perceive the ſcent at the diſtance of more than half a league. Hence, when he ſmells or hears any thing which alarms him, he whiſtles with ſuch force, that the rocks and foreſts re-echoe the ſound. All his brethren, that are near, take the alarm. This whiſtling is performed through the noſtrils, and conſiſts of a ſtrong blowing, ſimilar to the ſound which a man may make by fixing his tongue to the palate, with his teeth nearly ſhut, his lips open, and ſomewhat extended, and blowing long and with great force. The chamois is very fond of the leaves and tender buds of ſhrubs, particularly of the *meum athamanta*. Kramer, in his *Hiſt. Nat. Auſt.* ſuppoſes the balls called *ægagropilæ*, found in his ſtomach, to be occaſioned by this food. See ÆGAGROPILÆ. He ruminates like the common goat. The food he uſes announces the heat of his conſtitution. He is admired for his large round eyes, whoſe ſize correſponds with the vivacity of his diſpoſition. His head is adorned with two ſmall horns, from half a foot to 9 inches in length. Their colour is a fine black, and they are placed on the front nearly between his eyes; and, inſtead of being reflected backward, like thoſe of other animals, they advance forward above the eyes, and bend backward at the points, which are extremely ſharp. He adjuſts his ears moſt beautifully to the points of his horns. Two tufts of black hair deſcend from his horns to the ſides of his face. The reſt of the head is of a yelloviſh white colour, which never changes. The horns of the chamois are uſed for the heads of canes. Thoſe of the female are ſmaller and leſs crooked. The ſkin of the chamois, when dreſſed, is very ſtrong, nervous, and ſupple, and makes excellent riding breeches, gloves, and veſts. Garments of this kind laſt long, and are of great uſe to manufacturers. The chamois goats are ſo impatient of heat, that, in ſummer, they are only to be found under the ſhades of caverns in the rocks, among maſſes of congealed ſnow and ice, or in elevated forets on the northern declivities of the moſt ſcabrous mountains where the rays of the ſun ſeldom penetrate. They paſture in the mornings and evenings, and ſeldom during the day. Their mode of climbing or deſcending inacceſſible rocks is admirable. They neither mount nor deſcend perpendicularly, but in an oblique line. When deſcending, particularly, they throw themſelves down acroſs a rock which is nearly perpendicular, and of 20 or 30 feet in height, without having a ſingle prop to ſupport their feet. In doing this, they ſtrike their feet 3 or 4 times againſt the rock, till they arrive at a proper reſting place below. The ſpring of their tendons is ſo great, that, when leaping about among the precipices, one would imagine they had wings inſtead of limbs. His legs are long; thoſe behind are ſomewhat longer, and always crooked, which favours their ſpringing to a great diſtance; and, when they throw themſelves from a height, the hind legs receive the ſhock, and perform the office of two ſprings in breaking the fall. During winter, they inhabit the lower foreſts, and live upon pine leaves, the buds of trees, ſhes, and ſuch green or dry herbs as they can find by ſcratching off the ſnow with their feet. The foreſts that delight them moſt, are thoſe which are very full of rocks and precipices. The hunting of the chamois is very difficult and laborious. See HUNTING. This ſpecies is ranked among the *antilopes* by Meſſrs Pennant and Kerr, Dr Gmelin, &c.

XV. CAPRA TARTARICA, the SAIGA of Buffon, has cylindrical, ſtraight, annulated horns; the points inclining inward, the ends ſmooth; the other part ſurrounded with very prominent annuli; of a pale yellow colour, and the greateſt part ſemipellucid; the cutting teeth are placed ſo looſe in their ſockets, as to move with the leaſt touch. The male is covered with rough hair like the he-goat, and has a very ſtrong ſmell; the female is ſmoother. The hair on the ſides and throat is long, and reſembles wool; that on the neck and head is hoary; the back and ſides of a dirty white: the breaſt, belly, and inſide of the thighs, of a ſhining white. The females are deſtitute of horns. Theſe animals inhabit all the deſerts from the Danube and Dnieper to the river Irtiſh, but not beyond. Nor are they ever ſeen to the N. of 54° or 55° Lat. They are found in Poland, Moldavia, about Mount Caucaſus, the Caſpian Sea, and Siberia, in the dreary open deſerts, where ſalt ſprings abound, feeding on the ſalt, the acrid and aromatic plants of thoſe countries, and grow in ſummer very fat: but their fleſh acquires a taſte diſagreeable to many people, and is ſcarcely eatable, until it is ſuffered to grow cold after dreſſing. The females go with young the whole winter; and bring forth in the northern deſerts in May. The young are covered with a ſoft fleece, like new dropt lambs, and curled and waved. They are regularly migratory. In the rutting ſeaſon, late in autumn, they collect in flocks of thouſands, and retire into the ſouthern deſerts. In the ſpring they divide into little flocks, and return northward. The males feed promiſcuouſly with the females and their young. They rarely lie down all at the ſame time: but, by a providential inſtinct, ſome are always keeping watch; and when they are tired, they ſeemingly give notice to ſuch as have taken their reſt, who ariſe inſtantly, and relieve the centinels of the preceding hours. They thus often preſerve themſelves from the attack of wolves, and from the ſurprize of the huntſmen. They are exceſſively ſwift, and will outrun the fleeteſt horſe or grey hound; yet partly through fear, (for they are the moſt timid of animals,) and partly by the ſhortneſs of their breath, they are very ſoon taken. If they are bit by a dog, they inſtantly fall down, nor will they even offer to riſe. In running they ſeem to incline on one ſide. In a wild ſtate they ſeem to have no voice. When brought up tame, the young emit a ſhort ſort of bleating, like ſheep. The males are very libidinous. When taken young, they may eaſily be tamed; but if caught at full age, they are ſo wild and obſtinate as to refuſe all food; they die, their noſes are quite flaccid. They are hunted for the ſake of their fleſh, horns, and ſkins, which are excellent for gloves, belts, &c. See HUNTING. The fat reſembles that of mutton; in taſte, that of a buck: the head is reckoned the moſt delicate part.

END OF THE FOURTH VOLUME.